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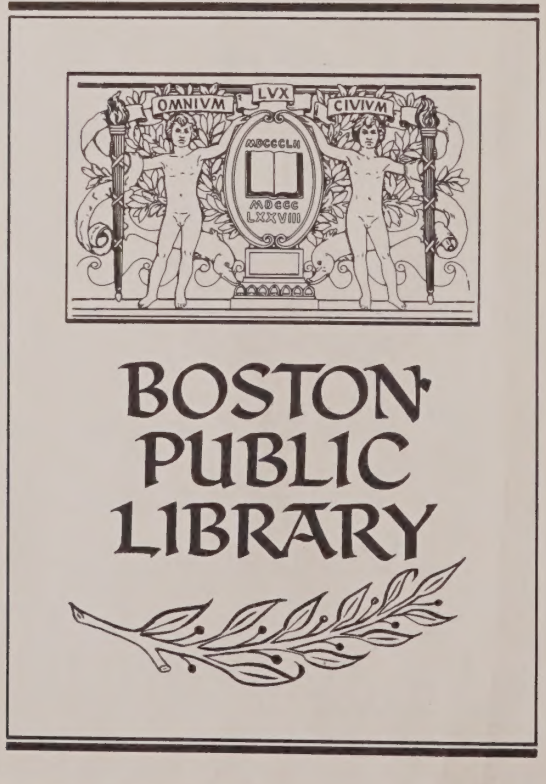

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 2, 1874.

The Week.

THERE have been some ripples in political affairs during the week, but on the whole it has been quiet. Up in New Hampshire the Democrats in the Legislature have been behaving in a manner to shock beyond expression their Republican brethren. They have been turning the latter out of office, redistricting their districts in a subdolous and gerrymandering manner, and generally conducting themselves as Republicans have done on similar occasions. The grief of the latter is not, therefore, soothed with universal sympathy, although it is feared that all these wiles of the Democrats may hereafter secure that party a control of the State even when it has not carried it by the popular vote. Mr. E. H. Rollins, former Republican manager in New Hampshire, must hear this with a grave smile. On the other hand, it is predicted that, if this is what you call Democratic reform, many men of independent minds "will cut bait in the next election"—a nautical term meaning that they will refuse all active participation in the campaign. In Massachusetts there is the withdrawal of Mr. Dawes and Mr. George Hoar, and the rumored withdrawal of Judge Hoar and General Butler. This would leave Massachusetts with a delegation weakened of its strongest elements both of good and evil, but loss would much preponderate over gain, especially as Butler's retirement because he chose, and not because he must, would make his disappearance not a blessing unmixed. And the new Congress needs to be strong, for it is to do its work amid the distractions of a Presidential contest. From other parts of the country little is now heard. In Washington, Mr. Creswell has resigned, and Mr. Hale, next friend of Mr. Blaine's, has succeeded to him, thus giving the quidnuncs a problem with which they have been very busy—namely, whether this appointment means that Mr. Blaine is General Grant's first choice for the next Presidency and is to have the patronage, or whether it means that the President wished to propitiate Mr. Chandler, whose daughter Mr. Hale married, in order that the father-in-law might support him in getting a third term. This question is not yet solved. In South Carolina they indict more officials for theft, and Moses pardons them, and now threatens to run again as a candidate "in order to be vindicated." In Iowa there has been an "anti-monopolist" convention, which was for hard-money, and which will probably in any event be made master of the State at the approaching election. In Indiana and Illinois a black outlook for the Republicans is reported.

The announced retirement of Mr. Dawes from Congress has naturally called out notices of his public life in the Massachusetts papers which have been of a kind and complimentary character. For a man to have served continuously eighteen years in Congress is undoubtedly in these times a remarkable fact, and the Massachusetts citizen is ordinarily proud of keeping his representative in Congress, and may well have some misgivings as to the successor. Mr. Dawes may be said to be the product of an intelligent New England constituency, above the level of which he never rose, and in advance of which he never ran. He did not find out that the civil service needed reform until his constituency were fully aroused by its abuses, and then his fourteen years of experience in Congress were insufficient to enable him to suggest the proper remedy. Although industrious and assiduous, he has never shown any sign of statesmanship, and his almost unequalled experience has merely made him skilled in the jangling machinery of Congress—able to push a measure he favored or to obstruct one to which he was opposed, but unable to make the machine of government better than he found it, or to direct its working towards the end of permanent good. In his eighteen years of service he has never uttered a sentiment or originated a measure which any one can call to mind; and if he should remain in Congress fifty years, he probably would never be able to deduce general principles from governmental experience, nor forecast the necessities and means of national progress. As a public economist he inherited Mr. Washburn's ideas, which were to make speeches against extravagance, to vote against all expenditures, right or wrong, and to shut one's eyes to everything beside. If Mr. Nast had ever turned his sarcastic pencil against Mr. Dawes, he might have portrayed him as a little spigot, smiling blandly at his own tightness, while the revenue rolled in volumes from the Treasury bung-hole. In character, Mr. Dawes has always been "thoroughly respectable," but never high-minded. He would spurn a bribe, or vote against a job; but next you might find him making political capital or obeying some fancied law of party necessity by opposing a measure which he believed to be just, or writing an equivocating letter denying his connection with Crédit Mobilier. It is in moral courage that he has been most defective—active when the battle was to be fought with blank cartridges, like the first Butler campaign, or in attacking a broken-down official like Richardson, but too ready to retreat under cover when the fighting became really dangerous. A man so timid, so sensitive to what people think, and yet with so little faith in the abiding judgment of the better part of mankind, could never be a statesman, and his "respectability" has done a great deal towards keeping things as they are—that is to say, in the mire.

We told last week of a scheme of Senator Carpenter's to gag ourselves and all our fellow-members of the press, and told also how he had come out in a letter and explained that he had never for a moment nourished any such design. There has since been another excitement from a similar cause, but according to some accounts our apprehensiveness was as groundless as before. Mr. Poland, of Vermont, proffers the Boston *Advertiser* what he calls the true history of the latest bill for destroying the liberty of the press. He says that in 1870 Congress passed an act establishing a police-court in the District of Columbia. Previously there had been none. The new law gave to this court original and exclusive jurisdiction of certain crimes—all, that is to say, not deemed capital or otherwise infamous. But soon the Supreme Court of the District strongly intimated that this granting of so extensive a jurisdiction to a court wherein there was no provision for trial by a jury was unconstitutional. Upon this the bench and bar of the District began to feel alarm at a possible condition of things in which there should be a considerable body of offences with no court whatever having jurisdiction over them, and Mr. Poland was asked to introduce an amended bill giving to the regular criminal courts a concurrent jurisdiction with the police-court. This was the chief object of the bill. There was, however, another defect to be remedied. An indicted criminal fleeing from the District was secure. The constitutional provision for the rendition of fugitives applies to States only, and the second object of the bill was to extend this provision to the District also. Mr. Poland adds that the thought of newspapers never crossed his mind; nor does he yet see why any newspaper writer should be in any fear of the bill. Mr. Poland has been a Vermont judge, and probably knows what he is talking about, but the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* asserts that the bill would never have been mentioned by the newspapers if a Senator had not pointed out to the reporters that the eleventh section of the Carpenter bill was much less dangerous to newspaper men than the Poland bill. This comports well with the fact, not yet explained by Mr. Carpenter, that excellent lawyers in the Senate

at once attacked his innocent-looking eleventh section, and indeed supplied the newspapers with the objections which have been made.

The firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. have replied to the wild accusations brought against them by General Butler, in his speech of June 19th, in a very effectual manner. The first charge was that the firm had attempted to defraud the Government by importing metals in the form of works of art. Their reply to this charge is, "that the importations to which General Butler referred were made before the firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. came into existence, and before any one of the present or late members of the firm became connected with the metal-importing business; the senior member of the firm, William E. Dodge, being at the time engaged in the dry-goods business." We may add that this charge had been carefully examined and publicly exploded by Mr. D. A. Wells some weeks before the General made his great speech. His second charge was that in a certain tariff act Mr. Dodge "went to the Treasury and had a comma taken out of one place and put in another, and thereby cleared $2,250,000." The reply of the firm is that this historic comma, which made nonsense of the tariff act and imposed "two conflicting rates for one and the same article," was "taken out" by Mr. Fessenden, then Secretary of the Treasury, who decided, as he was no doubt quite right in doing, that the sense of the act required it; and that the firm did not make anything by the change. For the benefit of those of our readers who may not be skilled in the science of hermeneutics, we may say that the taking out of commas, when done by the Secretary of the Treasury, even at the request of William E. Dodge, is not a criminal act, and is indeed frequently done by courts of the highest jurisdiction in the construction of statutes. Butler was soundly scored by several of his fellow-members on the occasion of his harangue, which was even more foolish than usual, and even better adapted for injuring himself and his cause.

General Sherman's removal of his office as General of the Army from Washington to St. Louis is probably to be best understood by military men, but it has been made the subject of some newspaper articles of a more than commonly bitter character, and it becomes a proper subject for lay comment. As if in answer to these articles, there have now been published two letters which throw light on the subject—one from General Sherman, written four years ago, and addressed to Secretary Belknap, and one from General Grant, written eight years ago, and addressed to the late Secretary Stanton. Both are characteristic—General Sherman's being as forcible as usual, and General Grant's as plain and simple in intention as usual, though rather less clumsy in expression. The gist of them both seems to be this: In the army regulations made in 1847—which General Sherman mentions with praise—the General of the Army was given very full control of it. But later, in the days of President Polk, when General Scott quarrelled with Secretary Marcy, this control passed to the Secretary of War; and, later still, says General Sherman, though General Grant has nothing to say about this, it became the policy of Jefferson Davis, and, after him, of his successor, Floyd, to keep the General-in-chief as much as possible subordinated to the Secretary of War, in order that thus the army might go into the war of secession without a legitimate head. General Sherman is always forcible in speech, but about his being always right there are doubts, and all this may or may not be history. It is certain that General Grant, who in 1866 was very desirous of rehabilitating the office of General, and wrote as much to Secretary Stanton and got his wish, has since taken a different view, and it seems altogether certain that there are two sides to the question whether it is best for the army to be managed by the President as Commander-in-chief, through the Secretary, or to be managed by the General. This is an old conflict. It is, however, easily conceivable what General Sherman thinks on the question, and it is conceivable, too, that he is just the man, after thinking of it for some time, to cast the dust of Washington off his feet in some indignation and betake himself to St. Louis. We have spoken of some of the newspaper articles as having been uncommonly bitter; but they had a sort of malicious pettiness which doubtless did much to defeat their aim. This aim was to persuade people that Grant was now so low that Sherman felt compelled to drop him.

General James Watson Webb has communicated to the public the first part of his defence against the charges recently preferred against him in Congress. It is in the shape of a very long letter, as might have been expected, for General Webb's accomplishments in this line have been famous for many years; and it is very pugnacious and abusive, it being also now many years since General Webb has been surrounded by enemies—some of them pretty constantly incited by British gold, others of them natural foes, such as Barnburner Democrats and Whigs of various stripes except the right one. Secretary Fish is one of these latter, and gets some of the old-fashioned ponderous billingsgate flung at him. But the defence, so far as it can be judged from this instalment of it, is certainly no defence at all. The charge was much as follows: General Webb, being in 1860 sent to Brazil as our minister, pushed a certain claim, and by-and-by recovered a heavy sum, but under the protest of Brazil. The State Department received in due course $25,000. Soon after it seemed to our Government that the money should be returned, and the $25,000 was sent to Brazil, whence word immediately came that this was not the full amount nor the half of it. The State Department, according to Judge Hoar, traced £5,900 sterling, sent at the time the award was originally made, to Mr. Webb's London bank-account, and as good as said that it was a part of the money paid by the Brazilian Government and sequestrated by General Webb to his own use. We give a fair idea of the defence of which we speak when we say that General Webb meets this point by saying that, as soon as he heard of the charges made, he wrote to Messrs. Baring, and that in reply they sent him a letter, which he appears to present with a complete reliance on its sufficiency. Yet what is it? Messrs. Baring tell him they have received his letter, and on examination find that in 1867, the year in question, they had bought for him in Europe £5,798 worth of United States bonds, and sent them to him at Rio. Nothing more is offered in explanation. As for the general line of reply, Webb asserts that Mr. Fish hates him, and hated Seward, and seeks revenge in slander; that Mr. Seward knew and approved Webb's action, and that it was not in any sense a secret; and he hints that the missing money went to Brazilian officials as a corruption fund. Asked for the names, he answers that undoubtedly certain of the political leaders of Brazil would be very happy to get hold of them, but that he is not going to tell. The Brazilian officials should estimate at its true value this rather rare spirit of self-sacrifice.

One of the most important and largest granges in the country, "Good Hope" Grange, of McDonough County, Illinois, has voted, with only two dissenting voices, to disband and surrender its charter and its existence. The reasons given by these grangers are that the original principles of the organization have been entirely ignored; that the officers have assumed powers which are tyrannical, arbitrary, and entirely subversive of good order in the lodge and in the community; that the officers of the National Grange have behaved in a systematically autocratic way, ruling with a rod of iron; that large sums of money have been collected by the several State Granges and the National Grange, for which no adequate return has ever been realized by the individual members of the order; that a disposition has been from time to time manifested by the State and other officers of the order to change the organization from its original plan to that of a political party; that, in short, the Grange movement of McDonough County is a failure. The resolutions passed are the more remarkable from the fact that McDonough County is on the line of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, a line owned by grinding monopolists—non-residents at that—who have for many years been engaged in those operations which are known in times of commercial activity

as carrying the products of the grain-fields of the West to deep-water, and in times of commercial depression as sucking the life-blood out of the heart of the same section of country.

The most interesting parts of Mr. Evarts's address on Chief-Justice Chase, delivered before the Alumni Association of Dartmouth College, were those devoted to the legal-tender cases and the impeachment of Andrew Johnson. With regard to the latter, Mr. Evarts's opinion that it was chiefly due to Mr. Chase that the first great impeachment case in the history of this country was not degraded to the level of a political proscription, will probably be felt to be more and more true as time goes on. With regard to Mr. Chase's position as to legal-tender, Mr. Evarts was not so successful in justifying the apparently irreconcilable conflict between Mr. Chase's action as Secretary of the Treasury and his action as Chief-Justice. Indeed, Mr. Evarts did not attempt to reconcile them. Of his general estimate of the character and abilities of Mr. Chase, we may say that it has something of the glow of the orator, but appears to be in the main a just estimate—just enough for the present, at least. Time makes strange work with the names of the successive greatest and wisest of the race, and what he does in other lands we may count upon his doing in this also.

The proceedings against the notorious Police Commissioners, Charlick and Gardner, instituted some time since by Tammany Hall, have resulted in their conviction by a jury of fraudulent election practices, the imposition of a small fine, and the resignation of the Commissioners. Nothing could show more strongly the effect which the obstinacy and insensibility to public opinion of the Mayor is having in its turn on the public opinion of this city than the ready credence obtained by the rumor, started immediately after the termination of the proceedings, that Charlick and Gardner would be immediately reappointed to office. Whether they will be or not we do not profess to know, but a precedent for such a proceeding having been lately given by no less a person than the President of the United States, in his reappointing "Boss" Shepherd in Washington, we see no reason why any one should be surprised if mayors of large cities follow the example. The case is an important one, however, for Republicans to consider. The Police Commission of this city is the chief supervisory election machine in the country, and, considering the value of New York in a Presidential election, it would not be going too far to say that upon the constitution of this board the fairness or unfairness of a Presidential election might well turn. After the reform-movement war against Tweed, it was in the power of the Mayor to make this commission respected, and thereby greatly strengthen the hands of the party which was opposed to the discredited and despised organization of Tammany Hall. Instead of that, we see the reform movement and the Republican party discredited by the establishment of a firm alliance between the reform Mayor and these notorious men, and their removal from office effected, if it has been effected, by Tammany Hall itself. Their conviction is political capital, and good political capital, for the Democratic party.

A matter with which people had supposed they were done has just been brought forward again by Mr. Theodore Tilton. His new production leaves the public about as well informed in regard to the real nature of his charges or wrongs as it was before; but we do not think there is any doubt in the public mind as to the degree of wisdom he has exhibited in his recent course. On his own showing, he appears to have condoned all the offences against him, such as they may have been, and for one reason and another to have maintained a silence or a sort of silence for many months. Whatever the hardships which this course entailed upon him, they were all a part of the game he had chosen to play, and he should have played it to the end like a man and borne all the consequences. It can hardly be thought that the ill word of Dr. Leonard Bacon should have made so unbearable an addition to his woes that he must after so long an endurance at last make a confidant of the public. And this, indeed, he has not done. The confidence is incomplete, and for our part we hope it is to remain so, unless Mr. Beecher's friends see fit to exact from Mr. Tilton a full disclosure. Meantime, talk and counter-talk are as rambling, half relevant, and mutually contradictory and confusing as anybody need desire.

The course pursued by our Common Council in reference to the dogs is having some strange results. For one thing, there has been a horrible brutality, due to gross stupidity rather than cruel intent, in the killing of them. This could have been avoided in a dozen ways, but the Aldermen, apparently with a rough contempt for what they regard as the sentimentality of Mr. Bergh's Association, would have nothing to do with that body, refused to allow it to take charge of the executions, and gave the duty to a man of their own, who seems to be such a man as might be expected. Smothering the dogs has been his endeavor, but, in his ignorance of the nature of carbonic-acid gas, he has made extremely unsuccessful attempts. The details are a disgrace to our civilization, or would be if our city government and its ordinances represented our civilization. Another marked result of the municipal policy in the matter has been that it has greatly excited the human community, and apparently the canine community as well. It need not be doubted that the dogs are aware of what is going on; indeed, the general hunting of them by vagrant boys would suffice for that, and reports of bites are very unusually frequent. As for men and women, they are in a sort of small panic about hydrophobia, all the alleged cases of which are given in some of the papers with a most disgusting and demoralizing fulness. One man who some time since was bitten, has even been joked by his companions into believing himself hydrophobic, and has been taken to the hospital in a state of mania. Clearly this was superinduced by his fears, which again the criminal conduct of the newspapers had doubtless caused or increased. What proportion this kind of case bears to the total number of alleged hydrophobic cases even the doctors cannot say, but we may well believe it an extremely large one. And we may well doubt if any such measures as the Mayor and Council have taken are in any way defensible. At the same time, probably no reasonable man objects to seeing our city streets cleared of misbegotten, wretched dogs without proper masters, or without masters at all. It is this feeling which gives the ordinance a public support on the whole sufficient to sustain it.

The work of the past fortnight in Spain has been the attempt to force the position of the Carlists at Estella, a strongly fortified town on the river Ega, in Navarre. As early as the 16th of June, it was reported that Gen. Concha had begun the attack, but bad roads, consequent upon bad weather, delayed him, and it was not till the 25th or 26th that he crossed the Ega suddenly, and carried by rapid assault, in the midst of a terrible storm, three villages in the suburbs of Estella on the north and east, cutting off the line of retreat for the Carlists. On Saturday, he marched directly upon Estella, and in the night made an attack on Muro, about two miles distant, but, exposing himself in the front rank, was instantly killed. The army, discouraged by so great a blow, and being repulsed, fell back in more or less disorder, and with a loss which was probably heavy, to the respectful distance of Larraga and Tafalla, where it awaits the arrival of its new commander, Gen. Zabala. He will have much to do if he would rival the brilliant services of the veteran who preceded him, and whose death as well as successes ought to prove a wholesome inspiration to the army. Operations in other parts of Spain have been of some importance. On the 19th, Don Enrique was killed in an engagement at Alcora in Castellon, and Don Alfonso signally defeated on the 27th and 28th at Chelva, in the province of Valencia; and generally the Carlists have fared badly wherever they were encountered. Don Carlos was to have reached Estella on the 27th, and may be expected to take part in the next battle of importanec in the north.

THE WORK AND CHARACTER OF CONGRESS.

THE daily press has classified the work of the present Congress with remarkable unanimity in holding that the things which ought not to be done Congress has very properly left undone, and the things which ought to be done it has left undone likewise. In other words, the judgment of the country is that the sins of Congress are those of omission rather than of commission; and that we have not had a very bad Congress because we have had as nearly as possible no Congress at all. There are, however, some exceptions to this generalization, and the exceptions, strange to say, are each of unusual magnitude. On the positive side of good works may be noted the revision of the statutes, which is one of the largest and best-executed pieces of legislative work that the country has had for fifty years. It is not to be supposed that the present Congress, which has talked so much and done so little, began and finished the work of revision. On the contrary, this began many years ago, with a commission which did nothing except, we believe, rent a pleasant smoking-room, appoint a clerk, and draw pay. It then fell into the hands of a very competent commission, which really performed the task of revising in an able if not masterly manner. But when their report was laid before Congress, it became evident that revisions of substance would call out more debate than could be compassed by a session, even though nothing else was talked about, and it was therefore wisely determined to give up the hope of revising, and be content with the task of codifying. Accordingly, one of the ablest and most painstaking lawyers in the country was retained to go over the work of the commissioners, and cut out all changes of substance, so that what was left would be a code of existing law. Finally, with the assembling of the present Congress, Mr. Poland gave himself up to the work of perfecting and carrying the bill. The merit of Congress was in allowing competent hands to do the work, or in throttling the ignorant, self-opinionated legislative tinkers, who generally spoil whatever the competent few in Congress undertake.

To the same class of positive legislation belongs the Sanborn investigation, with its results of the Republican Treasury Department overturned and the demoralizing moiety system abandoned. And it is noticeable that for this, as for the preceding important measure of the session, we are chiefly indebted to an individual. The sub-committee of the Ways and Means, consisting of Messrs. Foster and Beck, stumbled unsuspectingly upon the trail, which they pertinaciously followed. For Mr. Beck to investigate his political opponents was characteristic, and neither creditable nor discreditable. But for Mr. Foster to forego the usual party pleasure of whitewashing his friends, and to brave the combined power of the Treasury, the secret service, the informers, the President, and the then Republican leader of the House of Representatives, and to pursue his investigation in a quiet and resolute way, with very little intention of arousing the public, and with no intention whatever of abandoning the enquiry, let the result be ever so damaging, certainly required a fair share of moral courage, and is one of the hopeful signs that our younger public men of the better class are beginning to regard "party" as nothing more than an instrumentality for the public good. And here we may observe parenthetically that the men who have not been afraid to "damage the party" have done the most to keep it upon its legs. If a gentleman of as irreproachable private character as Senator Buckingham had refrained from joining in certain whitewashing reports, and had stood in Mr. Foster's shoes at the time of the last Connecticut election, we feel pretty confident that Connecticut would now be one of the Republican States.

A codification which runs back to the very beginning of the Government, and analyzes the very worst specimens of statutory law that the whole world contains, and an investigation which entirely upsets the most powerful executive department of the Administration, are certainly unusual achievements for Congress, and of an unusually creditable character. But not less unusual in character are some of the discreditable acts, and noticeably the votes upon inflation and the abandonment of civil-service reform. For our representatives in Congress defiantly to betray the very issues upon which they were elected, and to do so without any decided change in the popular will, is happily not one of the ordinary offences of Congress. Our politicians in office are generally very careful to adhere in form to the party prescription, however they may dose the patient in secret; and they generally work up a new departure before they venture to take it. In these two exceptional instances, it is easy to trace the demoralizing influence of the two successful demagogues, Butler and Morton, and the growing belief in the mind of the small-sized Congressman that he must have offices to control conventions, and conventions to control the people. The continued hankering after the franking privilege and the audacious apostasy from civil-service reform—especially after substantially every official report, including even the Pension Bureau's, had testified to the beneficial effects of the trivial effort of the Administration—are two of the most suspicious things connected with the present House, and almost lead one to the conclusion that if we must have small men in Congress, the more frequently we change them the better.

Soon after the beginning of the session which has just closed, a new member of the House, who has had much experience of human nature and but little of political life, was asked what he thought of his fellow-members. He replied favorably as to their integrity, but very poorly as to their attainments and intellectual capacity. The result of the session goes a great way to sustain this estimate. The talk, the tardiness, the general inaction, are characteristic of men not fitted for their business; the unusual absence of jobs and rings is indicative of their general well-meaningness. A House of Representatives which could only be held together by speeches that produced laughter, and that allowed itself to be bullied and led by the buffoonery of Butler, is not one from which much can be hoped; and the general expression of the country is not far from the right one when everybody thanks heaven that we have got off so well. The present House of Representatives is the most unwieldy legislative body that the country has ever had—for which, however, it is not responsible—and it is made up largely of ignorant men of a lower average of intellectual ability than is usually found there; but nevertheless it has done some of its work courageously and well, and we may gather hope for the future from the fact, which the public is beginning to recognize, viz., that the worst elements in Congress are among the old members.

The capacity or incapacity of a legislative body depends of course not alone upon the character of its members but upon the difficulties which they are to encounter, and the magnitude and complexity of the questions with which they are to deal. The mere political attorney who comes to Congress instructed by a convention on some particular policy or question, and who regards himself as useful and exemplary if he ostentatiously works up to his instructions, falls very far short of a lawgiver for a country which at present teems with intricate constitutional, political, and commercial questions. Our financial troubles, our paralyzed industries, our wrecked railway and manufacturing enterprises, are largely due to the constant presence of this cheap and worthless material in Congress. It has also been one of the worst features of Congress, and particularly of the House, that the few able and upright men who are always to be found there have possessed so little influence. The fact is attributable not to a natural arrogance or incapacity of the American character, but to the continued sending of this cheap and worthless material, and the continued withholding of the quiet, studious, thinking men who are to be found more or less in every district. The work of legislation is work of the most involved description. There is no man in the country who can say that he is the master of its principles or its details; but there are plenty of men competent to take it up as a subject of work and study; to come to Congress and unite their labor with that of others; to apply their practical common-sense toward working out useful results; and to aid in stamping out the ignorance and idleness and arrogance that have been found to be such constant obstructionists in Congress. We are now to all in-

tents a commercial people, with all the interlocking interests of commerce and its innumerable complexities. The farmer of a century ago dragged his few productions to the market on a vehicle which his neighbor made. His implements were largely of his own fashioning, and of machinery he had none. The farmer of to-day depends upon machinery from the sowing of his seed to the threshing out of his harvest, and upon the railway operator for the vehicle which will carry his grain to the market. Yet the farmer of to-day, whose interests are so manifestly interwoven with a hundred other interests, is content to pick out some ambitious talker; to instruct him properly by vague resolutions, drawn up by a politician in whom nobody has confidence; and then to walk over to his really sensible neighbor who ought to be in Congress, but is deemed too good a man to go there, and bewail the incompetency of Congress and the heartlessness of politicians. The two measures which we first noticed—the revision of the statutes and the Sanborn investigation—are examples, the one of patient, unassuming legislative work, the other of faithful, resolute reform, irrespective of party and political effect; and, as we note the approval bestowed on each by the more reflecting part of the community, we see indications that the community is growing more disposed to send men to Congress of whom hard work and common-sense will be the characteristics, and to awaken to the fact that the business of legislation is really business, and that it concerns ourselves.

RÔLE OF THE UNIVERSITIES IN POLITICS.

MR. GALTON, in his work on 'Hereditary Genius,' has drawn attention in a striking chapter to the effect which the systematic destruction and expatriation, by the Inquisition or the religious intolerance of the government, of the leading men of the nation—its boldest thinkers, most ardent investigators, most prudent and careful and ingenious workers, in generation after generation—had in bringing about the moral and political decline of the three great Latin countries, France, Spain, and Italy—a decline of which, in the case of the two former at least, we have probably not seen the end. The persons killed or banished amounted only to a few thousands every year, but they were—no matter from what rank they came—the flower of the population: the men whose labor and whose influence enabled the state to keep its place in the march of civilization. The picture is very valuable (particularly just now, when there is so great a disposition to revel in the consciousness of vast numbers) as calling attention to the smallness of the area within which after all the sources of national greatness and progress are to be sought. The mind which keeps the mass in motion, which saves and glorifies it, would most probably, if we could lay bare the secret of national life, be found in the possession of a very small proportion of the people, though not in any class in particular—neither among the rich nor the poor, the learned nor simple, capitalists nor laborers; but the abstraction of these few from the sum of national existence, though it would hardly be noticed in the census, would produce a fatal languor, were the nation not constantly receiving fresh blood from other countries. This element was singled out with considerable accuracy in France and Spain by religious persecution. It would happily be impossible to devise any process of selection one-quarter as efficient in our age or in this country. The one we have been using for the last twenty years, and on which a good deal of popular reliance has been placed, is the accumulation of wealth; and under this "the self-made man"—that is, the man who, starting in life ignorant and poor, has made a large fortune, and got control of a great many railroads, and mines, and factories—has risen into the front rank of eminence. The events of the last five years, however, have had a very damaging effect on his reputation, and he now stands as low as his worst enemies could desire. As he declines, the man of some kind of training naturally rises; and it would be running no great risk to affirm just now that the popular mind inclines more than it has usually done to the belief that trained men—that is, men who have been prepared for their work by teaching on approved methods—are after all the most valuable possession a country can have, and that a country is well or ill off in proportion as they are numerous or the reverse. One does not need to travel very far from this position to reach the conclusion that there is probably no way in which we could strike so deadly a blow at the happiness and progress of the United States as by sweeping away, by some process of proscription kept up during a few generations, the graduates of the principal colleges. In no other way could we make so great a drain on the reserved force of character, ambition, and mental culture which constitutes so large a portion of the national vitality. They would not be missed at the polls, it is true, and if they were to run a candidate for the Presidency to-morrow their vote would excite great merriment among the politicians; but if they were got rid of regularly for forty or fifty years in the manner we have suggested, and nothing came in from the outside to supply their places, the politicians would somehow find that they themselves had less public money to vote or steal, less national aspiration to trade upon, less national force to direct, less national dignity to maintain or lose, and that, in fact, by some mysterious process, they were getting to be of no more account in the world than their fellows in Guatemala or Costa Rica.

There will come to the colleges of the United States during the next fifty years a larger and larger number of men who either strongly desire training for themselves or are the sons of men who are deeply sensible of its advantages, and therefore are at the head of families which possess and appreciate the traditions of high civilization, and would like to live in them and contribute their share to perpetuating them—and they will not come from any one portion of the country. There are, unhappily, "universities" in all parts of the Union, but there is hardly a doubt that as the means of communication are improved and cheapened, and as the real nature and value of the university education become better understood, the tendency to use the small local institutions passing by this name as, what they really are, high schools, and resort to the half-dozen colleges which can honestly call themselves universities, will increase. The demands which modern culture, owing to the advance of science and research in every field, now makes on a university, in the shape of professors, books, apparatus, are so great that only the largest and wealthiest institutions can pretend to meet them, and in fact there is something very like false pretences in the promise to do so held out to poor students by many of the smaller colleges. They doubtless do a certain amount of work very creditably; but they are uncandid in saying that they give a university education, and in issuing diplomas purporting to be certificates that any such education has either been sought or received. The idea of maintaining a university for the sake of the local glory of it, is a form of folly which ought not to be associated with education in any stage. It is like buying a bad gun, which you know is likely to burst in your hands, because it is of native manufacture. These considerations are now felt to be so powerful in other countries that they threaten the destruction of a whole batch of universities in Italy which have come down famous and honored from the Middle Ages and have sent out twenty generations of students, and are causing even the very best of the smaller universities in Germany, great and efficient as many of them are, to tremble for their existence.

There is no interest of learning, therefore, which would not be served by the greater concentration of the resources of the country as regards university education, still less is there any interest of society or politics. It is of the last importance that the class of men from all parts of the country whom the universities send out into the world should as far as possible be educated together, and start on their careers with a common stock of traditions, tastes, and associations. Much as steam and the telegraph have done and will do to diminish for administrative purposes the size of the Republic, and to simplify the work of government, they cannot prevent the creation of a certain diversity of interests, and even of temperament and manners, through differences of climate and soil and productions. There will never come a time when we shall not have more or less of such folly

as that the South and West need more money than the East, because they have less capital, or when some part of the country will not struggle for a close market against other parts which seek an open one. Nothing but a reign of knowledge and wisdom, such as centuries will not bring, will prevent States on the Gulf or on the Pacific from fancying that their interests are not identical with those of the Northern Atlantic, and nothing but profound modifications in the human constitution will ever bring the California wheat-raiser into complete sympathy with the New England shoemaker. The work of our political system for ages to come will consist largely in keeping these differences in check; and in doing it, it will need all the help it can get from social and educational influences. It ought to be the aim, therefore, of the larger institutions of learning to offer every inducement in their power to students from all parts of the Union, and were especially from the South, as that part of the country which is most seriously threatened by barbarism, and in which the sense of national unity and the hold of national traditions on the popular mind are now feeblest. We at the North owe to the civilized men at the South who are now, no matter what their past faults or delusions may have been, struggling to save a large portion of the Union from descent into heathen darkness and disorder, the utmost help and consideration. We owe them above all a free and generous welcome to a share in whatever means of culture we have at our disposal, and ought to offer it, as far as is consistent with our self-respect, in a shape that will not wound theirs.

The question of the manner of doing this came up incidentally at Harvard the other day, at the dedication of the great hall erected in memory of the graduates of the university who died in the war. The hall is to be used for general college purposes, for examinations, and some of the ceremonial of commencement, as well as for dinner, and a portion of the walls is covered with tablets bearing the names of those to whose memory it is dedicated. The question whether the building would keep alive the remembrance of the civil war in any way in which it is inexpedient to keep it alive, or in any way which would tend to keep Southern students away from the University, has been often asked, and by some answered in the affirmative. General Devens, who presided at the Alumni dinner, gave a full and sufficient answer to those who find fault with the rendering of honor on the Northern side to those who fell in its cause; but General Bartlett—who perhaps more than any man living is qualified to speak for those who died in the war—uttered in a burst of unpremeditated eloquence, at the close of the proceedings, the real reason why no Southern man need, and we hope will never, feel hurt by Northern memorials of the valor and constancy of Northern soldiers. It is not altogether the cause which ennobles fighting; it is the spirit in which men fight; and no horror of the objects of the Southern insurrection need prevent anybody from admiring or lamenting the gallant men who honestly, loyally, and from a sense of duty perished in its service. It is not given to the wisest and best man to choose the right side; but the simplest and humblest knows whether it is his conscience which bids him lay down his life. And this test may be applied by each side to all the victims of the late conflict without diminishing by one particle its faith in the justice of its own cause. Moreover, as General Bartlett suggested, the view of the nature of the struggle which is sure to gain ground all over the country as the years roll on, is that it was a fierce and passionate but inevitable attempt to settle at any cost a controversy which could be settled in no other way; and that all who shared in it, victors or vanquished, helped to save the country and establish its government on sure and lasting foundations. This feeling cannot grow without bringing forcibly to mind the fact that the country was saved through the war that virtue might increase, that freedom might spread and endure, and that knowledge might rule, and not that blackguard politicians might have a treasury to plunder and marble halls to exchange their vituperation in; thus uniting the best elements of Northern and Southern society by the bonds of honest indignation as well as of noble hopes.

Correspondence.

A CENTENNIAL MONUMENT WORTH HAVING.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: At a regular meeting of the New York Genealogical and Biographical Society, on the 11th of March last, a paper was read by Mr. R. S. Guernsey 'On the Bibliography of the United States relating to Military Collective Biography,' which seems to me to merit a wider publicity than would naturally be attracted to it in the pages of the Society's quarterly *Record*.

The object of Mr. Guernsey's essay was to secure the aid of the Society, and through it the aid of every similar genealogical, biographical, and historical association in the country, to the project of "celebrating the centennial anniversary of national independence by inducing each State to publish a roll of its men, both rank and file, who fought to establish our National Government." At present New Jersey is the only State of the old thirteen that has had the justice to perform this patriotic duty. In 1871, its legislature "ordered the publication, at public expense, in convenient book form, of the official register of New Jersey's soldiers in the Revolutionary War, the war of 1812, and the war with Mexico"; and the first volume, compiled by Adj.-Gen. W. S. Stryker, was issued in the following year, while the record of the soldiers in the two later wars is still to appear. The only other extensive public list of the men of '76 is that contained in a book entitled 'Records of the Revolutionary War,' by W. T. R. Saffell of Baltimore, published in 1858. In addition to much other out-of-the-way matter, this book comprises "the names of the officers and privates of 34 regiments and of 132 captains' companies not in these regiments, as they stood at various times from the beginning of the war up to 1779, representing Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina. About 12,000 privates are named altogether. The book also has a list of about 2,500 officers of the Continental line, with the dates of death of very many of them, not only those killed in battle but those who died from natural causes in after-years." The whole number of commissioned officers of the Continental line was more than 9,000, and of the militia and State troops about 2,000; and the whole number of soldiers and sailors who fought for our independence is shown by the Pension-Office records to have been 289,715, of whom only 57,623 ever lived to get a pension.

Now, is it possible to mention a more thoroughly creditable way in which Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia may celebrate the national centennial than by following the lead of New Jersey in rescuing from oblivion the names of their citizens who fought the good fight for freedom one hundred years ago? Can any minor plan be devised so effective in strengthening an honorable local and national pride than this of erecting in every library in the land an indestructible monument to the memory of the brave days of yore? General allusions to the "heroes and martyrs" of that eventful period are so common as almost to make us forget the solemn significance of those well-won titles; but where are the facilities for learning who those heroes and martyrs individually were? There probably never was another war in which the private soldiers were of so much personal importance and held so close an intellectual and social equality with the officers who commanded them. They were almost every one of them freeholders or the sons of freeholders, and their pronounced individuality was at once the greatest source of weakness and the greatest source of strength in all the military operations of Washington. Nothing less than his supreme genius could have maintained any effective discipline among such troops, and nothing less than their own thoroughgoing patriotism and earnestness could have prevented the actual insubordination and contempt for authority which existed among them from bringing overwhelming confusion and defeat in time of battle.

By all means, then, let us have some personal knowledge of these remarkable men. Bunker Hill will always call to mind Prescott, and Warren, and Putnam, and the rest; but we ought also to know the names of the "embattled farmers" who were fighting and falling with them ninety-nine years ago to-day. The story of Sullivan's Island tells us of Moultrie calmly smoking his pipe inside the little palmetto fort, and of Jasper nailing up his flag in the thickest of the cannonade; but how about their sturdy comrades who were working the guns so effectively through all the weary hours? Ticonderoga immortalizes Ethan Allen, yet who can name the other Green Mountain boys that followed him into the fort? What personal knowledge have we of the half-frozen, barefooted troopers with whom Washington swooped down on Trenton? or of the panic-stricken fellows who heard that exemplary and mild-mannered gentleman storm and swear at the traitorous

Lee on the retreat at Monmouth? or of the shirt-sleeved minute-men who rushed up to the mouths of the Hessian cannons at Bennington on the day when Molly Stark did *not* become a widow?

When justice has thus been done to the memory of the quarter of a million of patriots who fought for American independence, it will be time enough to erect a similar monument to those who have followed the flag in after-days. Their numbers, as shown by the Pension-Office records, are as follows: War of 1812, 527,654; Mexican war, 73,260; Indian wars and frontier disturbances, 1794 to 1839, about 77,000; civil war of 1861, 2,688,523. Of the *officers* who have served in the army and navy of the United States since the inauguration of the first President in 1789, volunteers as well as regulars, a complete record has been made in the works of Generals Gardner, Cullum, and Henry, of Lewis R. Hamersly, Peter Force, Mechlin, and Winder, in the annual official *Army and Navy Register*, from 1815 onwards, and in the special 'Official Army Register of Officers of Volunteers from 1861 to 1865,' published by order of Congress in eight volumes. Numerous histories have also been printed of the parts played by several of the States and by individual regiments in the recent war, though New York is the only State that has officially published the muster-rolls of all the private soldiers enlisted in her fighting regiments from 1861 to 1865. Congress, however, has published, in 25 volumes, the 'National Roll of Honor,' containing a record of more than 330,000 graves of Union soldiers who died during those four fatal years; and at some future day may perhaps be led to fulfil the duty of preserving in proper form the names of the three and a half millions of soldiers and sailors who, since the establishment of the Constitution, have enlisted in the Government's defence. At present, and while those 61,689 "pension cases" for services in the last war remain "unadjudicated," it can have no such duty.

But to the names of the heroes of a hundred years ago it is the special duty as well as privilege of "the old thirteen States alone" to render centennial honor. To quote again the exact words of Mr. Guernsey: "There are a million living tongues to plead for the perpetuation of the memory of their comrades in the late civil war; therefore I do not plead for them. I plead for the brave long ago dead—those whose now distant kindred among us seem almost to have forgotten them—the warriors for our national independence." L. H. B.

West Springfield, Mass., June 17, 1874.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS publish immediately the poems of the late Charles Alanson Munger of Binghamton, N. Y. They have also in press a new edition of Dr. A. Jacobi's 'Infant Diet,' revised and considerably enlarged by Dr. Mary Putnam-Jacobi.——We have received from F. R. Wetmore & Co., Yokohama, a guide-book to the city of Yedo—'The Tokio Guide'; Yedo, by the way, being as correct a name now for the city as New Amsterdam would be for New York. The change took place on the overthrow of the Shôgun by the Mikado in 1868. Tokio signifies Eastern Capital. The guide-book is composed in a very simple, straightforward manner, without "highfalutin," and lacks only a map of the city, if such a thing is procurable. We observe that the compiler thinks he finds the Italian sound of *u* in the word *tune*.——Longfellow's 'Evangeline' has recently been translated into Portuguese by a Brazilian poet, Dr. Franklin Doria.——An Homeric Thesaurus by Mr. Gladstone, and 'Early Russian History,' by Mr. W. R. S. Ralston, are among recent English announcements. Mr. Edward Arber's proposed page-for-page transcript of the Registers of the Company of Stationers of London, between 1554 and 1640 A.D.—registers which, he says, "are to the entire Saxon race in respect to the books of our Golden Age what Domesday Book is to the inhabitants of England as to our Iron Age"—does not appear to have attracted sufficient attention in this country. At least, we read in the *Publishers' Circular* of June 2 that "not one of the twenty or more historical societies of the United States has yet subscribed." Mr. Arber's address is 87 Augustine Road, Camden Square, N.W., London. The edition will not exceed the number of subscribers, nor in any event be more than 460 copies, the price being 20 guineas (large paper, 50 guineas).——Harper & Bros. will be the American publishers of Stanley's 'Coomassie and Magdala' and Sir Samuel Baker's 'Ismailia,' or the Khedive's Egypt.——Part II. of Spruner's 'Historical Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) contains four maps of Europe at the following periods: in the time of Odoacer (476–793): of Charlemagne (768–814); of the restoration of the Western Empire under Otho I. (962); and from the Peace of Westphalia (1648) to the disruption of the Spanish monarchy (1700).——Hurd & Houghton announce for issue during the present month the sixth number of the Journal of Social Science, containing in full nearly half the papers read at the recent meeting in this city of the American Social Science Association, and much other matter.

—The "University address" of Governor Dix at Schenectady last week, as Honorary Chancellor of Union University, is not only in itself an admirable tribute to classical studies by a well-cultivated mind, but, coming from a man who has lived in both the senate and the camp, who in his boyhood was a captain in one of our three great wars and in his old age a general in another, and whose whole life has mingled with the active affairs of men, it must be accepted as peculiarly valuable evidence of the worth of such studies. The address in its delivery was a still more remarkable testimonial of the value of culture and the utility of classical studies in keeping the mind clear and bright and the memory fresh and vigorous. Filling about two columns of the Albany papers, and containing a number of Greek and Latin quotations, some of considerable length, the address was delivered without recourse to the written copy and without a single slip of the memory or the slightest halting or hesitating for the right word. With neither the slovenliness which characterizes many a scholar who comes before an audience to stumble over his ill-written manuscript, nor the oratorical display that mars many a studied discourse, speaking with the unpretentious simplicity that a well-bred gentleman would use in his own parlor, and uttering scholarly sentiments such as an old scholar might properly address to young ones, Governor Dix produced a forensic effect upon the young and old, the learned and unlearned, of his audience which the most of our impassioned orators might very well envy. If the young men who listened to this address will reflect that the well-prepared and thoroughly-committed sentences were spoken by a man who in 1815 was a captain in active service, and who at the time of writing and committing held one of the most laborious and vexatious offices in the country, they will be tolerably certain to supplement it with the conclusion that post-graduate culture and continuous study of the classics have been to Governor Dix among the chief blessings and enjoyments of his life, preserving in old age the mental freshness of youth, and keeping those faculties burnished and bright which in other men of his years are generally overlaid with rust. Such an illustration at the close of one's college course is no small favor, and to many a graduate may prove the directing lesson of a life.

—The death of Dr. George Derby, the late Secretary of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts, has occasioned a loss, not only to the medical profession and citizens of that State, but to the country at large, which those who have not kept pace with the recent advances in the study of hygiene will find difficult to appreciate. It is now five years since this board of health has been organized, and under the energetic guidance of its secretary it has not only put down a vast number of nuisances and instituted important reforms in sanitary legislation, but is looked up to by the public with confidence for protection against existing abuses or the dangers of threatening epidemics. The influence of its pioneer work has indeed spread all over the country, and the increased attention to sanitary matters on the part of many States, the organization of new boards of health, and the rapid increase in the amount of valuable literature on the subject of hygiene, are all largely due to the successful example which has been set by this board. Such success as this can only be enjoyed by any organization under the guidance of a competent leader, and it may be said of Dr. Derby that he proved fully equal to the task allotted to him. He was a worthy leader of a worthy band. Early in the war, he was appointed surgeon to the 23d Regiment of Massachusetts infantry, and served with distinction until the close of the struggle. It was here that he received that training which helped to fit him for the duties he subsequently was called upon to perform. But this alone was not the key to his success. To a well-trained mind there was added an honesty of purpose, an enthusiasm for his work, a firmness of character, and a personal address which inspired others to help him in his good work, and won for him the respect and regard of his professional colleagues. For the last few years he has filled with distinction the chair of hygiene in the medical school of Harvard University. The reputation of such a man is necessarily not so brilliant or widespread as that of one whose services have been of a more conspicuous character; but a slight consideration of what Dr. Derby accomplished directly by his example in Massachusetts, and indirectly by his influence on public hygiene without regard to State limits—an influence not yet spent, nor likely to be spent in this generation—shows how richly he merits the long and grateful remembrance of his countrymen.

—Third on the list of "scientific worthies" whom *Nature* honors from time to time with a steel engraving and a biographical sketch, is Charles Darwin—Charles Robert Darwin, if we choose to remember the name in full. In the issue for June 4 his portrait is given in the same style as that of Faraday and Huxley, and by the same consummate artist, Mr. C. H. Jeens, whose sympathetic interpretation of the photograph produces a result in

almost all respects superior to the photograph itself. The view is in profile. The biography, singularly enough, comes from this side of the water, from the pen of Dr. Asa Gray, whose intimate personal relations with Mr. Darwin, great admiration for his character, and general hearty belief in his doctrine, made his task an easy one. Dr. Gray dexterously portrays his subject by contrast with the late Robert Brown, they being two British naturalists who "have, more than any others, impressed their influence upon science in this nineteenth century." Their careers really offer many points of likeness, but "they worked in different fields and upon different methods; only in a single instance, so far as we know, have they handled the same topic," when Darwin, entering the field of the "facile princeps botanicorum," furnished the explanation, which Brown failed to discover, of the structure and modes of fecundation of Orchids, and announced, as the result of this and similar studies of sexual propagation in plants, the aphorism, "Nature abhors close fertilization." "To have originated this," says Dr. Gray, "and also the principle of Natural Selection—the truthfulness and importance of which are evident the moment it is apprehended—and to have applied these principles to the system of nature in such a manner as to make, within a dozen years, a deeper impression upon natural history than has been made since Linnæus, is ample title for one man's fame." Prefixed to this tribute is a list of Darwin's works, general, zoölogical, botanical, and geological; the number and variety of which are truly astonishing, and the end not yet. The oldest publications are geological, dating from 1837, the year following his return from the voyage on the *Beagle*, during which, as the reader of his delightful 'Journal of Researches' (1845) soon perceives, he had already struck out for himself those ideas which first, in 1859, were given to the world in a matured shape, and have since come to be universally known as "Darwinism." It is curious to observe that the author of Natural Selection married his own cousin.

—In the *Geographical Magazine* for June there is a fair-minded and apparently accurate analysis of the statistics of Roman Catholicism in Great Britain. The writer, Mr. E. G. Ravenstein, is prompted to allay the apprehensions manifested in certain quarters concerning the apparent growth of Romanism in the kingdom. He begins by showing that from constituting above a third of the population of England and Wales in Queen Elizabeth's time, the Catholics, owing to the penal laws, had declined in 1699 to a little more than a half of one per cent. (0.54), and though they rose in 1769 to 0.97 per cent., in 1778 they numbered only 0.89, and remained stationary or diminishing to the beginning of the present century. After Irish emigration had begun to set in, the percentage reached 1.07 in 1844, and was speedily driven up by the famine, the highest being reached in 1863, when there were 5.09 Catholics to every hundred inhabitants. Since that date there has been a steady decrease (to 4.02 per cent. in 1872). In Scotland, the year of maximum strength was 1865 (10.16 per cent., against 8.89 per cent. in 1870). Mr. Ravenstein's calculations purport to show that this falling-off has been due not wholly to emigration but largely to secessions from the church. We have only space for his conclusions. Passing on to the subject of the distribution of Roman Catholics, he finds that 36 per cent. of them live in Lancashire, and the larger numbers in the big towns, though London contains only 131,000—about four per cent. of the population. As for their church accommodations, provision is not so bountiful as it was twenty years ago. In England and Wales, there is one priest to every 580 Roman Catholics, and one monk to every 1,490. Mr. Ravenstein's paper closes with a tabular summary of the foregoing statistics, and is accompanied by a colored map showing the distribution of Roman Catholic chapels, convents, and monasteries.

—Conservative people who are disturbed at the agitation of a certain well-known question may take courage from a discovery recently made by the editor of the London *Academy*. It is to the effect that, although we are within a few months of the last quarter of the nineteenth century, and still see woman to be in a gratifying state of subjection and suppression, she was in active revolt in London so long ago as 1780, and so long ago as in 1789 had flung to the breeze the most advanced standard which floats to-day. The consolatory aspect of the discovery, of course, is that if woman has accomplished so little in the eighty or ninety years just gone, she may for the next eighty or ninety also be reasonably expected to continue to fight as one that beats the air; and may in 1964, as now in 1874, still be proving in the *Woman's Journal* that as the anti-slavery reformers succeeded, although at first they were but a small, contemptible band, so the woman's suffrage reformers are sure to succeed because they also are a small, contemptible band. In 1788, on the occasion of "the opening of Rice's elegant rooms, Brewer Street, Golden Square," the editor finds that there appeared in the *Morning Post* an advertisement of a public debate, to be conducted by ladies only, at which the first subject set down for discussion was the following: "Do not the extraordinary abilities of the ladies in the present age demand academical honors from the Universities, a right to vote at elections, and to be returned members of Parliament?" We suspect the hand of Rice himself in this announcement; but it is to be presumed that he knew what would attract the ladies of that age with their extraordinary abilities. On the 14th of April, 1780, there was established at the Casino, No. 43 Great Marlborough Street, a Ladies' Parliament. The first question here discussed was as follows: "Is that assertion of Mr. Pope's founded in justice which says 'Every woman is at heart a rake'?" It is, perhaps, worth while to note that the movement seems then, as now, to have had the effect of calling into activity some disciples with a talent for airing problems which they had better leave alone. This problem the Great Marlborough-Street Parliament appears to have discussed at some length. It is not till Friday, April 21, that we find this ruling: "The speaker having taken the chair, it was resolved, *nem. con.*, that the assertion of Mr. Pope's, which says that 'Every woman is at heart a rake,' is not founded in justice." On the same date, "a member presented to the House several petitions from men-milliners, men-mantua-makers, and so on, against a bill entitled an act to prevent men from monopolizing women's professions." But the natural proclivity of parliamentary or other business to lapse into trivial lightness and frivolity, when long entrusted to the management of a certain variety of human being, soon shows itself in the history of this Parliament. As early as in March, 1781, we meet with this report: "The opening of the budget, and the debate which ensued on the taxes proposed by the female premier, afforded such high amusement to the numerous and splendid company in the rooms, that a general request was made that on the subsequent Friday the ladies should resume the consideration of the budget in preference to the question given out by the chair." These were some of the taxes proposed by the female premier: A tax on old maids and old bachelors over a certain age; a tax on monkeys, lap-dogs, butterflies, parrots, and puppies, including those of the human species; a tax on made-up complexions. About this time, too, the explorer finds that a large gathering were engagad in pursuing the following useful enquiry: "Which is the happiest period of a man's life: when courting a wife, when married to a wife, or when burying a bad wife?" The result of the investigation seems not to be known.

—In a little volume, printed for private circulation, called 'Some Particulars of the Life of Samuel Rogers,' by his nephew Samuel Sharpe, in speaking of the notes appended by Rogers to his poems, Mr. Sharpe says: "These were written most carefully; every word was weighed and reweighed; he bestowed as much time upon them as upon his verse, and thought them equally deserving of such care. The piece in which he thought himself most successful is the ten lines which describe the old friar's remarks upon the picture of the 'Last Supper' in the dining-room of the convent. . . . This anecdote was told to him by Wilkie the artist, and it has been repeated in verse by Wordsworth and Monckton Milnes, and in prose by Southey. The *North American Review* for July, 1842, compares together these four versions of the same story, and justly gives the palm to that by Mr. Rogers." The familiar story in Rogers's version of it (we copy from the *North American Review*) is as follows: "'You admire that picture,' said an old Dominican to me at Padua, as I stood contemplating a 'Last Supper' in the refectory of his convent, the figures as large as life. 'I have sat at my meals before it for seven-and-forty years, and, such are the changes that have taken place among us, so many have come and gone in the time, that when I look upon the company there, upon those who are sitting at that table, silent as they are, I am sometimes tempted to think that we and not they are the shadows.'" This is certainly a finished piece of prose, excellent in conciseness and measure, but still capable of improvement. "I am sometimes tempted to think" is not the precise phrase for its place, nor are the figures in the painting "shadows." In this last particular Southey's version in "The Doctor" is nearer right. "I sometimes think they are the realities and we but shadows." But this story is not to be found in the notes to the illustrated edition of Rogers's 'Poems' of 1834, nor of the 'Italy' of 1836. Nor is it in any of the earlier editions in which we have looked. Can any of our readers tell us in what edition it first appeared?

—M. Beulé, whose recent death has taken from France an excellent archæologist if but a poor statesman, in his 'Histoire de l'Art Grec avant Périclès,' cites two verses concerning the roses of Pæstum from the 'Jérusalem délivrée' of Tasso—

> "Quindi insieme venia la gente esperta
> Dove sol che abbonda di vermiglie rose."

The verses are plainly misprinted. The same verses are cited by M. Lucien du Bois in his recent entertaining though shallow 'Lettres sur l'Italie et ses Musées.' He gives them as follows:

> "Qui vi insieme venia la gente esperta
> Dal suol che abbonda de vermiglie rose."

Here too are obvious misprints. M. du Bois says: "Le Tasse conduit les

gens de Pæstum au siége de Jérusalem." But we question this fact, and doubt whether these verses are to be found in the 'Gerusalemme Liberata.' Whence then do they come?

—As supplementary to our notice of Rich's 'Dictionary of Roman and Greek Antiquities' in No. 466, perhaps we ought to have mentioned as a defect that the author appears to take no notice of Etruscan discoveries as throwing light upon earlier Roman and Greek life. The occasion for making note now of this deficiency is an article published in No. 19 of *Im Neuen Reich* by Wolfgang Helbig, 'Ueber die Frauentoilette bei Homer.' Greek art at its highest point of development, and modern artists, Flaxman, Genelli, and Preller, represent the Homeric women in the costume, somewhat idealized, of the time of Pericles. Pointing to an Asiatic style of dress as more probable is the circumstance that Homer, when mentioning objects of art and garments as especially noticeable, usually says that they are of Phœnician workmanship or of Phœnician derivation, showing that in his period Phœnician or Eastern workshops furnished these objects or the designs followed in making them. Etrurian art went through the same order of development as Grecian, though Asiatic models influenced Etruria longer than Greece, since traces of Asiatic influence in Etruria are observed all through the fifth century B.C. Helbig, resting on these facts, undertakes, from paintings on walls, from bronze and terra-cotta figures, and ornaments found in the oldest graves of Cære and Tarquinii, which are indisputably of Phœnician workmanship, to reconstruct the dress of Homer's women, justifying his conclusions by passages from the poet. His article is accompanied by a plate representing a woman clothed from head to foot, and with some of her ornaments pictured separately. Her dress, open in front to the waist, is fastened by fibulæ; the sleeves half cover the arm. In the typical female dress, as we do not need to say, the chiton is fastened at the shoulder. Round her neck is a necklace of gold and oval pieces of amber set in gold, the amber having a long diameter of about six centimetres (Helbig, differing from Mr. Gladstone, thinks Homer's *elektron* to be more likely amber than an alloy of gold and silver, and says that the contents of the oldest Etruscan graves confirm him in this opinion). The ear-rings found in these graves agree remarkably with Homer's constant epithet for these ornaments, *triglenos*, "with three eyes," or "with three apples of the eye"—disc or lens-like figures. The head-dress which the figure wears is not the low cap of the best period of Grecian art, but a high covering for the head, resembling the so-called *tutulus*, and suggesting the tiara of the king of Persia. The *plekte anadesme*, whose meaning has hitherto been obscure, Helbig identifies as a band of strips of cloth wound together in a peculiar way and connecting the low cap closely fitting the head with the high crown. Neither the dress nor any of the ornaments here described is represented in Rich. Passing over other details noticed in his article, the general impression which Helbig's picture of the Homeric woman makes we give nearly in his own words. He has imagined a German professor transported to the house of Menelaus in Sparta. Awaiting the appearance of the queen, he expects to admire a genuine model of Greek beauty, the classic form in the classic dress. But instead he sees a woman far more like an odalisque of King Hiram of Tyre or one of the wives of Solomon than the Athenian woman of Pericles's day. One may doubt whether our critic is quite right in his conjectures as to the personal appearance of a woman so noted in poetry as Helen; but his suggestions deserve attention, as probably also will the book which he promises, and in which he will aim to show in detail the connection of Etruscan art with Asiatic. We may add that in No. 11 of *Im Neuen Reich* favorable mention was made of the book by Helbig, published at Leipzig last year, 'Untersuchungen über die campanische Wandmalerei,' whose object was to prove that Roman art owes its impulse to the influences prevalent in the time of Alexander and his successors, and to define those influences.

—There has been a remarkable degree of interest manifested within the past year in the 'Germania' of Tacitus, no less than three elaborate treatises having appeared in Germany and one in France with this classic for their text. The French work is by M. Geffroy, a republication, under the title 'Rome et les Barbares,' of a series of essays in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. It is one of those books which are eminently characteristic of French scholarship, in which the results of recent investigations are presented thoroughly and accurately, as well as vividly; very readable, and very suggestive and instructive. The works of German scholars have been studied to good purpose, and the book is distinguished throughout by the sound and impartial judgment which we commended in the last of these papers a few months ago (*Nation*, No. 435). Probably no other contains so good a view of the present state of scholarship in this field adapted to general readers, but well deserving the attention of scholars as well. As the name implies, the 'Germania' is only the central feature of the book; its plan covers the entire field of the intercourse of Rome and the Germans from Cæsar to Chlodwig. Of the three German treatises, the first is a posthumous publication of lectures by Dr. Holtzmann of Heidelberg; it is edited by Dr. Holder under the title 'Germanische Alterthümer,' and has the work of Tacitus with a tradition prefixed. The most important special feature of this edition is the theory that the Germans were Kelts, while the Britons were not—a theory which, the author says, used to be the accepted one, but has been superseded by the present one, developed especially by Amédée Thierry, which combines the Britons with the Gauls under the name of Kelts. Another prominent feature is his holding that the *principes* of the 'Germania' were nobles, in opposition to the generally-accepted view of Waitz that they were elective magistrates. The second work is 'Germania Antiqua,' by Müllenhoff, the chief living authority on the subject of German antiquities. In this work, however, he has not presented the results of his special studies (which are given in his great work, 'Deutsche Alterthumskunde'), but has undertaken simply to collect a mass of materials, as Jacob Grimm and Latham did in their editions of the 'Germania'—a complete collection of whatever the ancients have left upon the subject of the Germans. The largest and most important of the three works is 'Urdeutsche Staatsalterthümer,' by Prof. Baumstark of Freiburg. The high reputation of the author and the size of the book (its price is 7 thalers 10 groschen) will make this no doubt the standard edition of the 'Germania' for thoroughness and exhaustiveness.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IN 'Tempest-Tossed' Mr. Theodore Tilton makes his appearance as a writer of fiction, following Jules Verne more than any other master in the construction of his story. The plot is an ingeniously crazy one. Dr. Vail and his young wife are on board of the *Coromandel*, a stoutly-built ship, bound for Cape Town, and when within a few hundred miles of their journey's end the ship is set on fire by lightning; in great alarm, the captain with the passengers and crew abandons the vessel, leaving Dr. Vail by the side of his wife, who is lying in a fainting-fit, which her husband mistakes for death. As soon as the captain is out of sight, the rain falls, puts out the fire, which was only burning the rigging and outside of the hull, and Dr. Vail finds himself floating on the South Atlantic Ocean in a sound but unnavigable hulk. In the midst of all the confusion his wife gives birth to a daughter. Fortunately for this deserted family, the ship has on board a full cargo of canned meats and vegetables of various sorts, enough to supply the doctor and family with food for twenty-six years. In this floating pantry they are kept drifting about the seas in a region of calms which is shunned by sailing-vessels, and as fast as they reach one edge of it they are driven back into it by adverse winds. This goes on for several years. The daughter grows up, and by hearing a great deal of her family's friends manages to fall in love with a young man of suitable age, who by a singular coincidence refuses to believe that the *Coromandel* is lost, and has himself fallen in love with the "tempest-tossed" Barbara. When about one-third through the book, the reader begins to feel sure that the Vail family will reach land when the proper time arrives for Barbara to "come out." All of the rest of the story happens as it should, though with more incident in the way of earthquakes and sea-fights than need be told here. Jules Verne, in his wildest flights into space, is a sober writer of possibilities, and even high probabilities, in comparison with Mr. Tilton. As for the style, it is the impossible mock poetical. Here is the soliloquy of the young lover when he finds the hull of the *Coromandel*:

"And this is the *Coromandel!*—this the day-dream of my life!—this the Holy Grael of my father's search and mine!—nothing but this old piece of mildew and mould! . . . What fate, then, has befallen Rodney Vail? Where is the original of the face that I carry with me in the picture? And, oh! where is the unknown maid who was born in that black hulk? *That* was her cradle then? *That* was the dingy mansion in which she dwelt! *That* was the prison-house and black barrier that kept her from the world—and from me! Oh! to think that a few thin and rotten planks—a mere

* 'Tempest-Tossed. A Romance. By Theodore Tilton.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1874.

'Some Women's Hearts. By Louise Chandler Moulton, author of 'Bed-Time Stories.'' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.

'Ca Ira. A Novel. By Wm. D. Trammell.' New York: United States Publishing Co. 1874.

'A Daughter of Bohemia. By Christian Reid, author of 'Valerie Aylmer,' 'Nina's Atonement,' etc.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

'Lady Anna. A Novel. By Anthony Trollope, author of 'Orley Farm,' 'Phineas Finn,' etc., etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

'Waldfried. A Novel. By Berthold Auerbach. Translated by Simon Adler Stern.' Author's Edition. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'Lois Carrol; or, Her Two Selves. By Susa S. Vance.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Ivan Turgénieff's Spring Floods. Translated from the Russian by Mrs. Sophie Michell Butts. A Lear of the Steppe. Translated from the French by Wm. Hand Browne.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'The Heir of Malreward; or, Restored. By the author of 'Son and Heir,' etc.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Elena. An Italian Tale. By L. N. Comyn, author of 'Atherstone Priory.'' Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1874.

dank wall of decayed timber—should have been permitted by heaven to incarcerate the fairest of maidens from the sight of all earthly eyes for a lifetime! Burn! rot! sink! O dismal dungeon that has so long kept me from my love—from my soul's self! Why does my heart beat so?" etc., etc., etc.—

all as fine as a beggar on a holiday. There is an insipid artificial flavor about the whole book which is not due to the canned fruits and vegetables alone. But it may please the natural public of this writer.

'Some Women's Hearts' is the rather appropriate title of Mrs. L. C. Moulton's little volume of short stories, many of which discuss some problem of morbidness in a way which is tolerably certain to find a certain number of readers. In the first story we have the young woman of Lenox, Mass., who falls in love with the gifted, rich, fascinating, but cold Mr. Le Roy. They marry, and she is very unhappy; she runs away to Paris and supports herself by teaching English. Another man appears; he thinks she is a widow, and makes love to her; she tells him she is a married woman, and persists in refusing him. In time, however, her husband dies, and she marries her former friend. The woman herself is not ill described, with occasional clever touches, but the story is in no way deserving of commendation. In 'Twelve Years of My Life' it is a married man who dislikes his wife, and so makes love to the unprotected young woman, and she finds employment with the deserted wife, and, aided by the death of one of the children, she reconciles the parents. They wanted her to stay.

"Should I accept all this? Was it not too pleasant to be safe? Was not its very sweetness dangerous? Could I answer for my own heart? Was I sure that I could live for years under the same roof with Andrew Lincoln and never think of hours whose perilous happiness duty bade me forget for ever? *He* might be safe. Katherine was beautiful, and she loved him; but where was the fine-linked armor with which to shield my woman's heart?"

This is nice. Mrs. Moulton should know that it is not enough to say that such things happen in real life, that often people fall in and out of love when and where they should not. It makes the narration of such incidents no less offensive, and it becomes unnatural when what is usually and properly kept hidden is forcibly thrust upon our attention without a shred of modest reserve, as something claiming our best sympathy instead of our pity when it is endured, and our profoundest contempt when it is made much of. The writing of such books may best be left to divorced women of dubious reputation. The other stories are less dangerous, but in all there is the same inability to see things in their proper relations.

Even the socialist has so far bowed down to custom that he has joined the abolitionist and the woman's-rights advocate and the temperance-preacher, and in fact most people with hobbies, and written a novel in support of his views. The inflationist will be the next to come, we suppose. It is not easy to follow the tangled thread of 'Ca Ira.' Besides its title, there is a good deal of dark mystery in this silly book. College secret societies, the Ku-klux Klan, the Commune at Paris, appear in turn, with the same grimness about each, and a liberal measure of vulgarity. There is occasionally a degree of vividness in the story which makes us regret still more that the enthusiasm of the young radical led him to publishing it; if he pretends to be anxious for the emancipation of labor, he can help the critic to this by laying aside his pen.

'A Daughter of Bohemia' is the title of the latest novel of Christian Reid, a writer some of whose previous books we have already had occasion to notice. One or two of these showed, as we mentioned at the time, greater merit in certain particulars than was borne out by the novel as a whole; in 'A Daughter of Bohemia,' however, there is a great improvement. The story is well told—indeed, this is a point in which the novel shows very decided merit; the characters are something like real people, instead of being lacquered imitations with lustrous eyes and sonorous names and one emotion; the plot is not a bad one; and the reader's interest is kept up from the beginning to the end of the book. The two young half-sisters, Leslie Graham and Norah Desmond, are well drawn, the one ladylike, gentle, trusting, and dignified, the other, in spite of some exaggeration, clever and at heart kindly. These two young women are the best part of the book. Very nearly as good is the gossiping widow, Mrs. Sandford. While the two sisters are intelligently discriminated, there is to be noticed too little variety about the cleverness of the other people; whenever a sharp thing is to be said, it is said by one in just the same way as the others would say it; but in other respects the different characters are not confounded. Her novel will be gratefully received by the summer-idlers, who will do well to read it.

Mr. Trollope's 'Lady Anna' is not one of his most successful novels. Like many of those in which this writer attempts to give us something more than an uneventful tale with a moderate amount of passion and a photographic picture of life, this one fails because the author is incapable of representing serious emotion. The ordinary love-making of juxtaposition he does with the amount of skill all his readers are familiar with, but the narrowness of his range is to be seen as soon as he tries to fly higher. In 'Lady Anna' we have a young woman of high birth, who has been kept out of her own by the misdeeds of her father, coming finally into possession of an enormous property. She has already engaged herself in the time of her obscurity to a young tailor, and the book is made up of the attempts of a doll-like earl, a cousin of hers, to marry her and so get money enough to maintain his title. All of Lady Anna's friends and relatives urge his claims; but she keeps to her word, marries the tailor, and makes over a large share of her money to her cousin—for Mr. Trollope always has a large unclaimed fortune in his novels for the consolation of young heroes crossed in love. We are threatened with a description of the married life of the tailor and his bride; we hope to escape it, for two more uninteresting people than they both are it would be hard to find in all Mr. Trollope's novels.

It is a misleading use of language to call Auerbach's 'Waldfried' a novel; it is, rather, a fictitious history of the politics of Southern Germany from a date a few years earlier than the German-French war till the year 1871. This history is illustrated by different events in the life and experience of a very large family, all of which are recorded in the diary of the father, father-in-law, grandfather, and (before the book closes) great-grandfather, Heinrich Waldfried. Evidently, the intention of the author was to write a story which should stand as a representation of German life during some of the most interesting periods of later history. To include the whole of Germany would of course have been impossible, and he wisely made choice of that part with which he is most familiar, and where certain German characteristics are more prominent than in the Northern countries. Another German novelist, Mr. Spielhagen, has already called attention to the possibility of Auerbach's story disseminating among foreign readers false notions of the ways and manners of his people, and it is with a certain contempt that he speaks of the patriarchal simplicity of the Waldfried family. It is very different from the reserve and stiffness of North Germany; but if the reader will take for granted no more than the author states, he will understand that he is reading an account of but one section of Germany, and ask for nothing more. It is with considerable ingenuity that Auerbach has managed to bring in various representatives of German interests out of his single family. One son had fled to this country after the troubles of 1848, another is a professor, and gives us the views of the learned class, and the youngest, who deserted his colors on account of the fratricidal nature of the war of '66, dies fighting bravely in 1870; one son-in-law is an officer in the army, one daughter is living in Alsace, and they are all brought in in a way that keeps them continually before us. The writer of the diary himself plays a very important part in what is going on; he is a member, first of the Frankfort Parliament, then of that of Würtemberg, in which country the scene of the story is laid, and finally is one of the South German representatives in Berlin when the country is finally united. Fully to enjoy this novel, we should think it necessary either that the reader be a German, or that he have a more or less definite comprehension of recent German politics. He should read intelligently what is said of the commotions of '48; he should understand the divisions of Germany in '66, and the uncertainty that existed about the conduct of the Southern States at the beginning of the last war, or he will find the novel exceedingly tedious. Starting, however, with the proper amount of information, he will find a great deal in which he can take pleasure. It will be a very different feeling from that one gets from reading any favorite novel, say one of Thackeray's, or George Eliot's, or Victor Hugo's, or Turgenef's; it is, rather, a slippered, easy sort of comfortable enjoyment of an old man's prattle about half-familiar events, in which we forgive monotonous details about saw-mills and land improvements and family life in consideration of the recounter's sincerity and occasional pathos. Everywhere, indeed, in the book is to be noticed the pathetic patience of an old man who has seen a great deal without being soured, who has learned considerateness.

A certain respect is paid to the taste of most novel-readers by the introduction of Martella, a mysterious half-gipsy girl taken into the family from the wildwood where she had been living when the youngest son announces his engagement to her. She is of the *Mignon* type; at first there is a certain amount of interest to be felt in her bright, uncultivated remarks, but when as time goes on she is still eccentric without reasonable ground, she becomes artificial and tiresome. The other characters are for the most part clearly defined and distinct; there is no especial vividness about them, but when one has once learned to know them by name—no easy task—they can be recognized as ordinary types. It will be readily understood, however, that it is not for any marked merit of what is called character-drawing or for any dramatic skill in telling the story that the novel may be liked—the absence of these qualities will absolutely condemn it in the estima-

tion of a great many—but that there is a way of chanting the success of Germany which will be grateful to those who are pleased with that song; those who are not will have plenty of fault to find. They can call the story tedious, they can laugh at the saintliness of Waldfried, as if any one except Rousseau, Lord Byron, and Pepys put down his faults in his diary, or they can sneer at the innocent good-nature of the Germans; but those who care for the book will be very well satisfied with its simplicity, the tenderness of the sad parts, and the evident and manly pride in the patriotic part. It is unlike any book we ever read, but it is better by far than a great many which will be more popular.

'Lois Carrol; or, Her Two Selves,' is a remarkable work. A fair opinion of it may be formed from the following soliloquy of the heroine:

"Sometimes on those pleasant days spent in the library, where she was the happy monarch of all she surveyed—namely, the book-cases and easy rocking-chair—she would say: Now, Lois, select your book, and we'll have what Mrs. Hoffman calls an *intellectual feast*. Here is an abundance of viands to tempt your appetite; so help yourself, my dear. Here are Dickens's works; what part does he play in the feast? I think I will have him for my Worcestershire sauce; Thackeray shall be my pepper, George Eliot shall be my salt, and the historians are my bread, only I am naughty enough to think bread commonplace, and not to take it when I can get cake. Here is Sir Walter Scott, who is my pound-cake, and Bulwer my sponge-cake, not quite so heavy as pound-cake. Shakspere is my fruit-cake, made up of a great variety of rich ingredients. It can be kept for any length of time, brought out on any occasion, and so long as a piece remains it is good. Alexandre Dumas I think should be the wine of the feast, because he gets into the head and intoxicates—the reason, I suppose, that Mrs. Hoffman objects to my reading his works. Victor Hugo is a stronger wine and of much finer quality, but if taken in large quantities is apt to give one delirium tremens. Now for the sweet things: here is Moore, who is my honey, culled from the sweetest flowers that grow in 'Araby the blest'; Owen Meredith, my strawberries and cream; Tennyson, my bunch of rare grapes, delicate, luscious, and pure—my favorite fruit. Byron would have been a rich, ripe peach, only it was dipped in brandy, and so became a brandy-peach, spoiling it for my liking, though many persons seem to prefer peaches that have been through the process."

To adopt the same sprightly method of criticism, it might be said that 'Lois Carrol; or, Her Two Selves' is the "soda-cracker" of the novels we have before us to-day.

In 'Spring Floods' those who know Turgenef only in an English dress have the translation of what, for it is the last, is perhaps the best of his novels. Like many that he has written, it is a painful story; the tragedy it describes is of the most melancholy sort. Sanin, the hero, a young Russian twenty-one or two years old, happens to be detained in Frankfort on his way back to Russia from Italy, and just as he is about to leave that city he goes by chance into a *café*, where he finds a family in great anxiety over a young boy who is lying in a prolonged fainting-fit. He manages to bring the boy to his senses, and the others, who are Italians, in their gratitude will not let him go. He spends the evening, and, having missed the diligence, he very willingly consents to spend a few days in the city. The daughter of the house, Gemma by name, is engaged to another man; but Sanin, fearing no danger, goes about with her a great deal, and soon manages to fall in love with her, and she with him. A quarrel with some officers, ending in a duel, in which Sanin makes a much better appearance than her betrothed, gives her an excuse to throw the last-named over and to accept Sanin. He, in order to get money enough to settle in Frankfort, goes reluctantly to Wiesbaden to sell his estates in Russia to an old school-friend of his who is there with his wife. It is with wonderful beauty that this first part of the story is told; nothing could exceed the delicacy with which Turgenef describes the young man's ardor and the modest pride and reserve of Gemma. He leaves her, without dreaming of the possibility of any mischance, for merely a three days' absence; but in that time his friend's wife, a beautiful and voluptuous coquette, and worse, manages to make him interested in her and to win him as her lover. He despises her, but he cannot escape her snare. He is unable to return to Gemma. She, however, does not die of a broken heart; she marries some one else a few years later, while Sanin drags out a miserable, remorseful, broken existence.

No analysis of this sort can give a fitting idea of the merits of the story. What we have said of it may read as if 'Spring Floods' were some ordinary French novel; but in point of fact this story is elevated above such works by the great and touching beauty of the innocent part and the solemn impressiveness of the rest. No adjectives can do justice to its vividness. It is a chapter out of life; and the lesson it teaches is the lesson of life. In that way the novel is both natural and moral.

In the same volume with 'Spring Floods' is contained a shorter story by Turgenef, 'A Lear of the Steppe.' This is one of his numerous sketches of Russian character, of which he has always been a careful student. Its name vaguely tells the story, which is powerful, but, on the whole, not one of his most successful writings. It will serve to show another side of the talent of this remarkable writer, but it also is an example of a frequent tendency of his—that, namely, of being too painful. It presents in the gigantic figure of the father a striking image and illustration of that almost demoniac wilfulness which generations of unquestioned authority engendered in the Russian nobles; and in the two daughters we see the worthy Regan and Goneril of this Lear. Cordelia he has none. An indescribably baleful fascination they exert, the one in one way, the other in another.

'The Heir of Malreward' is a novel in some ways of considerable merit; but the subject is a very odious one—the effort, namely, of a disreputable father to bring his son and heir down to his own abject level; and since there is very little slurring of offensive details, we have a book which few will care to read. To be sure, the son manages to withstand the coarse temptations and brutal treatment which he continually meets, and there is some relief to the general hatefulness of the characters in the person of his uncle, who is admirably drawn; but, on the whole, the book is filled with a black unwholesome cloud of sin. What makes it worse is the air of truthfulness about it all; the story is very naturally told, many of the people seem very lifelike. There is enough cleverness in it to make us wish it had been devoted to some more agreeable task; novels are read in some measure to secure forgetfulness of just such incidents as make this story, and the reader is disappointed at finding what he is most anxious to avoid when he is seeking amusement and relaxation.

'Elena,' on the other hand, does not offend in this way; it is precisely the regulation novel, with its hero thrown from his horse in front of the dwelling of the young and lovely heroine; their love-making; his sudden and unaccountable departure without giving a sign and with the explanatory letter he wrote detained; her opposition to marrying a man who is strongly recommended to her, but whom she has never seen, and who of course turns out to be the former lover, now a marquis, whom she marries. A beautiful but coquettish step-sister steps in and sows dissension; finally, however, there is peace. The scene of the story is laid in Italy, and while there is nothing noticeably new in the first part, there is to be found in the end an account of the sufferings of the Italians who were struggling for liberty which is more impressive and interesting. From being a rather ordinary novel of society, it rises to something almost tragic.

THE MAGAZINES FOR JULY.

THE Shakspere mask, about which so much has been said since Mr. Page began work upon it, is made the subject of an article in the July *Scribner's*. It is by Mr. J. S. Hart, who evidently has laid hold of nearly all the extant information on the subject, and who presents it with clearness, but some of whose fingers appear to be thumbs. For example, we have heard a great deal of Mr. Page's interesting talk on this subject, and we listened to his lecture, but we have never supposed him, as Mr. Hart here supposes him, to assert that the scar which he finds on Shakspere's forehead just above the right eye was originally so deep as "to extend even to the brain and show actual loss of a part of the brain." The only foundation that we can think of for such a statement is that Mr. Page has always maintained that the scar which he discovers was made by a wound that was of sufficient importance to affect somewhat the osseous growth of that region of the forehead on which it was inflicted. That the brain itself was affected Mr. Page has never, as we understand it, asserted or believed. This is worth mention, because, rather unfortunately, throughout all the discussion of the mask too much has seemed to be made of this scar. Mr. Page's own emphasizing of its importance, by insisting that Shakspere specifically refers to it in one of the sonnets as the mark which "vulgar scandal stamped upon his brow," did much to bring it into undue prominence, and many persons who might have been convinced of the mask's authenticity by the delicate but numerous and intercorroborative details of proof which the artist's peculiar perceptive powers have brought together, would do nothing but laugh at the evidence from the poems. We mention Mr. Hart's statement in reference to the scar for a second reason, and that is that within a very short time some additional evidence bearing upon it has been brought to light. We run the risk of making some errors in attempting to give an idea of this evidence, but it is worth while to venture: Mr. Halliwell, the English Shaksperian scholar, recently picked up an engraving of the Droeshout print, which he at once saw to have been made from the plate before it had been recut. Of this engraving photographs have been taken, and one of them which has been brought to this country we have seen. Any one may learn by brief comparison of the ordinary copies of the Droeshout with this photograph that in the ordinary copies the eyebrows have been worked over by the engraver and made more regular—"idealized" we may say, as some artists conceive of idealization. In the photograph they have

a more individual character; in fact, there is a distinct individuality belonging to each, for the left one has in it a sort of eddy which the right one has not. This same individuality Mr. Page discovers in the mask. And as for the scar on the forehead, it is plain to be seen in the Halliwell Droeshout, except that the forehead of the picture, being out of the focus of the camera, shows more dimly than the lower part of the face, and the mark—scar or whatever it is—is fainter than it otherwise would be. Obviously this evidence, if needing to be sifted like other evidence, is yet not of a character to be slighted. As we have said, Mr. Hart has gathered together a great deal of information on this very interesting topic, some of which is new, having been got from Professor Owen and from Dr. Becker (the surviving brother of the gentleman who discovered the mask) by Mr. Hart himself. Some of it is not new, but it is all well arranged and handy, and will be the cause of attracting more general attention to the mask than it has hitherto had in this country. Many of the public are better informed, but many of them, too, are so ill-informed in this matter as to know only that the British Museum would not purchase the mask of Mr. Ludwig Becker; that Mr. Page with native enthusiasm has spent many thousand dollars' worth of his valuable time in reproducing it from photographs; and finally, that the resultant portraits of Shakspere which he has painted from it have not pleased the critics. As regards this last matter, we may say that it is not for us to speak of the art critics of New York or of Boston or indeed of our country generally, at full length and as their merits deserve, nor do we trench without fear on their province; no one therefore need feel bound to accept our private opinion, which is that the face as given in Mr. Page's mask, and in nearly the same degree in the paintings, is a wonderfully fine one, and an adequate one, and singularly true to the real character of such portraits of the poet as we have. This same part of the public will learn with some surprise from Mr. Hart that Professor Owen informed him that could the one fact be established that there ever, in the early part of the reign of James the First, was a Kesselstadt in England, "there is hardly any amount of money which the Museum would not have paid for the treasure." And the late Baron Pollock, weighing all the testimony adduced, said: "If I were called upon to charge a jury in regard to this point, I would instruct them to bring in a verdict for the claimant."

Other articles in *Scribner's* are Mr. Edward King's "Notes on Missouri"—a marvel of a State in its riches and its rapid growth; more of Jules Verne's tiresome writing, with its mechanical inventiveness and its want of imagination; and, finally, some rather unorthodox theology by a Congregational clergyman.

A writer in the *Catholic World*, desiring a brief colloquy with Dr. Büchner, procures it in a pleasant manner. Dr. Büchner, by the way, some of our readers may not know; but others will have heard of him as a singularly wise being who, not long ago, was lecturing in this city to little knots of speculative people. We believe the usual order was for him to prove in all form that neither he nor any of his audience had any immortal souls, and that they would all die like brute beasts. Then, when he had finished, the audience would shake hands with each other and congratulate themselves that they were going to die like beasts. The *Catholic World* writer has read one or more of this apostle's books, and, as we say, has formed a wish for a colloquy with him. "We have thought," he says, "of putting the whole discussion in the form of a dialogue between the Doctor and ourselves." The welcome in store for him when the curtains are drawn and the candles lighted, and the eagerness of Büchner to enter the library, may be judged by the remark made next after the one we have quoted: "We know that a lengthy conversation with such a sworn enemy of the truth may prove disgusting in a high degree, as he will utter nothing but sophisms and blasphemies"—which, indeed, is what the party of the second part usually utters in polemical controversies arranged as this one is. "Only a mason of the blackest dye," our author tells us in another place, "could have displayed such cool effrontery, artful dishonesty, and diabolic malice as Büchner"; and when he gets Büchner himself in presence, it is thus that he opens the conversation: "Indeed, Doctor, I fear that your 'Force and Matter' has made you a bad reputation. Our most esteemed philosophers say that you are a sophist, and that a man of your attainments cannot be a sophist but by deliberate choice. They evidently imply that you are a knave and an impostor." Büchner, now thoroughly at his ease, enters into the discussion with spirit, but the weakness of his argumentation is soon apparent, and his opponent bids him good-bye for the present with the remark: "I trust I have sufficiently exposed your intellectual jugglery to let you see that you are at best a charlatan, not a philosopher."

"The Relatio Itineris in Marylandiam" is a synopsis of the narrative of a journey into Maryland in 1663. It has some interest, but not much. The oft-repeated tale of the greater religious tolerance exhibited by the Catholic founders of Maryland than by the Puritan settlers of the North is once more told, but it is not suggested that Catholic gentlemen founding a royal colony of the Protestant realm of England would have soon been in a nice mess had they excluded their fellow-subjects of the Reformed faith. The truth is, religious toleration in those days was always begotten of force, or the apprehension of force, which comes to the same thing, and modern boasting about it is not very useful nor very truthful. Some of our readers will be glad of a long review entitled "Anglican Orders," in which that uneasy subject or its ghost is treated of from the point of view of Estcourt's late book. We can still praise Mr. De Vere's "Antar and Zara," and there is also a translation by Dr. Parsons of the Fourteenth Canto of the "Purgatorio."

Like several of the other July magazines, *Harper's* is readable and seasonable. Some, however, might doubt the seasonableness of this story, which we take from the "Drawer":

"A few years ago, when General N—— was making an active political canvass in the Territory of ——, then on the eve of its admission into the Union as a State (he was then Territorial Governor), he was confronted by an opposition which had small respect for the amenities of debate or the conventionalities observed in more cultivated communities. At Sandy Gulch, where a meeting was to be held, there appeared in the crowd opposed to him a rough, pestilent, desperate fellow, named M'Guire, puffy with pistols and things, who was bent upon trouble, and meant, if possible, to break up the proceedings. In General N——'s following was a 'gentleman' named Taylor, equally ready for similar work, and thoroughly devoted to his chief. At the opening of the meeting it became evident that M'Guire had inserted into his noble form just enough whiskey to be reckless. As things went on he became more and more offensive, until the General's friend came up and whispered in his ear:

"'General, hadn't I better kill him?'

"'Oh! no,' replied the General, 'that wouldn't do. I couldn't sanction any violence, much less a murder; *but*, if any little thing *should* happen' (here he lowered his voice, and spoke jocosely, as he meant it)—'if any little thing *should* happen, I've got my pocket full of blank pardons.'

"A few minutes later M'Guire broke out into a fresh tirade, whereupon Taylor drew his revolver and shot him through the brain. He fell like a log. Walking up to the body, and standing astride of it, revolver still in hand, he looked coolly upon the excited crowd, and said:

"'Gentle*men*, I trust that *now* we shall have *order* in this meeting!'"

We suppose this one also may be credited. It seems to have the right ring:

"The familiarity of the frontiersman with scenes of shooting and executions by Lynch-law, and his coolness in the average Western affray, are proverbial. The last instance that has come to our knowledge in which enterprise and self-possession were admirably mingled occurred at the recent execution of a criminal in Washington Territory. Just as he was about to be swung off, and after he had remarked to the sheriff that he had nothing further to say, a real-estate agent, whose office was in his hat, forced himself to the front and up the steps of the scaffold, and, jointly addressing the criminal and the sheriff, said: '*If the gentleman who occupies the platform* will kindly yield for a *few minutes*, I would like to make a few remarks upon the cheap homestead lots at Dobson's Hole I am now offering for sale.' The request was assented to, and, after a brief summary of the advantages presented by that locality, the sheriff resumed his duties, pulled the cap over the 'gentleman's' countenance, and permitted him to drop."

An excellent article on Marblehead, Massachusetts, is one of the attractions of *Harper's*. It contains for the curious a picture of that famous animal, the gerrymander, who certainly wears a formidable appearance, and even our contemporary politicians might be shy of him. His reputed creator, Elbridge Gerry (of whose intelligent and pleasing face there is a portrait), was one of the great men of Marblehead, which has never wanted stout hearts. Mr. Whittier's Flood Oirson is another worthy described to us, and a much-belied old man he would seem to have been. His true name was Benjamin, and not Floyd, as the poet appears to have supposed; "Flood" being one of those endearing diminutives with which the inhabitants of small towns, even in their tenderest years, know so well how to grace each other. Moreover, it was not his perishing townsmen that Flood deserted; the distressed vessel was not manned by Marblehead people; and they did not mostly drown; they were mostly saved by a Provincetown whale-boat; and it was not in Chaleur Bay that the wreck occurred, but off Cape Cod; and the responsibility of its occurrence lay upon the crew of Skipper Ireson's schooner, who were ordered by him as he went below to lie by till morning. The men disobeyed, however, and afterwards charged their captain with giving orders which he had never given. This brought him the tarring and feathering, but it was not the women who did it; it was men; and the vehicle was not a cart but a dory. Still we have a fine poem, although the simpler of the Marbleheaders, unconscious of the nature of poetic license, sometimes comment on Mr. Whittier's version with severity and with profanity.

We must mention also a contribution by Mr. W. C. Wyckoff, giving the facts about the work done by our National Fish Commission, which appears to be most beneficently occupied. It strikes one strangely to be told that the main thing wanted in order to the cultivation of our coast fisheries, is to

prevent an indiscriminate use of the net during the spawning season, and to find a remedy for the greed of the bluefish. It appears that this fish is a perfect demon of voracity. He has been well likened, says one of the Commissioner's reports, to an animated chopping machine, the business of which is to destroy as many fish, big and little, as can possibly be destroyed in a given time.

Mr. James Parton, of all writers in the world, is out in *Harper's* with an article on the falsehood of the press, and coolly asserts that he looked about him everywhere in Washington for some sign of the existence of the lobby, but was by-and-by informed by Major Ben Perley Poore that there was not any lobby, that it was all "a gigantic myth." This is one of those attempts to say something startling which Mr. Parton constantly uses for the purpose of catching attention, and which only a shallow writer would employ. A topic covering something of Mr. Parton's ground is handled by Mr. F. B. Sanborn in the *Atlantic*, but it tells us little or nothing that has not been said in the numerous dissertations about himself which the journalist has now for some years been regularly turning out. A very fine fellow he is, according to his own account of himself. He is by-and-by to be more noble and of a deeper purpose than ever. His wielding of vast power in the country is going to be "nobler" also, and what the ideal journalist is not to be and to do we should be afraid to say. Perhaps he may spend less of his time in composing orations on his own nature and position and its capacities. The best thing in this latest essay is quoted from Dickens. Colonel Diver hands Martin Chuzzlewit the *Rowdy Journal*: "You'll find Jefferson Brick at his usual post in the van of human civilization and moral purity." One of the things not so good in it is the statement that the *Herald* was far in advance of the *Tribune* in the business of reporting the John Brown case. This is not much of an error, but as there is a bit of the Concord variety of philosophizing tacked to it, the reader finds a certain comfort in seeing the statement which was its basis made to collapse:

"There came a time, after Thoreau had said these things, when he was driven to the morning paper with as much eagerness as anybody; when, as he says, 'I read all the newspapers I could get within a week.' It was when John Brown lay wounded at Harper's Ferry, and his enemies, thronging about him, drew from him those answers that rang through the country for years, and still thrill the heart as we recall them. It was the everlasting reporter of the New York *Herald* who then and there noted down the undying words that might else have been lost or distorted in the recital of the base men to whom they were made. Then it was made manifest for what purpose the *Herald* had been allowed to exist all these years—no other paper could have had a reporter there, and without him the conversation must have perished. All this was 'foreordained and freely predetermined'; and John Brown, lying there on the armory floor, was the final cause of the *Herald* and its otherwise unaccountable editor. In those days the Times and the Eternities got printed on the same sheet, as they always do when a hero appears."

But the editor of the *Sun*, who then was connected with the *Tribune*, states that the *Tribune* had reporters on the spot as early as the *Herald*, and that their reports were fuller, more accurate, and more picturesque throughout than those of its rival. During the trial it had as many as five reporters present, and at the execution three. This is much better than having "the Times and the Eternities printed on the same sheet," and similar pieces of orphic wisdom. It appears that "John Brown was the final cause" of the Cincinnati *Gazette*, also.

The *Atlantic* has the beginning of Mr. Howells's new serial, which has all the old subtlety and elaborate finish; a poem by Mr. Bret Harte, which looks very like borrowing from Browning without leave, but yet would seem to be too boldly done for that to have been the case; and various other papers, of which the solid ones are Mr. William Wood's "Scotch Banking," and Mr. W. J. Stillman's judicious article on art instruction at South Kensington and Antwerp. Many of the others have a sort of *Overland Monthly* lightness and slightness.

The July *Lippincott's* is a very good number. Mr. Adolphus Trollope gives his recollections of his Oxford tutor forty-odd years ago, who was no less a personage than Archbishop Whately. As usual, the suave kindness of this prelate's manner is conspicuous in Mr. Trollope's narrative: A certain dunderhead among his pupils was up one day for examination. Some minutes were employed by Whately in a partial research into the vastness of the young gentleman's ignorance, when he suddenly turned round to another instructor with despair printed on his face, and said: "*It* has learned nothing; *it* knows nothing; *it* never will know anything." The pupil, being rather a dashing young fellow, with no small opinion of himself, for some days could say nothing except "he called me *it*, sir; he called me *it*." On another occasion he was still more the image of a minister of the Gospel: Some undergraduates dining with him, Mrs. Whately, willing to be polite, turned to one of them and asked him what was the opinion of the men in the hall on the political question which happened then to be agitating every one—the Reform Bill of '32. The question was overheard by His Grace, who roared out from the other end of the table: "Why don't you ask the opinion of the bedmakers?" The youth to whom this was addressed had readiness enough to reply that he had already ascertained that, and that they were all Liberals to a man, though, as the Doctor had remarked, very ignorant persons. Whately was himself a Liberal. "The New Hyperion" amuses us this time by an actual meeting between Paul Fleming and the romantic Mary Ashburton of the old days. She is of course fat now; but while there is a little overdoing of the fun in some such respects, her silliness and the vain delusion of Paul are cleverly given; and indeed in so whimsical a tale anything can be defended. "Some Old Proverbs" will be found entertaining, and so will "Under the Cypress," a hunter's and fisher's description of the cypress swamp and its game. It is capital. Good, too, is the article on the Schuylkill country, with its references to the Mennonites and the Pennsylvania Dutch. But, in fact, all of *Lippincott's* is excellent.

Spain and the Spaniards. By N. L. Thieblin, "Azamat-Batuk." In two volumes. (London: Hurst & Blackett.)—In this book the reader will find no complete description of Spain as it appears to the tourist's eye; there is no account of the wonderful and varied scenery of that little-known country, nor of its art collections; nor is there any serious attempt made to unravel the knot of Spanish political affairs. It was written by a well-known London journalist, who visited Spain as correspondent of the New York *Herald*, and tells us what he saw there during the Carlist rising of last year. Of course there is a certain amount of space devoted to the presentation of the state of the newly declared republic and of the claims of the Carlists, but not more than is needed to save the reader from ignorance of the subject. The author gives us very little theorizing from facts, but he gives us plenty of facts from which we can draw our own inferences, and it is in this way that the reader is enabled to form a comprehension of the anarchy existing in Spain, and of the feeble basis on which the Republic rests, such as could never be attained by reading ignorant resolutions in favor of Spanish republicanism, passed at three or four thousand miles' distance. The tendency of a man who writes from so neutral a point of view as that of the newspaper correspondent, is towards a disagreeable cynicism; he demands what are called sensations, with indifference to their general bearing, but this quality also saves him from too partial a view of what he is sent to watch. We ask him merely to take the place of our own eyes, and the way in which he does this is the measure of his success or failure.

We know of no book that so well represents the condition of modern Spain; the author had the advantage of previous familiarity with the country, and he treats both Carlists and Republicans with an impartial hand. He is conscious of the incapacity of Don Carlos himself, of the pretentiousness of the Carlist war-making. Of this we quote an amusing example. After recounting one or two campaigning scenes, he says:

"Such and similar episodes were almost of daily occurrence, and the whole of our life in the Campo del Honor, with its eccentric adventures, its various encounters with strange characters in the most astounding costumes, and its serio-comic background of religious crusades, and daily masses celebrated by priests in top-boots and spurs, had something about it which reminded one immensely of Offenbach's and Hervé's operas. In fact, when Don Carlos and his generals were not present, we—the foreigners and the Frenchified Spanish officers—used to salute each other with the well-known chorus of 'Little Faust':

"'Vaillants guerriers,' etc.

Occasionally, indeed, it seemed to me, from a good many analogies, as if this chant had been specially written for us, and, as if to complete the joke, it turned out that the popular song of the gendarmes in 'Geneviève de Brabant' was sung by every volunteer in the force, it being—so I was told—a national melody of Guipuzcoa."

More serious consideration is accorded the Carlist generals, who seem to be superior in every way to the Pretender, and full credit is given to many of the qualities of the army. The admirers of the ready tongue of Castelar will find an account of that orator's qualities as a minister, which will perhaps enlighten them but will not very much delight them, and there are some interesting pages about Figueras.

The Heroes of the Seven Hills. By Mrs. C. H. B. Laing, author of the 'Seven Kings of the Seven Hills.' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.)—Mrs. Laing's little volume is a worthy companion to her earlier one. It is, like that, a pleasant rendering of the old stories that everybody ought to know in a form well adapted to attract children. The style is somewhat artificial: probably in no other country under the sun would Menenius Agrippa's familiar fable appear as of the "abdomen" and the members. The illustrations are excellent, and the type well suited to children's eyes.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Department of the Interior, United States Geological and Geographical Survey of the Territories. F. V. Hayden, United States Geologist-in-Charge. Miscellaneous Publications No. 4. 'Synopsis of the Flora of Colorado.' By Thomas C. Porter and John M. Coulter. Washington: Government Printing Office, March 20, 1874. 8vo, pp. x.-180.

This volume, a continuation of the series of reports by Dr. Hayden, is a valuable contribution to the natural history of the West, forming as it does a complete hand-book of the botany of Colorado Territory. It is not a mere list of the species, but an actual synopsis, and embraces descriptions of all the orders, genera, and species not contained in Gray's 'Botany,' Chapman's 'Flora,' and other botanies of the States east of the Mississippi River. In view of the fact that the mountainous districts of Colorado are at present visited by many travellers and naturalists, the publication of this book is very timely, and we presume it will be eagerly sought after. A full and complete alphabetical index, referring to all the families, genera, and species, adds greatly to the value of the work. Of the authors, Mr. Coulter was the botanist of Dr. Hayden's survey for several years, while Professor Porter of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., is well known as one of our best specialists in botany. The authors, in their introductory letter, acknowledge the assistance of Professor Lesquereux in the elaboration of the Musci and Hepaticæ; of Henry Willey in that of the Lichens; and of Charles H. Peck in that of the Fungi. They also return thanks to Dr. Gray, Mr. Sereno Watson, Dr. George Thurber, and Mr. J. H. Redfield; and they state that the plan followed in the synopsis is that of Mr. Watson in his catalogue, Vol. V. of Mr. Clarence King's Report. This hardly expresses the degree of their obligation to Mr. Watson, however, in view of the extent to which the subject-matter has been copied directly from his publications, with or without material modification.

Report on a Naval Mission to Europe, especially devoted to the Material and Construction of Artillery. Two volumes quarto. Washington. 1873.

In 1870, Captain (then Commander) Edward Simpson, of the Bureau of Ordnance, was instructed by the Secretary of the Navy to proceed to Europe for the purpose of enquiring into the more recent improvements in naval ordnance. In carrying out his mission, Captain Simpson reached London in July, 1870, and proceeded thence to Belgium and to the great establishment of Krupp at Essen. From this point he went to Italy, and visited the various arsenals and dock-yards at Naples. He then passed on to Austria, where he devoted particular attention to the torpedo establishments at Vienna and Fiume. In Prussia, he was not permitted to visit the manufactory of small arms and the laboratory in Berlin, but free access was allowed to other establishments. At St. Petersburg, every facility was extended to him; as also in Sweden, where he visited the celebrated Dannemora Iron Mine. Returning to England in June, 1871, he remained there for a month, and then proceeded to Holland. In October, 1871, he was enabled to visit Paris after the close of the war. Here he inspected various dock-yards, foundries, etc. At Brussels, he examined thoroughly the subject of phosphorus-bronze as a material for cannon; and at the end of 1872 he returned to the United States. Captain Simpson's report of his observations, which were extremely minute, is illustrated by a large number of plates, and contains a great deal of practical information which cannot fail to be of very great value not only to the Government but to manufacturers of metal and of ordnance. The two volumes form an appropriate companion series to the superb volumes on 'Metals and Ordnance' by General Rodman, published some years ago by the Ordnance Department of the Army.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Abbott (Rev. J. S. C.), Life of David Crockett	(Dodd & Mead)	
Blocqueville (La Marquise de), Les Soirées de la Villa des Jasmins, 4 vols., swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Campbell (D.), Mixed Education of Boys and Girls, swd	(Rivingtons)	
Carpenter (Prof. S. H.), The Philosophy of Evolution, swd	(Madison)	
Dana (Prof. J. D.), Manual of Geology, 2d ed	(Ivison, Blakeman & Co.)	$5 00
Duffet (F.), Method for the Study of French, Part 2	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
Fraser (J.), Scottish Chap Books, Part II., swd	(Henry L. Hinton)	1 25
Farquharson (Martha), Our Fred	(Dodd & Mead)	1 50
Hugo (V.), The Brigand, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 75
Hopkins (Rev. M.), Prayer and the Prayer-Gauge	(Dodd & Mead)	
Hunt (Prof. T. S.), Origin of Metalliferous Deposits, swd	(Estes & Lauriat)	0 25
Lewald (F.), Hulda; or, The Deliverer	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Miller (J.), Fetich in Theology	(Dodd & Mead)	
"Old Portfolio" Rhymes, swd	(Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor)	
Polko (Elise), Lulu's Novel, swd	(A. K. Loring)	0 50
Putnam (J. P.), The Metric System of Weights and Measures, bds	(Hurd & Houghton)	0 50
Packard (A. S., jr.), Insects of the Garden, Part 2, swd	(Estes & Lauriat)	0 25
Parr (Harriet), Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax	(Porter & Coates)	1 50
Pavy (Dr. F. W.), Treatise on Food and Dietetics	(Henry C. Lea)	
Richardson (S.), Clarissa Harlowe	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Rainy (Rev. R.), Delivery and Development of Christian Doctrine	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)	5 00
Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon, Bac-Mon, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Schurz (C.), Eulogy on Charles Sumner	(Lee & Shepard)	
Stretton (Hesba), Cassy	(Dodd & Mead)	
The Brooklyn Council of 1874	(Woolworth & Graham)	2 00
Thurid, and Other Poems	(Lee & Shepard)	
Townsend (Virginia F.), Six in All, swd	(A. K. Loring)	1 00
Underwood (F. H.), Lord of Himself	(Lee & Shepard)	
Venable (W. H.), The Amateur Actor	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	
Verne (J.), Journey to the Centre of the Earth	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	0 75
The Baltimore Gun-Club	(King & Baird)	
Williams (S., jr.), Euthanasia, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Yates (E.), A Dangerous Game, swd	(Wm. F. Gill & Co.)	0 75

Fine Arts.

THE DRAMA.

SALVINI IN ALFIERI'S TRAGEDY OF "SAUL."

THE enjoyment given by great acting and great writing was rarely combined when, a fortnight ago, we were allowed to hear Alfieri's masterpiece of "Saul" from Signor Salvini and his company. That slight tendency to suspicion with which we have watched the other personations of Salvini, the jealous fear lest we were being captivated by a higher kind of melodrama, was quite absent from the pleasure which this particular effort called forth. In "Saul" the actor showed himself calm and massive in style, penetrated with great ideas and powerful intuitions, ingenious in the extreme yet constantly tending to simplicity, and wrapped in a rugged primitive grandeur altogether befitting the royal colossus he portrayed. The play is entirely one of declamation, up to the suicide at its close; and in its conduct the tragedian found occasion for almost every resource of invective, eloquence, lamentation, satire, and despair. His first appearance was most telling: he moved slowly forward from the royal pavilion to the throne set at the tent-door, his head sunk between his shoulders and helplessly balancing with the first weakness of senility, his mantle strained tightly around his herculean shoulders, the hair and beard a heap of grey, and the filmed eyes vainly seeking for joy in the sunrise of Gilboa. The picture was so perfect and so protracted that it seemed as if it never would or ought to speak, and the first words, profoundly hollow and low, struck strangely upon the attention of the spell-bound and silent house. Saul talks at first to his own heart, praising the token of the dawn, and asking for his bygone years. The first question of Abner, however, arouses that leonine querulousness, that infinite dissatisfaction with all things, and that perpetual challenge or accusation of circumstance, which are the key-note of Alfieri's conception. The reproaches to Abner for being young and looking at the future with eyes of youth are followed by long complaints really addressed to destiny, but falling with envenomed bitterness upon his son and his daughter Michal, whom he calls "figlia del pianto." David entering is met with similar upbraiding, until he closes the argument with the fragment of Saul's mantle cut at Engedi. This is a whole act of unredeemed and we may almost say peevish abasement, requiring all the force of a naturally noble speaker to give it dignity. In Salvini's hands the complaining king is like the "Jeremiah" among the prophets of Michael Angelo. The act is ended with a bit of play thoroughly in keeping with the accent of mistrust which runs through it; having reconciled himself with his children and with David, and sent them kindly into the pavilion for repose, Saul remembers the plotting Abner, who is about to retire; the monarch thereupon stalks over the scene to Abner, wrapping his robes about him anew, and tossing his beard outside his mantle with a huge jerk of his lion-like head; cows Abner with his glance, and drives him before into the tent, laying upon his shoulder the powerful hand which still crushes the morsel of purple which is the sign of David's fidelity. This action is not indicated by Alfieri, but it adds a touch to the color of the scene. The painting of the whole act is in that tone of heaviness without the hope of remedy which Alfieri takes from Greek tragedy. Saul and Michal are a wandering Œdipus and Antigone. An act is not thought too much to give to this mere portrayal of a mood, the mood of a hero whom the Eumenides have marked, and who has no longer a motive for effort or energy.

To introduce some fibre into such a portrayal of abandoned misery, the chords of jealousy, of cruelty, and of inspired despair are introduced. But first comes the great scene when David soothes the king with his harp, and with the series of short, crisp chants which Mr. Browning has imitated in one of the most sustained and eloquent of his poems; it is quite impossible to describe this scene, where Salvini scarcely moves from an attitude of statuesque grief upon his seat, but where emotions of pride, peace, and delicious memory chase each other across his speaking face. This episode, which, like that of "Hamlet," is a "play within a play," is cut off by the poet with a touch peculiarly oriental and savage. David, singing like an Arab robber, forgets himself in his boast: "I overtake, I overthrow, I disperse the Philistine: I show that we have two swords in the field!" Upon which Saul cries suddenly, from the midst of his lethargy: "Is any sword in camp save mine?" and, while David flies, the act closes upon the king's picturesque ravings.

There is vast irony, and irony to the purpose, since it has power to blast where it strikes, in Saul's treatment of the priest Ahimelech. In this

dialogue occurs Alfieri's superb description of a captive heathen king, "taken in battle with arms in hand, a great king, a warrior burning with generous desire and lavish of his own blood in the cause of his people." Loaded with chains, neither inveighing nor pleading, he is dragged before admiring Saul. But "to ferocious Samuel he appeared guilty of valor":

". . . . Reo di coraggio
Parvi egli al fero Samuel!"

And the sacerdotal headsman thrice struck at the life of the victim with his own priestly hand. Saul rises into epic wrath against those who "mock, in security, the perils of warriors," the "less than women," the wielders of the "*verga vil*" and "*studiati carmini*," who, "clothed in effeminate linen, dare direct those who sweat in armor." From this burst he is recalled by Ahimelech, who reminds him that before the Eternal he is but crowned dust; a sentiment received by Saul in Salvini's personation with an all-abounding gesture of humiliation. The severity which Samuel had used upon Agag is returned ninefold upon Ahimelech and his priests; and the fourth act closes upon Saul soiled with sacerdotal blood, and lamenting that he is alone: "*Sol, con mi stesso, io sto. Misero re!*" But first occurs a piece of still finer and more poignant irony than that which is wasted upon the linen ephods of the priests. It is when Jonathan, trying to incite Saul to forgiveness of David, is told for the first time of his own fate from the lips of his father. "To-morrow," has proclaimed the ghost of Samuel (in the somewhat dubious grammar of our translation), "shalt thou and thy sons be with me." Nothing could well be more profound than the Italian-like recoil of argument and expressive weightiness of a hidden thought shown by Salvini when he meets Jonathan's generous plea with the outburst of this reserved revelation. He grasps the youth by the body like a reed, and plucks murderously at his breast, as with blazing eyes he pours into his mind the hot torrent of his jealousy and terror: "My house shall be extinct and uprooted by him who shall usurp my sceptre; thy brothers, thy offspring, and thyself, naught shall remain of all my race." To deaden this mighty shock, Alfieri has simply put in the character of the young prince an inexhaustible fund of patience and sense of fatality: "Does the sword of man avail against the celestial brand?"

It is the fifth act, filled with the terrific after-dream and rumination of the scene at Endor, which tests the actor who essays Alfieri's "Saul." It is one of the greatest opportunities and problems of the whole Italian repertory. The opening speech:

"Ombra adirata e tremenda, deh! cessa,"

is often spoken by the performer crouching at the foot-lights. In Salvini's representation it is sent from the profundities of the tent, preceded by some articulate moanings. The agony of despair with which he pleads with the mighty shade of Samuel for himself and his children culminates with the raving words: "Thy eyes are bloodthirsty, thy sword and hand are of fire; from thy wide nostrils come flames which dart upon me; they touch me; I burn." At this point the tragedian, seemingly beside himself, turns thrice upon himself and runs back, tearing away the garment, which appears to burn his flesh like a Dejanira's robe. All through this scene he moves over the stage in the loftiest kind of tragic possession, filled with passion, yet controlling it, and displaying the true artist in his wildest moments. The picture is complete when the mad king, for whom the air is filled with phantoms, believes he is grasped from behind by the hair, and turns to fall into the arms of his daughter, who, with tears and anguish, has followed him through his distracted wanderings. Who but Salvini could give us that agony of terror, that revulsion of sobbing reassurance? After this there seems no opportunity for a greater climax; yet the actor (who has invented this encounter between the king and his daughter without the poet's hint) contrives a superior one soon after for the close. It is when he smooths his wild hair under the heavy Hebrew crown, drapes himself, and falls upon his sword, moved with a very human mingling of decorum and despair. It is a sudden, an abrupt truncation of the drama. The fault is the poet's if there is too little of the twine and woof of tragedy in this hasty conclusion. Yet, for the play as a whole, as a construction at once classical and biblical, the world is indebted to Alfieri. It is rather heated than emotional; perhaps it is rather a disturbing influence in the mind than a pathetic charm; but it is stirred from beginning to end with a current of real feeling, and has in that respect a vast advantage over other classic Hebraisms that we know; over "Esther," for example, and "Athalie."

This was the only new piece presented by Salvini and his troop during the engagement. The support was insignificantly good, the theatre (Booth's) much better than the Academy of Music; the Italian scenery and properties tawdry. It is significant of the immensity of the propaganda which we have yet to undertake in Europe before the greatness of the national eagle will be fully understood there, to know that Sr. Salvini really thought it would be necessary to provide and bring over his scenery, believing that matters of that kind could not be procured in the New World.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, June 29.

MONEY has remained in abundant supply at 2 to 3 per cent., while at times there was absolutely no use whatever for all that was offering. Commercial paper is in good demand at 5 to 6 per cent. for firm names having a short time to run.

The statement of the Clearing-house banks on Saturday showed that they had gained $884,700 in reserve, against an increase of $5,168,700 in liabilities, which, if compared with the statement of the previous week, shows a falling off of $407,475 in the net surplus reserve; but owing to the new currency law, the banks are no longer required to keep on hand a reserve against their circulation beyond the 5 per cent. to be kept in Washington, and consequently the only reserve required is 25 per cent. against their deposits, which this week would be $58,232,200, as shown by the figures given below.

The following is a comparison of the averages of the past two weeks:

	June 20.	June 27.		Differences.
Loans	$279,067,500	$281,791,500	Inc..	$2 724.000
Specie	19,934,300	19,714.300	Dec...	219 900
Legal tenders	61,838,600	62,923,200	Inc...	1,084,600
Deposits	227,619,500	232 929,200	Inc...	5,309.700
Circulation	26 652,300	26,511 300	Dec...	141,000

The following shows the relation between the reserve and the liabilities according to the new law:

LAWFUL MONEY.

Specie	$19,714,300
Legal tenders	62 923 200
	$82,637.500

LIABILITIES.

Deposits	$232.929,200
25 per cent. of which is	58.232.300
Showing a surplus of reserve over the 25 per cent. required by law of	24,405,200
And a gain over last week of	6,200.350

The stock market has been active, with the course of prices steadily towards improvement. The market advanced from 3 to 5⅝ per cent. during the week, the greatest rise in any stock being that in Wabash, from 30½ to 36½. To-day a still further advance took place, carrying Central and Hudson up to 101, Lake Shore to 77⅝, Rock Island to 102⅞, Wabash to 39⅞, Western Union to 76, Northwestern Common to 44⅜, St. Paul Common to 41½, Pacific Mail to 45⅞, Ohio and Mississippi to 26⅞, Union Pacific to 29½, and C., C. and I. C. to 20¾. At the close this evening there has been a reaction in prices of from ½ to 1½ per cent., which is natural, considering the handsome rise of the last few days. Undoubtedly the demand which has existed for stocks has come in part from parties who were short, but there has been for some weeks past a continued demand from investors for such stocks as Central, Rock Island, and Lake Shore, as well as for the more speculative ones from those shrewd parties who always buy when the market is unduly depressed, and who pay for the stocks they buy and take them off the Street.

The large bear operators are still said to be short on their sellers' contracts which they put out two weeks ago, but there is no way of ascertaining the truth of the report; they may buy stocks for cash, hold them for a rise, and sell them out again, all the time being short on sellers' contracts, which they are not called upon to fulfil for five weeks yet, and they may have reason to think that prices will be down again by that time to a point sufficiently low to enable them to buy back at a profit.

Two failures have taken place among the bears during the week in consequence of the sharp advance in prices. That of an operator who sold right and left on the "make or break" principle, was quite a serious one among those brokers who were so unfortunate as to take his orders or his contracts. It is generally the case that, on comparatively small advances in the market, more bears fail than bulls on sharp declines. The reason for this is that the former are not called upon for large amounts as margins, while the latter have to be prepared to carry their stocks by hypothecating them at ten or fifteen per cent. under the price at which they were purchased. The bear, consequently, will take the greatest risk, and a small advance generally means a heavy loss to him.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, June 27, 1874:

	Monday	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	97¼ 98⅜	98⅜ 99¼	99 99⅝	98½ 99	99 99⅝	99½ 100⅛	32,8 0
Lake Shore.....	69¾ 72½	71⅜ 74⅛	73⅝ 75	72⅜ 73⅞	73⅜ 75	74⅜ 76¼	551,500
Erie.....	26⅜ 31⅛	28⅝ 33	29⅝ 31½	29⅞ 31½	30⅜ 31⅜	31⅜ 31⅞	96,300
Union Pacific	24⅜ 27½	26⅜ 27⅞	26⅜ 27⅞	25⅝ 26⅝	26⅜ 27½	27 27⅞	181,100
Chi. & N. W.....	39⅞ 40⅜	40⅜ 41⅜	41 42½	39⅜ 41¼	40¾ 41⅜	41⅛ 42⅜	71,300
Do. pfd....	55½ 57½	58 59	59¾ 60¼	5 ⅛ 59¼	.... 59⅝	60 60½	4,100
N. J. Central.....	....	.... 107⅛	107⅜ 107½	 108	 108	....	700
Rock Island.....	94⅜ 97¼	96⅜ 97½	97½ 98⅝	96⅞ 97½	97½ 98⅛	98¼ 100⅛	32,500
Mil. & St. Paul....	35⅜ 37⅜	36⅜ 37⅛	37¼ 38½	36⅜ 37¼	37¼ 38⅜	38 39⅜	75,800
Do. pfd..	74½ 57⅛	57⅝ 58⅝	59 59½	 57	57½ 58	58 59	5,100
Wabash.....	30½ 33⅛	33⅝ 34⅜	33½ 35½	32½ 33⅝	35⅜ 34⅜	36⅛	112,300
D., L. & W.....	.... 108½	.... 109⅝	109¾ 109½	109¼ 109⅜	109¾ 110	11 110¼	6,400
O. & M.....	22¾ 24¾	24½ 25	24½ 25⅜	24½ 25	25 25⅜	25½ 25⅞	17,500
C. C. & I. C.	16¾ 18½	18¼ 18½	18 18⅜	17⅜ 18¼	18¼ 18⅜	18¾ 19¼	6,200
W. U. Tel	71 73⅜	73¼ 74⅜	74⅛ 75⅜	74⅜ 74⅝	72¼ 73⅛	73 74½	219 000
Pac fic Mail	41⅜ 43½	43¾ 44¼	43⅝ 44½	42⅜ 43⅝	43¼ 44½	43⅜ 44½	114,200

The Government bond market has been quiet, and prices to-day show only a small deviation from those current a week ago. During the early part of the week the market was strong and higher, but later, with lower gold and a weaker London market, prices declined a fraction.

The following are the closing quotations this evening:

U. S. 6's of 1881.....121⅜@122⅜	U. S. 5-20, 1867 .....120⅞@121
U. S. 5-20, 1862.....114⅜@114⅝	U. S. 5-20, 1868.....120¾@121
U. S. 5-20, 1864 .....117 @117⅛	U. S. 5's, 10-40 .....114 @114⅛
U. S. 5-20, 1865, May and Nov..117¾@118	U. S. 5's of 1881.....114 @114⅜
U. S. 5-20, 1865, Jan. and July..120⅛@120⅜	U. S. Currency 6's.....115⅛@115¾

The only transactions in State bonds of any importance have been in Tennessees, which have ranged at about 80 for both the old and new issues. The State Treasurer of South Carolina has declined to recognize some $340,000 certificates of indebtedness authorized by the last legislature, on the ground of unconstitutionality. These certificates were made receivable for taxes, and proceedings have been commenced against the Treasurer to make him honor them.

The advance in gold on Monday of last week to 112 was not maintained, the price gradually settling to 111⅛. The following shows the range of quotations for the week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, June 22	111¼	112	111¼	111⅜
Tuesday, June 23.	112	112	111⅝	111¾
Wednesday, June 24.....	111¾	111¾	111⅜	111⅝
Thursday, June 25.....	111⅜	111⅜	111⅛	111¼
Friday, June 26.....	111⅜	111⅜	111⅛	111¼
Saturday, June 27.....	111¼	111¼	111¼	111¼

At the Government sale on Thursday the total amount of gold bid for was $1,795,000; the amount to be sold, $1,000,000, was awarded at 111·07 to 111·26¾. The shipments of specie for the week amount to $1,020,310. The total amount shipped since January 1 is $30,027,947, against $26,962,225 for the same period in 1873, and $36,036,607 in 1872.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 9, 1874.

The Week.

ONE of the railroads, the Chicago and Northwestern, a portion of whose line runs through Wisconsin and is menaced by the "Potter law" of that State, applied through its bondholders for an injunction to the United States Circuit Court, a fortnight ago, restraining the State Attorney-General from bringing suits or otherwise vexing the road under the State legislation, on the ground that it would thus be prevented from earning enough money to keep its contracts with its creditors. The Court has denied the injunction, leaving the merits of the case untouched, and a case was made up for an appeal to the Supreme Court; and indeed the argument before the Circuit Court was not much more than a formal step in this direction. The decision has, therefore, by no means all the weight which stockjobbers and sensation-mongers are attributing to it, and it by no means affects all railroads, as some people imagine. At the very worst, it simply decides that the provision of the Wisconsin constitution which reserves the right of altering or revoking charters granted by the Legislature, is applicable to all railroads now working within the State. It consequently does not in the least touch the principle established by the Dartmouth College case, and settles nothing as to the relations of American railroads in general to the State or General Government. The case will doubtless be argued before the Supreme Court in the course of the coming year, but even the decision of that Court will not, on the points raised in this instance, settle the real question pending between the Grangers and the owners of railroads, because it will not touch the railroads made under charters granted by States whose constitutions contain no such reservations as those of the Wisconsin constitution, or railroads made before the adoption of constitutions containing such reservations.

The position maintained by the counsel for the State, which the Court has nominally sustained, is that the right to "alter or amend" charters reserved by the constitution includes the right to fix rates of compensation whether they are "reasonable" or not; and that the State might, if it pleased, compel the railroad to pay the whole of its receipts into the State treasury by way of taxation, or, in other words, might confiscate the property of the stockholders and their creditors. Nothing more monstrous in the way of a definition of a right was probably ever heard outside of a buccaneer's cave. The books of the company were produced in court, and it was shown clearly that the rates imposed on the road by the State law did not afford the lawful rate of interest on the capital invested in its construction. The railroad companies are now asked to trust their property to the mercy and discretion of the State legislature, which is poor comfort, considering the mode in which that body has approached the question in its recent legislation. It is becoming clearer every day that the Western movement against the railroads is, under cover of redressing a few acknowledged but on the whole trifling abuses, a fresh outburst of dishonesty by which a certain portion of the community is infected as with the scrofula, and which finds vent now in one form, now in another, and which politicians are always ready to use. Four years ago it was in an attempt to pay the public creditors in greenbacks; now it is an attempt to plunder the railroads; and next year it may be in a raid on all non-resident creditors. The worst of it is that when these eruptions show themselves, honest men are apt to look on and smile at the outset, or else, as in the present instance, stimulate them a little, in the hope that, though offensive in themselves, some great good may eventually result from them to the body politic. In the matter of railroads, leading Liberal Republican papers and orators fanned the flame of hostility to the roads, in the belief that it would result in the promotion of a powerful opposition to the Republican party. We always denounced this as a wretched delusion. It has ended, as it was plain it would end, in an attack on property of which the King of Dahomey would be ashamed, and which places the country once more in a discreditable attitude before the civilized world, and is likely to inflict great injury on American industry. But there is good reason for believing that this early pushing of the thing to the extreme will open the eyes of the people to the danger with which this Granger folly is threatening American industry and fame.

A railroad law has also been passed in Iowa, and under it a cast-iron schedule has been drawn up, imposing rates on the companies which they pronounce unreasonable, because unremunerative. The General Superintendent of the Chicago and Rock Island road has, however, written a letter to the Governor of the State, in which, after stating the case of the road as against the new rules, he promises to test the operation of the new law in actual practice before assailing it in the courts. "If," he says, "the result of a thorough and satisfactory experiment should show that an observance of the rules must involve a permanent surrender of the revenues to which the company is entitled from the operation of its lines, a different policy will be adopted, with a view to securing such revenue, and any attempt to enforce the act as a valid law will be resisted in the proper tribunals."

The findings of the court-martial in General Howard's case have been published. They declare that the General did not knowingly violate any law of Congress, or rule of the army or of the navy, and did devote all his time and energy to the work entrusted to him, and has made a satisfactory accounting to the Treasury, and that in those cases in which improper investments had been made of the funds of the Bureau, it was done under the advice and opinion of the Second Comptroller, and General Howard was therefore not to be blamed for it. The court was not unanimous on all the points, but was on the main conclusion. General Holt, the Judge-Advocate, has, however, reviewed the finding in a way which General Howard will hardly enjoy. He holds that though it could not be said that he violated laws or rules with bad intent, yet he *did* violate them in point of fact, and, if in ignorance, it was ignorance for which there is no excuse; that when General Howard took charge of the funds of the Bureau, instead of adopting proper precautions for their safe management, he laid aside some safeguards already in use; that he adopted systems of account which did not explain themselves; that he converted public money into bonds, in violation of positive law, on the advice of a subordinate officer of the Treasury, and without referring his action, as in duty bound, to the Secretary, his superior officer; that he also failed to inform this officer that a sum of $300,000 had been for a whole year invested in these bonds until two years after it had been reconverted into money, and then failed to account for the year's interest; and that he presented one account in which a charge of $16,000 was made against the Treasury which had already been paid out of other public money. These and various other omissions, errors, and disorders, General Holt admits, were doubtless the results of ignorance or carelessness; but he would not have it go forth that such ignorance or carelessness in an officer of General Howard's standing is excusable. The President, who seems to have a never-failing tenderness for a man on whom an investigation of any kind has fallen heavily, at once appointed General Howard to the command of the Department of Columbia.

The week has been a sorrowful one in the United States Treasury. It appears that no clearance of supernumeraries and persons employed without authority of law has been made since the war until now. The recent reductions made by Congress in the appropriations, however, combined with the advent of Mr. Bristow, have led to a thorough overhauling of the force of employees, and to the dismissal of from 600 to 700, a large number of them women, and many of these having other persons dependent on them for support. The scenes which followed the announcement of the changes are described by the reporters as heartrending, as many as fourteen of the women fainting. All this is very sad, but it is not so sad as the abuses which have made it necessary. The management of the Treasury since the war has been a national disgrace. The reforms we now witness ought to have been begun in 1865, and they ought to have been accompanied by preparations for specie payments; instead of which, specie payments were laid aside as unworthy of attention, and the Treasury was turned into an almshouse for the relief of helpless women and old soldiers. Mr. Boutwell, according to one of his reports, carried it on for awhile as an institution for the education of divinity and medical students, and then, to crown all, Mr. Richardson made it a place in which thieves could store their plunder, and "check against it," as the bankers say. It seems likely now to become a clean, well-ordered institution, conducted on business principles.

Mr. Bristow has done two other things which have produced a slight sensation in political circles. In letting out the bonded warehousing business in this city, he exacted a guarantee that persons applying for it should personally superintend it, to prevent the subletting of it, which was one of the scandals of the Leet and Stocking period and, before that, of the Bowen period. He has also offered a portion of the new five per cent. loan to bankers in general, without the intervention of any syndicate, a step which may or may not result favorably, but which has at any rate a healthy look, and speaks well for the purity of his policy. The objection to it is that bankers will hardly like to bid very high for a portion of the loan when they have no guarantee that the remainder may not be disposed of at so low a rate as to close the market to them. The suggestion that the bonds should be sold to the public at retail by the Government at a moderate rate, which has been made, is one worth Mr. Bristow's consideration. We are in hopes that before long he will try and let a little light in on the circumstances under which the firm of Clews & Habicht was substituted for the Barings as Government bankers by good Mr. Boutwell. There is a widespread, and we believe well-grounded, impression that that transaction too needs investigation, and we trust it will receive it.

Mr. Hale's ill-health has obliged him to decline the office of Postmaster-General, and the President has accordingly appointed a new successor to Mr. Creswell. His choice this time has fallen upon Mr. Marshall Jewell, ex-Governor of Connecticut and for about a year United States Minister to Russia; and as Mr. Jewell has returned his acceptance by Cable, the matter may now be considered finally disposed of. The motive of this selection could hardly be guessed without some knowledge of Mr. Fish's sense of the value of Mr. Jewell in his present place; but as the latter is a person of proved executive ability, and apparently well fitted for his new duties, it seems idle to speculate on the President's preference for a New-England Postmaster-General, or his assumed alacrity in letting off the next friend of Speaker Blaine.

The Maine Democrats have given Mr. Blaine a chance of which he is not slow to avail himself in his letter of acceptance, written to the Convention which has just renominated him for Congress. It is a chance of which an adroit man might be quicker to avail himself than a candid man; though it would seem that it hardly lies with some of the Maine Democrats to make any complaint as to the way in which their words have been turned upon them. They declared in their Convention the other day that they were opposed to protection, that they were in favor of free-trade; and their candidate for governor wanted the people educated up to a belief that revenues should be derived from a wise system of excises or from direct taxation of the people. Mr. Blaine points out that direct taxation would be levied *per capita*, and would bear heavily on the individual voter, and that excise systems on the other hand are odiously inquisitorial and would tyrannically oppress various enumerated industrial classes—all to the benefit of the foreigners who, under Mr. Titcomb's proposed arrangement, would have the opportunity of overrunning our markets free of tax. That the unfortunate Convention probably meant no more than that it wanted free-trade in the sense of having our revenue derived from a few articles, and was opposed to tariff bills in the interest of protection, Mr. Blaine discreetly considers himself discharged from mentioning. The proposed treaty of reciprocity was Mr. Blaine's other important topic, though he did not fail to praise the Republican party for its economical achievements during the last session of Congress. Of reciprocity he has a low opinion, but apparently only because of its apprehended ill effects on certain local interests. The fact is, Maine is so like Canada in its various productions, natural and artificial, that whatever may be the interest of the country in general in the passage of the treaty, her own interests would probably suffer, and the Republicans of the State may be depended upon to oppose the treaty. Meantime, Mr. Blaine is no doubt sure of a re-election.

We have commented elsewhere on the municipal imbroglio. The detailed history of it is interesting though somewhat hard reading for hot weather, and we should not attempt to give it, even if it were possible for an outsider to give it correctly. The main fact of it is, however, worth dwelling upon, because it shows the worthlessness of all charters, however carefully drawn, as long as the legislature is what it is. The Custom-house Ring fought bitterly two years ago against giving the Mayor the sole power of appointments, and made him share it with the aldermen. Last winter, however, either they made some kind of private agreement with him, or obtained some knowledge of his designs, which caused them to get a supplemental act passed giving him the sole power of appointment in the case of police commissioners, or, in other words, making an exception to the rule in the very case in which their rule, if it had any value, was most necessary, and this bill Governor Dix signed, though it surely must have excited his suspicions. The only good excuse for his signing it that we can see, was that he had advocated this mode of appointment when the charter was under discussion, but he surely ought not to have sanctioned patchwork amendment of this sort, even if he had believed in the honesty of its promoters, and he is too old a politician to have believed that the Custom-house intriguers would face right-about in the way they have done without a corrupt understanding with the Mayor. It is the one act of his administration which we think he might rightfully regret.

The Tammany Association had its annual "long talk" and its annual "short talk" on the Fourth, the sachems and warriors meeting in council, and "Grand Sachem Augustus Schell acting as chairman and wielding his tomahawk." The long talk was made this year by Sachem J. S. Thayer, and was of a nature not to seem short, whatever its brevity. The short talk, by Mr. Fernando Wood, was "in the pithy style which marks the speech of the red man," but neither is that rich in quotable passages. To tell the truth, deep dulness personified and ancient tediousness were characteristic of all that the Indians, big or little, managed to say. Of the two thousand letters received from outsiders some are not open or less open to this same charge, but to some it applies in full. Ex-Governor Randolph, of Virginia, expressed a thought which has more than once of late occurred to him: "Much as there is for congratulation coming out of recent political successes, so much remains to be done that requires great wisdom, moderation, and patriotism, that I am more anxious as to the policy which shall

guide our future than jubilant over past success." He adds, still more significantly: "My apprehension has been that our old file-leaders may fail to recognize the fact that after years of political adversity we are being put upon our trial here and there, and not by reason of these occasional successes guaranteed a general or national success." Mr. Clarkson N. Potter was for a comprehensive policy; he would have the party demand at once such amendments to the Constitution as should "limit the authority of Congress over vested rights, deprive it of the power of private and special legislation, put a check upon the growth and abuses of great corporations, and break up the vast and increasing patronage of the Executive." The general tone of the meeting was, however, that the warriors had only to wait, and their enemies would, without much strategy being called for, fall a prey. It is surprising and depressing to observe how flat, by reason of iteration, the long list of recent Republican errors and crimes falls upon the ear. Mr. Cox recited them, beginning with Crédit Mobilier frauds and coming down past the Gatling guns and Durell's order to Jayne's handcuffs, and it was all far less like a charm to conjure with than could be wished. Governor Randolph's may, after all, be the best advice for the sachems to listen to.

The coroner's jury which has been examining for a couple of months the causes of the Mill River disaster has rendered its verdict. It is what was to have been expected. It censures the lawmakers, the proprietors of the reservoir and especially their building committee, their supervising engineer, the contractors, and the county commissioners—in short, everybody who was immediately or indirectly responsible for such a false and fatal construction as the Williamsburg dam. It is hard to say on which of all these shoulders the verdict lays most blame, but, distributed as in justice it unfortunately had to be, it is still severe enough—severely moderate enough—to produce what we may hope will prove a wholesome remorse in the breasts of the individual culprits. The State's portion of condemnation will cause no tingling of conscience and no sleepless nights to any one, but it will doubtless bear fruit in improved legislation tending to make the recurrence of such foreordained disasters impossible. The existing statute, say the jury, "has been calculated to repel rather than invite a careful scrutiny of works like the Williamsburg dam; for while it provides that any person who fears the destruction of his property or of a highway from an unsafe reservoir, may call out the county commissioners for an examination, yet if his fears are not endorsed by the commissioners he is to be mulcted with the costs and expenses of the whole proceeding." Evidently the legislators who framed this provision had apprehensions like those with which the managers of English railways view the introduction of the American bell-rope, and supposed it likely that persons would cast suspicion on the reservoirs and call out the county commissioners just for the fun of the thing. How great the chances were that the Hampshire County Commissioners would pronounce any complaint frivolous and unfounded may be judged from the fact that in three several examinations they never employed, as the statute authorized them to do, the services of a skilled engineer in determining the character of the original work or viewing it for repairs, and that they rested satisfied with the testimony of the proprietors alone.

The London *Economist* of June 20 contains a paragraph in reference to the recent history of the Emma Mine which we commend to the attention of the public and all whom it may concern. After mentioning that Mr. Albert Grant, the notorious stockjobber through whose instrumentality the mine was brought on the London market, had appeared the other day as defendant in Chancery to a suit brought against him for the recovery of $8,500, part of a sum he had agreed to pay to a Mr. Doulton for "introducing to him a vender of American mines," the *Economist* says:

"More lately there have been certain stormy meetings of the Emma shareholders, who are naturally indignant at finding that they have been long without dividends, and that the shares—which were issued at £20, and which were once we believe quoted upwards of £30—are now salable only at £2, if indeed any considerable quantity of them could be sold for that price. The statements made at the meeting are in curious contrast with those in the prospectus, and should open the eyes of intending investors in public companies to the tricks that may be played with them. The mine was sold, according to the prospectus, as a property yielding £700,000 per annum; and not only so, it was stated that the ore was so abundant and so rich that no attempt had been made to work the mine on commercial principles of economy, and with economy the annual return could be brought up to nearly £800,000—for all which even a million, which was the sum asked, was cheap. But the mine in fact has never yielded anything worth speaking of since the ore which was on the surface when it was sold has been worked up, and Mr. Attwood, the company's engineer, who was sent out by a reformed management to inspect and survey the property, distinctly reported to the two meetings that the mine was in a wretched condition, and that there was nothing to work which would do more than repay the cost of working. The contrast between promise and performance has thus been most painful, and it is difficult to say which is most to be wondered at—the folly of those who believe such statements, or the assurance of those who make them."

The Icelanders, as our readers know, are to celebrate the thousandth anniversary of the settlement of their island during the present summer, and have taken the 1st of August as the proper day, in the absence of any indications as to the precise date. The colonists were, for a long period after their emigration, lost sight of by the rest of the world, and their island had no place on the charts of Northern navigators. The Danish Government now contributes to the occasion a new charter, based on the Danish constitution of 1849, which gives to a local legislature, called the Althing—consisting of thirty-six members, thirty chosen by liberal though not universal suffrage, and six nominated by the crown—exclusive jurisdiction of local concerns, with a minister holding the executive power resident at Copenhagen, and appointed by the King, but responsible to the legislature. His functions, however, in all matters of pressing importance, will be exercised by a Governor residing in the Island. This closes a long and bitter contest between the islanders and the Danish crown, as they have accepted the proferred charter in the most cordial terms, and the King, the first who has ever done so, goes out to be present at the celebration.

There is nothing particularly new or interesting in the situation in France. The chief features of it remain as they were two weeks ago—that is, the Left and Right Centre are somewhat sufficiently alarmed by the progress of Bonapartists to be willing to force on either the definitive establishment of the Republic or the "organization of the Septennat," which some are willing to accept as the equivalent of the Republic, while the Left is willing to accept the Assembly as a constituent body if it creates a government which it likes, but not otherwise—three only of their number refusing to fall into this arrangement, which, by the bye, is a device of Gambetta's, and is procuring him high praise as a "practical man" from some of his admirers abroad. The Monarchists are in the meantime in a bad way, the Duc de Larochefoucauld's proposition for a restoration meeting with no favor anywhere, and the last proclamation extracted from the Comte de Chambord being simply an assurance that he would not be such an out-and-out feudal monarch as some people thought him, but would obey the laws, and would permit a parliament to help him without submitting to its dictation. The Legitimists are now in such a state of perplexity that, as the best thing to which they can turn their hand, they are at this writing organizing another attack on the ministry *apropos* of its having suspended several newspapers, and notably their own organ, the *Union*, for its publication of the Chambord manifesto, and promise an adverse vote of 100 to any clique which will join them in the movement. Marshal MacMahon, in the meantime, is spoiling their little game by making it known that he will not regard defeats of the ministry as involving any change, or, in other words, that he has substituted the Plantagenet or Prussian or Bonapartist system, whichever one likes to call it, for the parliamentary one.

"THE PEOPLE" AND "THE PARTY."

THE term "party obligation" covers two very remote and different things—viz., the tie, real or supposed, which binds one individual to a great number of individuals called the party; and the duty or fidelity which the managing power of a party—*i.e.*, the men who receive power—owe to the men who confer it. During the last thirty or forty years the popular ideas which construed these obligations have passed away and no very definite ideas have taken their place. In looking back little more than a generation, the generally controlling ideas are very plainly perceptible. The first was, that a man having chosen his party, and taken an active part in its proceedings, belonged to it, as a soldier does to an army in which he enlists. For a free and independent citizen then to change his political views was to desert—to become a "turncoat," a "traitor," a "Benedict Arnold." The second idea was that the indefinable personality called a party owed a direct political responsibility to "the people"; that it was to avert disasters and accomplish results, and be judged not by its platforms and promises, but, like military commanders, by its successes. A party was deemed responsible for the agents to whom it confided power, and for it to shift the blame of reprehensible public acts from its impalpable self to its "leaders" or "standard-bearers," or other fighting men, would have been thought as absurd as for a general to solicit public confidence after defeat, for no better reason than that his officers disobeyed orders and his soldiers ran away. In the vernacular of the day—a vernacular that is by no means obsolete—there was a power behind parties called "the people." A member of the party might not turn his coat, that would be disgraceful; but "the people" might put political parties up or down as it saw fit. "The people" was an unseen deity to whom a party owed fealty, and by whom it might be righteously judged. An intelligent foreigner studying our political phrases might have exclaimed: "Is not the people the party, or is not the sum of the two parties the people?" And he would have been answered in some roundabout way, that the people was a power, an authority, supremely wise, whose decrees were final; which might rightfully demand, and did in fact constantly demand, of "the party" the judicious and successful administration of public affairs.

When the facts to which these phrases referred are analyzed, it is plain that "the people" consisted of the one man in a hundred who cared little about "politics," who was not clearly identified with either party, who expressed his disgust by staying away from the polls, and his dissatisfaction by voting the reverse this year of that which he voted last, who treated a political party as an entire unity, and punished it for the mistakes or malfeasances or incompetency of its duly authorized agents. A jury does not hold a railroad corporation to a stricter accountability for the blunders or abuses of its employees than did "the people" hold a party in power accountable for what its "leaders" or "standard-bearers" did or failed to do in public life. The principal was punished for the acts of the agent, and was told, as we now tell a railroad company which has broken our bones, that it had no right to employ a switch-tender who was a fool, or an engineer who could get drunk. Platforms of exalted principles did not serve the party whose Congressmen mismanaged the country, any better than wise and judicious rules help the railroad whose trains have run into each other and killed and wounded a score or two of passengers.

Unphilosophical as it might have been to regard the people as something distinct from the mass of individuals who make up society, the illusion possessed the excellent effect of making the zealous members of a party careful of what they did, and especially careful as to whom they put forward to represent the party in places of official responsibility and power. If the present Republican majority in Congress had lived fifty years ago, and taken it into their heads then to perform any of their recent political somersaults, the most of them would have been finding themselves burnt in effigy at home, and "the party" doing its best to save itself by branding them as "outlaws" and "traitors." So long as it was a well-understood condition of success that a party "must know enough" to select competent representatives, it was almost certain that, before election, political managers would take care whom they put in power, and that, after election, men in office would feel that their acts might cause an amount of political disaster that no ordinary mortal would have the hardihood to face. The result was that the representatives of a party were for the most part about the best men which the party and the locality could furnish, and that they, when in office, acted with a discretion and fidelity which could only spring from a sense of direct responsibility coupled with a knowledge of the immediate ruin which their acts might bring to their political side of the country. There is nothing at the present time which the country so much needs as a restoration of this sense of accountability on the part of both party managers and party representatives; and the greatest blessing that could befall us would be to have parties so closely divided that each would have to do its utmost for the public good in order to maintain its hold of political power.

The old condition of affairs lasted so long as the principal issues before the country were little more than those of administrative ability. But with the graver issues of the slavery conflict and the civil war, the public mind required primarily a declaration of principles—an avowal of the ground upon which each party elected to stand. Political managers were ready enough to yield to this demand. It was much cheaper to furnish the people with good platforms than with good candidates. The graver issues have now passed away, and the old issues of governmental management, though in new forms, have come back to us; but the political managers cling to their cheap nostrums of exalted platforms, and seem to believe that a good declaration of principles will relieve them from everything in the way of performance.

Formerly the figure of a politician "riding two horses" meant that he was avowing two discordant sets of principles at the same time—that he was "high tariff" in Pennsylvania and "free-trade" in South Carolina. An unscrupulous man playing such a part needed to be an adroit one, and the most adroit riders generally came to the ground before they had ridden far. Our modern politicians are not adroit men, and are incomparably below their predecessors in real ability, yet they manage to play their double game more audaciously and with incomparably greater success. The secret lies not in their temerity, but in the fact that they have contrived, or rather fallen upon, a system which enables them to ride their two horses at different times. Mr. Conkling, for instance, can first mount his horse made up of "magnificent principles" and "unexampled political good works" and "untold dangers of Democratic rule," and having successfully ridden through the elections on it, can then mount his other horse of party management and ride through the country as he pleases. These men in Congress do not believe that their unprincipled political bad-faith will injure the party, and they know that, if the party be all right, an entirely different influence than that which regards the public welfare will carry them through the nominating convention. They have divided the community into two parts, and expect to use the honest and conscientious part to carry the elections, and the worthless and unprincipled to select the candidates. The "people"—once so much respected and feared—are to be told, as they have been repeatedly told before, that it was the Republican party which saved the Republic and maintained the Union; but that it was merely a caucus of politicians which has renominated this or that political vagabond for Congress.

It must be evident to any thinking man who will contrast the last national Republican platform with the audacious performances of the Republican Congress elected on the faith of that platform, that we had better speedily adopt one of two methods of treatment. If we are to hold to the old idea of a party being a personality, then we should also hold the personality clearly accountable for the acts of the agents which it selects. If, on the contrary, we take a party for what it is—a voluntary union of ourselves to accomplish some definite object—then the sooner we stop being grateful to ourselves

for what we formerly thought it most judicious to do, the sooner we shall be likely to accomplish some of the ends we are now seeking to attain. An assemblage of sensible men endeavoring to unravel some of the mysteries of social science do not call themselves the "Columbian party," nor set up a shadowy personality to which they all swear allegiance; and if other sensible men uniting for political objects could be induced to take some practical designation instead of an artificial one, it would greatly help them to understand what it is they are trying to accomplish, or failing to accomplish. If one set of our citizens could be induced to forego calling themselves the Democratic party, and forget for a while the something (or nothing) which they now term its "traditions," we might possibly find out what it is that they really propose to do. If the other set would be equally magnanimous in ceasing to term themselves "the great Republican party," and refrain from constant allusions to certain past works and patriotic gratitude, we might then be able to learn which of their promises it is that they really intend to keep. But if, as heretofore, we are to rush into the market-place during the ensuing Congressional election and shout "Great is Diana of the Ephesians," it may be as well for the controlling minority of the community commonly called "the people" to insist that this deity of our own devising can be punished as well as worshipped.

MUNICIPAL POLITICS.

NEW YORK municipal politics, if not a very savory subject of investigation, has at least the merit of furnishing on a small scale a large number of the problems which vex the public mind in national politics. Anybody who wants to study the working of universal suffrage under the least favorable conditions, or the fate of taxpayers under the rule of non-taxpayers; the power of the caucus; the confusing effects of numerous elections and divided responsibility; the comparative merits of election and appointment; the difficulties in the way of trying the great panacea, "the election of none but good men to office"; the proper limits of the province of government; and the works and ways of the average American politician, could hardly do better than take up his residence here, and interest himself actively in the politics of his ward. He would find that he could get as much valuable experience out of one year as five or even ten would afford him in any other part of the country; and when we say this we have Philadelphia and New Orleans, to say nothing of Chicago and Washington, distinctly in our minds.

Just now we are going through a remarkable and apparently inevitable stage in the history of the "reform movement," and it is in the highest degree instructive as an illustration of the difficulties of reform when there is in existence no real reform party—that is, no powerful organization occupied with reform and nothing else. The great difficulty in the way of good city government here, next in order after the character of the city population, has been often explained of late years, and is familiar to nearly everybody. It consists in the fact that the majority in the country has, since 1856, belonged to one party, and the majority in the city to another, which would have been of no great consequence if the city had been treated as—what it really is—a commercial corporation; not, under the influence of mediæval traditions, as a political community. As a political community, it became at once an object of hostility to the majority of the State, in whose hands, contrary to all sound principles, the constitution lodged the power to frame its government; consequently, the legislature has been occupied year after year, not in providing the city with the means of comfort and health, but with devising schemes by which its political power might be held in check or neutralized. In other words, every charter that was framed, and nearly every two years saw the enactment of a new one, had in view not the legitimate objects of a charter—good government, good drains, good police and lights—but the control of votes. This state of things lasted down to 1869, when Tweed hit upon the plan of putting a stop to the interference of the State majority with city affairs by buying up the legislature with hard cash, and it proved perfectly effectual. He was at once permitted to draw his own charter, and to lodge the control of city affairs in his own hands and those of his confederates, and during his short reign the city was for the first time really independent of the State. If Tweed had been "a good man," barring the bribery of the legislators, he might have given the city a first taste of really good government, by dissociating municipal affairs from State and Federal politics, and managing them as those of a commercial corporation. Being what he was, he simply continued the old system in another interest, and added to it the theft of the city funds on an enormous scale.

Everybody knows the history of his overthrow. It took an enormous amount of heat and fury to bring it about, and as usual the spectacle of it filled the heads of vast numbers of excitable people with visions of the millennium. Under the influence of this excitement, a new class of persons, who may be said roughly to have been represented by the Committee of Seventy, and whose interests were identical with those of the city considered as a commercial corporation, came temporarily into power, and they proceeded to draft a charter which was the first carefully considered and prepared instrument of the kind which had ever been presented to the legislature. The legislature, which was momentarily overawed by the reform movement, passed it, but it was set aside for unconstitutionality; and by this time the enthusiasm had begun to flag, the Committee of Seventy to decline in zeal and influence, and the political class to make its way slowly once more to the front. The result was that the next charter was drafted by three or four of the regular political hacks of the Republican party, and was duly mutilated and patched before passage by the Republican majority, which had recovered from its fright. It was not after all what they would have liked to make it, and was better than many of its predecessors, and contained some useful provisions, of which we are now reaping the benefits; but it had the fatal defect of having emanated not from the citizens but from the politicians, and of having been drawn and passed on the avowed theory that the preparation and execution of anything in the nature of reform belonged to the Republican politicians as a matter of right, and pretty much as in the Roman Catholic Church the administration of the sacraments belongs to the clergy. This of course revived once more, and in its full strength, the doctrine that the city is above all things a political community and to be dealt with as such; and in proportion as this doctrine gains or loses strength, the government becomes worse or better.

At this point there arose a curious complication, of which we are just now witnessing the culmination. The citizens, having early reached the conclusion that no great change in the machinery of municipal government was to be looked for, had fallen back on the old and much-loved resource of "electing none but good men to office," and chose for Mayor Mr. Havemeyer, an old and respected resident who had filled the office with credit twenty years previously. A grand fight then arose between the citizens and the politicians as to the extent of the Mayor's power, the citizens seeking to make it as large as possible in order to concentrate responsibility, the politicians seeking to make it as small as possible in order to increase the controllable amount of "spoils," or, in other words, the number of places available for the reward of party services. The politicians carried the day, and the Mayor had to share the appointing power with the Aldermen. There then followed one of the surprises of politics. Mr. Havemeyer, the "good man," turned out to be "a bad man." He put at the head of the police force an old fellow who had commanded it twenty years ago in its early and worst days, and had been out of the service seventeen years, which he had passed as editor and publisher of an obscene newspaper, and into the commissionerships he put politicians of the lowest order, notorious for trickery and corruption, on one of whom, since dead, even graver charges were resting. The public indignation was very great, but he only laughed over it. When a vacancy occurred in the same board he filled it with a very young and unknown man, who had by some means won his favor, and whom he found acting as editor in the office of the city official paper. The indignation

over this was greater than ever, but the Mayor laughed all the more, and his laughter was all the louder because the Republican politicians, having come to the conclusion, after his first exploits, that they could trust him, had gone up to Albany to get the charter so altered as to give him the sole power of appointment in the case of the police commissioners. Two of these commissioners, the survivors of the original batch, have been recently tried and convicted for violation of the election law in removing inspectors of election without notice on election day. They resigned promptly, to avoid removal by the Governor, but the Mayor immediately replaced them by appointing each to the other's place. When remonstrated with, he laughed heartily; and a movement is now on foot to secure the removal of the humorous old gentleman himself by the Governor.

The effect of all this, and indeed of the municipal history of the last two years, has been to produce great apathy and hopelessness even among those who were foremost in 1870 in the work of reform. The men who are most prominent now in seeking to bring Mayor Havemeyer and his police commissioners to justice, are not reformers in any proper sense of the word. They are Tammany politicians, who would, if they got the chance, do what Havemeyer has been doing, and whose main reason for pursuing him is that his course has resulted in damage to themselves. The reformers are weary and disgusted. Apparently, all that has been gained by the reform movement is the suppression of vulgar theft from the municipal treasury. Apart from this, the only visible change, they say, is the substitution of one set of intriguers for another. No new principle of government has obtained recognition in legislation, nor has any new influence been brought to bear in favor of greater decency or purity in the municipal arena. New charters are apparently of no use, because the Republican ringleaders go up to Albany and get them tinkered or altered from time to time to suit their own purposes. There is no use in "electing good men to office," because if there was ever a man whose life seemed to offer guarantees for goodness it was Mr. Havemeyer, and yet he was no sooner elected than he became rampantly bad. If ever there was a movement towards reform which seemed irresistible and likely to prove thorough, it was that of 1870, and what result has it left which is likely to prove permanent?

This gloomy view has a good deal of foundation, but not nearly enough to justify it. The failure of the attempt at reform, so far as the charter is concerned, is something for which both the cause and the remedy must be sought in Federal politics. The performances of Murphy, Bliss, Davenport & Co. in this city during the last three years are the direct consequence of the practice of making the custom-house and the marshal's and district-attorney's offices the headquarters of party propagandism, and the instruments solely of Federal interference in local politics. It is not to be supposed that we are about to witness the immediate or even the early disappearance of this; but a step in the right direction, and one which promises the diminution of its power of mischief, has unquestionably been taken by the abolition of the moiety system. It was what fed the activity of the local Federal politicians, and made them as formidable as they have been in local contests. But the evil will not be wholly removed without a real reform in civil service. This and this only would make the appointment of such persons as Mr. George Bliss of this city, and Mr. Simmons of Boston, impossible. Mayor Havemeyer's follies and eccentricities are perhaps partly attributable to the effects of age on a nature originally both coarse and unscrupulous, but whatever their origin they prove nothing against the principle of concentrating responsibility, as far as possible, in the hands of the Mayor. Nobody who advocated that course when the charter was under discussion two years ago, pretended that persons who were thus charged with great powers would never abuse them. What they said was that if they were abused, we should know whom to blame and whom to punish, which under the old system was well-nigh impossible. The Mayor's recent appointments are bad enough in all conscience, but everybody knows that he and nobody else made them. All the public indignation is therefore concentrated on him, and the remedy is tolerably clear. Nor need we feel at all disheartened by the way in which his antecedents have deceived us. Psychological or physiological—we do not well know which it is—phenomena such as he are certainly rare, but they occur; and all that his case proves is the uncertainty of even the best men. Against his example, Governor Dix, who was elected about the same time and under the same influences, may certainly be set off, and more than repair any damage which Mayor Havemeyer's conduct has done to the plan of increasing the power of the executive. A more independent governor, or one who has more ably discharged the duties of his office with less of fear and less of favor, has not appeared in this State for many a day. In judging Havemeyer, too, it is well to bear in mind that the spirit of contempt for public opinion, and the disposition to treat the offices in his gift as his personal perquisite, to be bestowed just as he pleases, are a legacy left us by the war, which have been as fully displayed in the White House as at the City Hall, and of which it will take years of stern repression to rid us. It is right to add, also, that considerable danger from this quarter will always have to be guarded against in any system of government in which great power and responsibility are lodged in the hands of a single man, and great importance is attached to his taking office. There is enough conceit excited by such a mark of confidence to turn the head of any one who is not restrained by deep-seated political habits and a powerful public opinion.

PAPER MONEY AND SPECIE PAYMENTS IN FRANCE.

PARIS, June 19.

IT has often puzzled me to find an explanation for the extraordinary fact that France, after paying a gigantic ransom and incurring enormous expenses, has not suffered in the same degree as the United States from a system of forced paper currency. The premium on gold never rose very high, and it can be said that at the present moment gold and paper are at par in France, while in America, nearly ten years after the victories of the Union, the premium on gold is still very high.

I have been conversing with eminent financiers on this subject, and the lessons of the last year in France and in Europe may be not without their utility for the United States. This is, I am assured, in all probability, the manner in which the payment of the five milliards of francs has been made to Germany: one milliard only was paid in specie; one milliard was paid with merchandise, in the form of paper on all the great commercial centres in Europe; one milliard in French rentes, which were subscribed by England and Germany at the time of our great war loan; and two milliards were paid with various shares of all countries, which had been bought by the French people before the war. There was a great outcry at the close of the Empire against these foreign investments, but they proved very useful in the end; they served as a mode of exchange with London, Frankfort, and Berlin. Five milliards in value were subtracted from France; how were they replaced? The three milliards of commercial paper or foreign stocks were replaced by French rentes; and it may be said that the exchangeable capital in France has increased rather than decreased, as the loans have amounted in all to seven milliards. The circulating medium before the war was a sum of 1,500 millions in gold; now we have 2,500 millions of notes of the Bank of France. The French rente was issued at the price of 80 and is now worth about 95 francs; the public has, therefore, gained a sum of 900,000,000. Where is really the dark side of this picture is in the addition of 600,000,000 to our yearly budget. The exchangeable capital has become larger, but new taxes have become necessary to the amount of 600,000,000. France, considered as one single capitalist, has borrowed money and seems richer for it, but has to pay an interest of 20 per cent. or 30 per cent. for the addition to her exchangeable capital.

Let us look now at Germany. What has become of our five milliards? 1,500,000,000 have served for the payment of expenses already made; three milliards have been used for the sinking of the debt. The German budget has become lighter in consequence, and 175,000,000 are gained every year. But if the state became prosperous, individuals did not feel at once the benefit of the sinking of the debt; the holders of the national stock were reimbursed to the extent of three milliards, and they had to ask themselves, What shall we do with the money? Well, the money was not well spent; the nation lost its judgment. New banks, new railways, new companies created paper to the amount of seven milliards (while three milliards only were in reality available), and a tremendous crisis was the consequence of

the speculative fever. Many of the new companies lost 50 per cent. of their capital. How did this situation affect the value of gold in the various parts of Europe? The interest on gold fell everywhere—in Germany, in America, in England, while in France it could not fall under 6 per cent. so long as the national loan was issued, which gave this interest to all the subscribers. It happened in consequence that France became a centre of attraction for gold, especially when capital began to avoid the speculative markets of Germany. It so happened that silver and gold began to flow back to the vaults of the Bank of France, which contain now more than a milliard in specie. Under such circumstances, there can be no premium on gold in France, and, apparently, there ought to be no difficulty in the resumption of specie payments. Resumption would bring back even more gold to France—for this reason: As long as we are under the régime of paper money all international transactions must take place in pounds sterling, as the foreign banker or merchant is not willing to add to his risks those which might arise from a variation of exchange. This state of things obliges all the great banks and all the merchants to have a supply of gold in London, which has become a sort of clearing-house for all the affairs of Europe; and this necessity would cease if we resumed specie payments. The same is evidently true for America, and the American supply of gold in the city is probably much larger than the French supply.

I come now to a most difficult question, which I can only treat with much diffidence. How would the resumption of specie payments affect the circulation in France? The Bank has now 2,500,000,000 of bills in circulation, the circulation of bills having been increased by one milliard since 1870. The augmentation in the circulation has been chiefly in small denominations; the bills of 5, 20, 25 amount at present to 800,000,000; but the bills of five francs are rapidly destroyed even now by the Bank as fast as they come in, and replaced by bills of 20 francs. The bills will not come back all at once, and it is probable that the sum total will only fall to the amount of 200,000,000 or 150,000,000, which can be replaced by five-franc pieces, of which there is a great abundance. At the very worst, the public can only in the year 1874 ask 300,000,000 or 400,000,000 from the Bank. The Government is bound to repay 200,000,000 to the Bank yearly till the loan made to the Government of National Defence is completely repaid. Besides, the Bank, having a very large supply of silver and gold, can easily exchange 150,000,000 of small notes against specie; and if it became necessary, the Bank could realize half of the enormous capital which it holds in French rentes. The resources of the Bank are therefore very large; they are the reimbursements of the state, the superabundance of silver in its vaults, and, thirdly, its capital of 200,000,000 in French rentes. With these means it seems as if the Bank could face all difficulties. The resumption of specie payments four years after the war, and one year after the payment of the last milliard of our ransom, would be a great moral and financial victory for France. From a purely financial point of view no objections can be made against this measure. It is, perhaps, not unobjectionable from other points of view.

The facility which France has shown in fulfilling her financial engagements has excited the jealousy of Germany, all the more that the sudden influx of the French milliards on her own soil produced a momentary financial crisis, as a consequence of the overheated speculative hopes of the country. It would be as foolish to say that Germany has been impoverished by the war as to say that France has been enriched. In point of fact, a burden of 600,000,000 has been added to the French yearly expenses, and as much as 175,000,000 has been taken off the shoulders of Prussia. In the long run, the state and the individuals who compose the state have the same interests, and are subject to the same fortunes; but during a short period of time it may sometimes appear that the state has become poorer while the individual has become richer, and *vice versa*. This is the case now in France; there is as much show of wealth, more gambling, more superficial prosperity than ever; the paper money helps to create the illusion; the paper notes circulate more rapidly than the heavy silver pieces. But is the nation richer? No, indeed; it is poorer to the amount of the capital which the war has destroyed, and especially to the amount of capital which Alsace and the annexed part of Lorraine represent; and this last amount is almost stupendous, if we take in all the elements of wealth of Alsace in natural products and in men. France must be taught that she is poorer; otherwise she will persuade herself that even defeat has no dangers for her, that she is like the phœnix of the fable. And what can teach her better that she is not what she was than paper money and a forced currency? Where can the pinch be better felt? To be sure, there is no premium on gold; but still every peasant understands that the Bank for the last three years has been unable to pay its bills in specie, that we have been living on the credit which we have given to ourselves; and this knowledge acts like a refrigerant on the minds of all thinking men.

It is well understood here that Germany regrets not having imposed a heavier fine on France. Germany sees only the surface of things; she does not perceive all the sufferings, the miseries which are felt now among all classes, especially among the commercial classes of the towns; she has only heard the boasts of M. Thiers, and she may believe that we do not really suffer. The resumption of specie payments would accredit this opinion; and there would perhaps be a positive danger for France in the conviction that France has hardly been made poorer by the war.

In America such reasons cannot be given. America has not been conquered; the Union has lost no provinces. To be sure, new taxes have been necessary in order to pay the interest on the debt, but the Union has a commanding position, it need fear the jealousy of no neighbor; large silver mines have been opened in various parts of your continent; California, Colorado, and Nevada are as good as the vaults of the Bank of France, filled with silver and with gold pieces; and if the perspective of the resumption of specie payments seems in your country like a fleeting dream, it must be the fault of your economists and statesmen. Such at least is the conviction of all economists on this side of the Atlantic. I am a very indifferent judge myself in such matters. I belong to no sect of political economy, but it has always puzzled me to find so much political experience and sagacity in the United States, and at the same time so little disposition to follow the lessons of experience in matters of finance. I am convinced that the policy of free-trade could not be well applied to a country where industry is not yet organized; but the policy of protection of national labor can only be well defended on the plea that the country must have its own supply of capital; and a perpetual forced currency would tend to prove that this object had not been attained. I speak, however, with the greatest diffidence on these difficult subjects. I have only attempted to prove in this letter that in France, at least, the forced currency has ceased to be a necessity.

RAVENNA.

RAVENNA, June 8.

I WRITE these lines on a cold Swiss mountain-top, shut in by an intense white mist from any glimpse of the under-world of lovely Italy; but as I jotted down the other day, in the ancient capital of Honorius and Theodoric, the few notes of which they are composed, I let the original date stand for local color's sake. Its mere look, as I transcribe it, emits a grateful glow in the midst of the Alpine rawness, and gives a depressed imagination something tangible to grasp while awaiting the return of fine weather. For Ravenna was glowing, less than a week since, as I edged along the narrow strip of shadow binding one side of the empty, white streets. After a long, chilly spring, the summer this year descended upon Italy with a sudden jump and a terrible vehemence of purpose. I stole away from Florence in the night, and even on top of the Apennines, under the dull starlight and in the rushing train, one could but sit and pant perspiringly. At Bologna I found a festa, or rather two festas, a civil and a religious, going on in mutual mistrust and disparagement. The civil one was the now legal Italian holiday of the Statuto; the religious, a jubilee of certain local churches. The latter is observed by the Bolognese parishes in couples, and comes round for each couple but once in ten years—an arrangement by which the faithful at large ensure themselves a liberal recurrence of expensive processions. It was not my business to distinguish the sheep from the goats, the prayers from the scoffers; it was enough that, melting together under the scorching sun, they made the picturesque city doubly picturesque. The combination at one point was really dramatic. While a long procession of priests and young virgins in white veils bearing tapers was being organized in one of the streets, a review of the King's troops was going on outside of the town. On its return, a large detachment of cavalry passed across the space where the incense was burning, the pictured banners swaying, and the litany being droned, and checked the advance of the little ecclesiastical troop. The long vista of the street, between the porticoes, was festooned with garlands and scarlet and tinsel; the robes and crosses and canopies of the priests, the clouds of perfumed smoke, and the white veils of the maidens, were resolved by the hot, bright air into a gorgeous medley of colors, across which the mounted soldiers went rattling and flashing like a conquering army trampling over an embassy of propitiation. It was, to tell the truth, the first time an Italian festa had worn to my eyes that warmth of coloring, that pictorial confusion, which tradition promises; and I confess that my eyes found more pleasure in it than they found an hour later in those masterpieces of the Bolognese school which hang in the Pinacotheca.

For Ravenna, however, I had nothing but smiles—grave, philosophic smiles, such as accord with the tranquil, melancholy interest of the place. I arrived there in the evening, before, even at drowsy Ravenna, the festa of the Statuto had altogether put itself to bed. I immediately strolled

forth from the inn, and found it sitting up a while longer on the piazza, chiefly at the café door, listening to the band of the garrison by the light of a dozen or so of feeble tapers, fastened along the front of the palace of the Government. Before long, however, it had dispersed and departed, and I was left alone with the grey illumination and with an affable citizen, whose testimony as to the manners and customs of Ravenna I had aspired to obtain. I had already observed to sufficient purpose to borrow confidence to suggest deferentially that it was not the liveliest place in the world, and my friend admitted that in fact it was a trifle sluggish. But had I seen the Corso? Without seeing the Corso it was unfair to conclude against Ravenna. The Corso of Ravenna, of a hot summer night, had an air of surprising seclusion and repose. Here and there in an upper, closed window glimmered a light; my companion's footsteps and my own were the only sounds; not a creature was within sight. The suffocating atmosphere helped me to believe for a moment that I was walking in the Italy of Boccaccio, hand-in-hand with the plague, through a city which had lost half its population by pestilence and the other half by flight. I turned back into my inn, profoundly satisfied. This at last was old-world dulness of a prime distillation; this at last was antiquity, history, repose.

This impression was largely confirmed and enriched on the following day; but it was obliged, at an early stage of my explorations, to give precedence to another—the lively realization, namely, of my imperfect acquaintance with Gibbon and other cognate authorities. At Ravenna, the waiter at the café and the coachman who drives you to the Pine-Forest allude to Galla Placidia and Justinian as to any attractive topic of the hour; wherever you turn you encounter some peremptory challenge to your accomplishments in chronology. For myself, I could only attune my intellect vaguely to the intensely historical character of the place—I could only feel that I was breathing an atmosphere of records and relics. I conned my guide-book and looked up at the great mosaics, and then fumbled at poor Murray again for some intenser light on the court of Justinian; but I can imagine that to a visitor more intimate with the originals of the various great almond-eyed mosaic portraits in the vaults of the churches, these extremely curious works of art may have a really formidable interest. I found Ravenna looking by daylight like a vast, straggling, depopulated village. The streets with hardly an exception are grass-grown, and though I walked about all day I failed to perceive a single wheeled vehicle. I remember no shop but the little establishment of an urbane photographer, whose views of the Pine-Forest gave me an irresistible desire to transport myself thither. There is no architecture to speak of, and though there are a great many large domiciles with aristocratic names, they stand cracking and baking in the sun in no very comfortable fashion. The houses for the most part have a half-rustic look; they are low and meagre and shabby and interspersed with high garden walls, over which the long arms of tangled vines hang motionless into the stagnant streets. Here and there in all this dreariness, in some particularly silent and grassy corner, rises an old brick church with a façade more or less spoiled by cheap modernization, and a strange cylindrical campanile, pierced with small arched windows and extremely suggestive of the fifth century. These churches constitute the palpable interest of Ravenna, and their own principal interest, after thirteen centuries of well-intentioned spoliation, resides in their unequalled collection of early Christian mosaics. It is in a certain sense a curiously simple interest, and it leads one's reflections along a narrow and definite channel. There are older churches in Rome, and churches which, looked at as museums, are more variously and richly entertaining; but in Rome you stumble at every step upon some curious pagan memorial, often beautiful enough to lead your thoughts wandering far from the primitive rigidities of the Christian faith.

Ravenna, on the other hand, began with the church, and all its monuments and relics are harmoniously rigid. By the middle of the first century it possessed an exemplary saint—Apollinaris, a disciple of Peter—to whom its two finest churches are dedicated. It was to one of these, jocosely entitled the "new" one, that I first directed my steps. I lingered outside a while and looked at the great red, barrel-shaped bell-towers, so rusty, so crumbling, so archaic, and yet so resolute to ring in another century or two, and then went in to the coolness, the shining marble columns, the queer old sculptured slabs and sarcophagi, and the long mosaics, scintillating under the roof, along the wall of the nave. San Apollinare Nuovo, like most of its companions, is a magazine of early Christian odds and ends; of fragments of yellow marble encrusted with quaint sculptured emblems of primitive dogma; great rough troughs, containing the bones of old bishops; episcopal chairs with the marble worn narrow with centuries of pressure from the solid episcopal person; slabs from the fronts of old pulpits, covered with carven hieroglyphics of an almost Egyptian abstruseness—lambs, and stags, and fishes, and beasts of theological affinities even less apparent. Upon all these strange things the strange figures in the great mosaic panorama look down, with colored cheeks and staring eyes, life-like enough to speak to you and answer your wonderment, and tell you in bad Latin of the decadence that it was in such and such a fashion they believed and worshipped. First, on each side, near the door, are houses and ships and various old landmarks of Ravenna; then begins a long procession, on one side, of twenty-two white-robed virgins and three obsequious magi, terminating in a throne bearing the Madonna and Child, surrounded by four angels; on the other side, of an equal number of male saints (twenty-five, that is) holding crowns in their hands and leading to the Saviour, enthroned between angels of singular expressiveness. What it is these long, slim seraphs express I cannot quite say, but they have an odd, knowing, sidelong look out of the narrow ovals of their eyes which, though not without sweetness, would certainly make me feel like murmuring a defensive prayer or so if I were to find myself alone in the church toward dusk. All this work is of the latter part of the sixth century and brilliantly preserved. The gold backgrounds twinkle as if they had been inserted yesterday, and here and there a figure is executed almost too much in the modern manner to be interesting; for the charm of mosaic work is, to my sense, confined altogether to the infancy of the art. The great Christ, in the series of which I speak, is quite an elaborate picture, and yet he retains enough of the orthodox stiffness to make him impressive in the simpler, elder sense. He is clad in a purple robe, like an emperor, his hair and beard are artfully curled, his eyebrows arched, his complexion brilliant, his whole aspect such a one as the popular mind may have attributed to Honorius or Valentinian. It is all very Byzantine, and yet I found in it much of that interest which is inseparable, to a facile imagination, from all early representations of the Saviour. Practically, they are no more authentic than the more or less plausible inventions of Ary Scheffer and Holman Hunt; but they borrow a certain value, factitious perhaps but irresistible, from the mere fact that they are twelve or thirteen centuries less distant from the original. It is something that this is the way people in the sixth century imagined Jesus to have looked; the image is by so much the less complex. The great purple-robed monarch on the wall at Ravenna is at least a very potent and positive Christ, and the only objection I have to make to him is that, though in this character he must have had a full apportionment of divine foreknowledge, he betrays no apprehension of Dr. Channing and M. Renan. If one's preference lies, for distinctness' sake, between the old narrowness and the modern complexity, one must admit that the narrowness here has a very grand outline.

I spent the rest of the morning in picturesque transition between the hot, yellow streets and the cool, grey interiors of the churches. The greyness everywhere was lighted up by the scintillation, on vault and entablature, of mosaics more or less archaic, but always brilliant and elaborate, and everywhere, too, by the same keen wonderment that, while centuries had worn themselves away and empires risen and fallen, these little cubes of colored glass had stuck in their allotted places and kept their freshness. I have no space to enumerate the Ravennese churches one by one, and, to tell the truth, my memory of them has already become a sort of hazy confusion and formless meditation. The total aspect of Ravenna, its sepulchral stillness, its absorbing perfume of evanescence and decay and mortality, confounds the distinctions and blurs the details. The cathedral, which is very vast and high, has been excessively modernized, and was being still more so by a lavish application of tinsel and cotton-velvet in preparation for the centenary feast of St. Apollinaris, which befalls next month. Things on this occasion are to be done handsomely, and a fair Ravennese informed me that a single family had contributed three thousand francs towards a month's vesper-music. It seemed to me hereupon that I should like in the August twilight to wander into the quiet nave of San Apollinare, and look up at the great mosaics through the resonance of some fine chanting. I remember distinctly enough, however, the tall basilica of San Vitale, of octagonal shape, like an exchange or a custom-house—modelled, I believe, upon St. Sophia at Constantinople. It is very lofty, very solemn, and, as to the choir, densely pictured over on arch and apse with mosaics of the time of Justinian. These are regular pictures, full of movement, gesture, and perspective, and just enough sobered in hue by time to look historic and venerable. In the middle of the church, under the great dome, sat an artist whom I envied, making at an effective angle a picture of the choir and its broken lights, its decorated altar, and its encrusted, twinkling walls. The picture, when it is finished, will hang, I suppose, on the library wall of some person of taste; but even if it is much better than is probable (I didn't look at it), all his taste will not tell the owner, unless he has been there, in just what a soundless, mouldering, out-of-the-way corner of old Italy it was painted. An even better place for an artist fond of dusky architectural works, except that here the dusk is excessive and he would hardly

be able to tell his green from his red, is the extraordinary little church of the Santi Nazaro e Celso, otherwise known as the mausoleum of Galla Placidia. This, perhaps, on the whole, is the most impressive and picturesque spot in Ravenna. It consists of a sort of narrow, low-browed cave, shaped like a Latin cross, every inch of which, except the floor, is covered with dense symbolic mosaics. Before you and on each side, through the thick, brown light, loom three enormous barbaric sarcophagi, containing the remains of potentates of the Lower Empire. It is as if history had burrowed under ground to escape from research, and you had fairly run it to earth. On the right lie the ashes of the Emperor Honorius, and in the middle those of his sister, Galla Placidia, a lady who I believe had great adventures. On the other side rest the bones of Constantius III. The place is like a little natural grotto lined with glimmering mineral substances, and there is something quite tremendous in being shut up so closely with these three imperial ghosts. The shadow of the great Roman name seems to tread upon the huge sepulchres and abide for ever within the narrow walls.

But there are other memories attached to Ravenna beside those of primitive bishops and degenerate emperors. Byron lived here and Dante died here, and the tomb of the one poet and the dwelling of the other are among the regular objects of interest. The grave of Dante, it must be said, is anything but Dantesque, and the whole precinct is disposed with that curious vulgarity of taste which distinguishes most modern Italian tributes to greatness. Dante memorialized in stucco, even in a slumbering corner of Ravenna, is not a satisfactory spectacle. Fortunately, of all poets he least needs a monument, as he was pre-eminently an architect in diction, and built himself his memorial in verses more solid than Cyclopean blocks. If Dante's tomb is not Dantesque, neither is Byron's house Byronic, being a homely, shabby, two-storied dwelling, directly on the street, with as little as possible of isolation and mystery. In Byron's time it was an inn, and it is rather a curious reflection that 'Cain' and the 'Vision of Judgment' should have been written at a hotel. Here is a commanding precedent as to self-abstraction for tourists who are at once sentimental and literary. I must declare, indeed, that my acquaintance with Ravenna considerably increased my esteem for Byron and helped to renew my faith in the sincerity of his inspiration. A man so much *de son temps* as Byron was, can have spent two long years in this profoundly stagnant city only by the help of taking a great deal of disinterested pleasure in his own genius. He had indeed a notable pastime (the various churches, by the way, are adorned with monuments of ancestral Guicciolis); but it is none the less obvious that Ravenna, fifty years ago, would have been an intolerably dull residence to a foreigner of distinction unprovided with a real intellectual passion. The hour one spends with Byron's memory, then, is a charitable one. After all, one says to one's self, as one turns away from the grandiloquent little slab in the front of his house and looks down the deadly provincial vista of the empty, sunny street, the author of so many superb stanzas asked less from the world than he gave to it. One of his diversions was to ride in the Pineta, which, beginning a couple of miles from the city, extends for some twenty-five miles along the sands of the Adriatic. I drove out to it for Byron's sake, and Dante's, and Boccaccio's, all of whom have interwoven it with their fictions, and for that of a possible whiff of coolness from the sea. Between the city and the forest, in the midst of malarious rice-swamps, stands the finest of the Ravenna churches, the stately temple of San Apollinare in Classe. The Emperor Augustus constructed hereabouts a harbor for fleets, which the ages have choked up, and which survives only in the title of this ancient church. Its extreme loneliness makes it doubly impressive. They opened the great doors for me, and let a shaft of heated air go wander up the beautiful nave, between the twenty-four lustrous, pearly columns of *cipollini* marble, and mount the wide staircase of the choir, and spend itself beneath the mosaics of the vault. I passed a delicious half-hour sitting there in this wave of tempered light, looking down the cool, grey avenue of the nave, out of the open door at the vivid green swamps, listening to the melancholy stillness. I rambled for an hour in the Pineta, between the tall, smooth, silvery stems of the pines, beside a creek which led me to the outer edge of the wood and a view of white sails, gleaming and gliding behind the sand-hills. It was infinitely picturesque; but, as the trees stand at wide intervals, and bear far aloft in the blue air but a little parasol of foliage, I suppose that, of a glaring summer day, the forest was only the more Italian for being perfectly shadeless.

Correspondence.

THE "LEADEN STATUARY."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: While it is matter of rejoicing to the numerous friends and well-wishers of Phelps, Dodge & Co. that the firm is able to spread before the public so conclusive a refutation of the slanders of Butler as you publish in the *Nation* of July 2, it is to be regretted, in relation to charge No. 1 (about the metal statuary), that the reply contains something that will strike many as an evasion of the essential point.

What the public wants to know is, whether any of the gentlemen that now compose the firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. have, at any time, cheated, or sought to cheat, the Government by means of that statuary fraud.

The published statement of the firm admits, by implication, that the thing was done by somebody. It says, indeed, the importations "*were made.*" But when? and by whom? The answer is, "Before *the firm* came into existence." Very good, but the gentlemen themselves whose conduct is now the subject of discussion—were *they* in existence? and did they, or any of them, have any part in this fraud? To say that the senior member of the firm was, "at the time, engaged in the dry-goods business," is such a reply—with all respect and deference be it said—as a smuggler of silks and brandies at Black Rock might make. "Smuggling, indeed! Why, bless your honor's heart, I was in the passenger business, and was, 'at the very time specified,' *running a ferry-boat.*"

William Waith.

Lancaster, N. Y.

[It is melancholy to have this story coming up again after all that has been written about it. Mr. David A. Wells told "the true story of the leaden statuary" in a most entertaining and instructive letter to the New York *World* of May 11. No member of the present firm of Phelps, Dodge & Co. had anything whatever to do, directly or indirectly, with the importation of the leaden statuary, which occurred as long ago as 1828, and not one of them was in the metal business at that time. Moreover, the predecessors of the present firm, Phelps & Peck, had nothing to do with it either, though they were then extensive importers of lead. The story, as far as both are concerned, is a myth without any foundation whatever, but which has been circulating through the country for years, both as a capital joke and as a remarkable example of human depravity. We may give the finishing-touch to it by saying that, as Mr. Wells shows, the men who did import the lead in statues did nothing wrong and nothing clandestine. They imported it openly, and under a defective clause in the tariff, which was only one of several; and imported it not in New York, but Boston; and their right to do so was tried in the United States District Court, Daniel Webster appearing for the defence, and the judge instructed the jury to find for the importer, which they did, and there the matter ended. That so despicable and base a man as Butler should have the power to convert the House of Representatives for long hours into an audience for his slanderous vituperation, is one of those facts which ought to set people blushing instead of investigating. —Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

J. W. Bouton will shortly begin issuing, in ten parts, at $2 50 each, Mr. Geo. H. Felt's 'Kaballah of the Egyptians and the Greek Canon of Proportion.' We have once or twice spoken of this work at some length, and will only append here the rest of the title: "the normal law of being and of beauty applied to art, sculpture, architecture, symbolism, language, natural law, and science, and the deciphering of the hidden meaning of the sculptured and written Egyptian and Hebraic religious records." The size of the book will be 4to, pp. c40, and it will contain more than a thousand illustrations.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce as in press a work on the 'Recent Origin of Man,' by James C. Southall.——In No. 6 of Trübner & Co.'s 'Catalogue of Choice, Rare, and Curious Books' will be found a very select and catholic list of works of the above description pertaining to the "science of religion," from Catlin's 'O-Kee-Pa' to the Zend-Avesta, or from Bleek's 'Hottentot Fables' to Dupuis's 'Origine de tous les Cultes.' The Catalogue contains also, under Americana, a number of distinctively religious works, including a Roger Williams rarity of 1644 ('Mr. Cotton's Letter lately printed, examined, and answered'), for which $225 is asked. ——Besides the honor paid to Prof. Lowell by Cambridge University, England, of which we lately made mention, the same degree (LL.D.), the highest in its gift, has been bestowed on Mr. Robert C. Winthrop, of Boston, whose ancestor was a member of Magdalen College, Oxford. The University also voted a D.C.L. to Mr. David A. Wells, a high and well-won honor, the for-

mal bestowal of which this year was only prevented by his absence from England. He will doubtless go over next year to receive it.

—In Part ii. of Vol. XII. of the 'Essex Institute Historical Collections,' an interesting account is given of the voyages of the *Mary and Ellen* and *Eliza* from Salem to California in 1848–9. These were the first two vessels which sailed direct from Massachusetts to San Francisco with an assorted cargo and passengers, in consequence of the news of the gold discoveries on the Pacific Coast. The former was 152, the latter 160, days in the passage, and those who came out in them were greatly surprised a year later at the arrival of two small clipper tea-ships, with assorted cargoes from New York, in a little over 100 days. By January 1, 1851, Flint, Peabody & Co. had ready the first clipper-ship built expressly for the California trade, called the *John Bertram*, after their eminent associate of that name, and then followed the *Witch of the Wave* and the long line of clippers famous for their quick trips to California and the East Indies. The *John Bertram* carried as part of her cargo ten thousand dozens of eggs, put up in tins, which brought $10,000, as well they might in a country where eggs in 1849 cost two dollars per dozen, milk the same per gallon, and a squash the same, so that a batch of "home-made" Yankee pies was a luxury to be indulged in only at rare intervals. Not every venture in those days was certain of returning a profit. Mr. Peabody tells of seeing in one of the worst crossings in San Francisco some half-dozen or more boxes of tobacco, of a hundred and twenty pounds weight, together with barrels of spoiled provisions; and, as stepping-stones generally, the gold-washers "which came out in almost every vessel, and were of no value." His firm sent out to their farm a large number of fruit-trees of the choicest varieties, "but when they came into bearing, so many others had done the same thing that fruit could not be marketed to pay expenses." The ice-trade established in 1853 by Mr. Bertram and others with Flint, Peabody & Co. was finally given up on account of the competition from Sitka. Since 1854 there has been a steady falling-off in the quantity of goods shipped to California from the East, owing to the growth of native products, and in 1873 but two ships loaded in Boston for San Francisco. The *Eliza* was the first vessel of her draft that ever went up the river to Sacramento. She never came down, being used, till sold and broken up in 1868, as a store, store-house, boarding-house, and later for years as a landing for steamers. As she was built at Salem in 1822, she had lasted forty-six years. The *John Bertram*, built as we have said in 1851, is still running, we believe from this port, and is doubtless good for another score of years at least, the "life" of a ship being much like that of a tree—of indefinite duration, subject to accident and decay. One of the ships built in New Bedford by the father of the late Henry Grinnell, and always owned and run by that family, was sixty-one years of age when destroyed by the Confederate cruiser *Shenandoah*.

—The seventh annual report of the trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology consists chiefly of the report of the curator, Dr. Jeffries Wyman. It closes with an interesting discussion of the evidences of cannibalism among the American aborigines furnished by human remains discovered in the shell-heaps of the St. John's River, East Florida. Dr. Wyman enumerates ten instances in which such remains were found, mostly from one to two feet below the surface, under the following general conditions: They were not the result of burial; they were widely scattered about, so that the complete skeleton could seldom be found, and in one case the cranium was wholly missing; they were systematically broken, the skulls into a great number of fragments, the arm and leg bones in the same manner as were those of edible animals like the deer, alligator, etc.; they often showed the marks of a cutting-instrument, but gave no evidence of having been broken or gnawed by dogs or wild beasts; "the fractures as well as the disorder in which the bones were found evidently existed at the time they were covered up, as is shown by the condition of the broken ends, which had the same discoloration as the natural surfaces." The discoveries were made by chance, without special indications before searching, and the probability is that many more such remains have escaped the light. In most of the cases cited by Dr. Wyman a single skeleton was found; but the oldest remains, from the Osceola Mound, belonged to two skeletons easily distinguishable in parts. As for the age of the victims: on Huntoon Island, near the creek of the same name, the bones were of an adult dwarf, about three and a half feet high; in one of the conical mounds hitherto supposed to be burial-places, they were of a young person. All these circumstances point strongly if not irresistibly to cannibalism, and Dr. Wyman corroborates this inference by citing a number of authorities in regard to the early practice of cannibalism on both the American continents. After mentioning the Caribs as the tribe that had the greatest fondness for human flesh, he says: "It was also practised among the Iroquois, Algonquins, Mamis, and Kickapoos; it existed in Louisiana, Illinois, and on the northwest coast"; and he quotes from the Jesuit 'Relations' some of the truly fiendish atrocities which preceded the feast of the enemy taken in war. We presume he might have affirmed with safety that cannibalism is still indulged in by certain of our tribes, at least towards their enemies. In Vol. IV. of the *Nation*, p. 300, convincing proof was adduced that the Tonkawas and Comanches of Texas were, even down to that date (1867), in the habit of eating each other, and if they ever have the chance nowadays they doubtless may still do so. The Tonkawas, it should be observed, thought broiled Comanche a great delicacy, and Col. James Bowie, the inventor of the bowie-knife, who once partook of it on request, declared himself of the same opinion.

—The first volume of MM. Brachet and Paris's competent translation of Diez's 'Grammar of the Romance Languages' has appeared (8vo, pp. 476). The price is twelve francs. With the third volume is concluded M. Georges d'Heylli's 'Journal du Siége de Paris,' a compilation rich in materials, official and unofficial, and furnishing in the last of its appendixes an alphabetical list of works relating to the siege. Students of another period of history will find their profit in the forthcoming 'Bibliographie Générale des Gaules,' a work containing some nine thousand titles classified both alphabetically and methodically. M. Charles Emile Ruelle is the editor. Another Emile—the ex-minister Ollivier—has published his suppressed discourse on Lamartine, with a preface reviewing the incidents of the opposition to its public delivery before the Academy. In this preface, according to an unfriendly critic (*Polybiblion* for June), the pronoun of the first person occurs eighty-two times, an average of once every five lines or thirty-eight words; and this counting only the nominative case. But some other proof of egotism might be demanded in a case of strictly personal defence, in which, among other things, M. Ollivier's "cœur léger" had to be got over, and required no less than six pages. Two hundred and fifty Russian authors who have published their works in French alone are recorded in Gregory Ghennady's 'Ecrivains franco-russes,' a thinnish catalogue of less than a hundred pages. A work doubly illustrating the art preservative of arts, being valuable both for its instruction and for its elegant typography, is Théotiste Lefèvre's 'Printing Compositor's Practical Guide' (Guide pratique du compositeur d'imprimerie), in two volumes 8vo, of upwards of 700 pages. The price is 23 francs, which is probably less than would be asked for any translation of the work brought out in this country, although in a far less sumptuous style. Perhaps some of our publishers might think this worth attempting. It is a little surprising that there are, among the well-to-do, so few amateur printers, considering the opportunities afforded by this occupation for gratifying one's mechanical and æsthetic tastes at no great expense.

—To the *Mecklenburgische Zeitung* of May 10 Friedrich Latendorf contributes an interesting chapter on the initial devices in use among the princes and nobility of Germany towards the close of the sixteenth century. No clue has been found to many of these, and an endless field is opened up to those curious in such matters of research. The writer enumerates half a dozen authorities, new and old, from whom he has derived assistance, and he has added a large number of conjectures and positive interpretations of his own. We must content ourselves with selecting a very few samples from a very long list. The letter G stands in nearly every instance for the name of Deity, as in A. G. T. I. (*Auf Gott trau ich*—In God is my trust), or in the very favorite formula M. H. Z. G. (*Meine Hoffnung zu Gott*—My hope is in God)—both mottoes of the Dukes of Brunswick, 1590. A. I. G. H. (*Alles in Gottes Hand*—Everything is in God's hand): Bartolt von Mandelschlo, 1594. G. H. M. V. A. M. (*Gott helfe mir und allen meinigen*—God help me and all of mine): Werner von Bevessen, 1587. H. G. M. F. (*Herr Gott mich führ*—Lord God direct me): Wolff Marschalch, 1589. B. D. E. (*Bedenk das End*—Consider the end): Johan von Exterde, 1596. Rhyming mottoes were not infrequent; thus, omitting further mention of the bearers of them: I. W. G. V. (*Ich wags, Gott vermags*—I undertake, God avails), and the parallel one, I. W. G. W. (*Ich wags, Gott walts*); N (Z). G. V. E. S. M. B. (*Nach* or *Zu Gott und Ehren steht mein Begehren*—For God and honor is my desire); W. G. V. H. W. G. (*Wer Gott vertraut, hat wohl gebaut*—He builds well who puts his trust in God), of which the shorter form, G. V. W. G., also obtains. Resignation was expressed in mottoes like W. G. W. (*Wie* or *Was Gott will*—As God wills), otherwise H. W. D. W. (*Herr, wie Du willst*—Lord, as Thou wilt), and W. G. G. S. G. M. A. (*Wies Gott gefällt, so gefällt mirs auch*—God's pleasure is mine also). A few devices are alliterative, and these as often as not are found to be Latin, *e.g.*, D. D. D. (*Donum desuper datur*—Gifts come from above).

—R. Haym, whose article on 'Herder und die *Königsberger Zeitung*' we called attention to in No. 442, has carried his investigations into articles by Herder in this newspaper further in Nos. 11, 13, and 16 of *Im Neuen Reich*. None of these contributions is signed unmistakably by Herder; their

authorship has to be proved by comparison with his other writings; and they are not to be spoken of as giving valuable reflections that Herder's writings do not present elsewhere. They have, however, a certain biographical interest.—To No. 17 W. S. Teuffel, the last historian of Roman literature, contributes an article on 'Die horazische Lyrik und deren Kritik,' estimating the position of Horace as a poet rather from the English point of view—as a poet of varying worth of composition, though on the whole high—than after the German disintegrating method, which cuts out as ungenuine passages and poems that do not commend themselves to the critic's taste.

LORD DENMAN.*

LORD DENMAN was born in 1779 and died in 1850. By descent and by conviction, he belonged to the Whigs. He took part in the defeats, in the struggles, and in the ultimate triumph of his party. Both in his career and in his intellect and character he was a typical representative, and a very noble representative, of the great body of Liberals who, at the beginning of the century, commenced what then seemed a desperate battle on behalf of principles which are now accepted by every English statesman. It is this perfect identification between Lord Denman and the party to which he belonged which makes his life worth careful study. In him may be seen all the best points, and some of the weak ones, which distinguished the Whigs. The very fact that he was not, like Brougham, a man of marked individuality, makes him all the more correctly reflect the character of his associates and leaders. "The greatest of all political evils," he writes in 1832, "I have always thought was this: injustice, deliberately perpetrated or wilfully persisted in by the state. My own opinion has uniformly been that injustice and wrong, whenever detected, ought to be instantly swept away. Like everything that prevails, it will by degrees strengthen itself by inveterate habits and factitious interests, and even the disinterested will grow in time accustomed and indifferent. . . . Shake off the bad principle while you may, and scan not too nicely the inconveniences or even dangers which may result from the success of your exertions. Peel's bill on the currency, the Repeal Act, and Catholic Emancipation are examples of what I mean." These sentences strike the key-note of Denman's life. Whenever he met with a real or imagined abuse, he struck at it with all his force. Occasionally, no doubt, he gained popularity by his exertions—as, for example, when, throwing himself heart and soul into the defence of Queen Caroline, he described the Duke of Clarence as "the slanderer," and incurred the permanent enmity of George IV. by the application to that most contemptible sovereign of a classical quotation which appeared (though contrary to Denman's intention) to impute to the king vices of which even he was incapable. But on the whole, and this is a point which modern readers should constantly bear in mind, Denman's hatred of injustice delayed his success, and might, for all he knew, have proved fatal to it. And what is true of Denman is true of his party. It is easy now to underrate the sacrifices made by the Liberal Opposition at the time when Toryism was triumphant; but no impartial judge can doubt either that the Whigs were actuated in the main by a sincere hatred of patent abuses, or that both they themselves and their opponents thought that their efforts in favor of practical reforms might end in failure and in their own political ruin. Denman's creed, as enumerated in the letter we have cited, is very characteristic both of the writer and of the Whigs in other respects than in the honest zeal which it discovers for the promotion of justice. It makes perfectly clear that Denman, though described by a poetical friend as a "dear lawless democrat with awful brow," never was either lawless or, in the modern sense of the word, a "democrat." He obviously considers that no man of sense could be a republican, and expresses a conviction that it was absolutely impossible that Romilly should ever have been a "bigoted republican," because "the universal estimate of Romilly's fine understanding would be greatly depreciated by the fact being so." To this may be added that he, in common with his associates, while hating what seemed to him practical abuses, exhibited little enthusiasm for speculative or theoretical reform.

This absence of a complete theory of politics, whether it be looked upon as a merit or a defect, is pre-eminently a Whig trait, and curiously divides men like Denman from the disciples of Bentham or James Mill. Even at the time when Denman and his party appeared, from the mere fact of being in hopeless opposition to the ruling powers of the day, to be most like democrats, you will not find a trace in them either of that intellectual enthusiasm for a political theory which marks the Benthamites, or of that democratic fervor which is characteristic both of the French revolutionists and of all persons who have been influenced by revolutionary sentiment. In another respect, Denman curiously represents the spirit of a generation which has now all but passed away. At every crisis of his life you see traces of that unconquerable happiness of disposition which, combined with his zeal for justice, gave, we suspect, that peculiar charm to his character which gained for him almost universal affection. Now, this happiness of disposition always must be to a great extent an individual gift; but any reader of biography will conclude that a certain buoyant cheerfulness was a marked characteristic of the men with whom Denman was contemporary. Scott, Sydney Smith, Jeffrey, all seem to have possessed this gift of good spirits, and in each of them you can trace that kind of perfect adaptation between the man and his surroundings which is the main source of happiness. Denman's power of enjoyment survived even paralysis, and he was found roaring with laughter at the mistaken pronunciation of a grandchild, when paralysis made it impossible to him to explain in words what it was that amused him. No one can deny Denman's great virtues. No one can dispute that his life was from its beginning to its end a career of unbroken and deserved success. But no candid reader can put down Denman's biography without the feeling that the Chief-Justice, with all his virtues, fails to excite the interest which is often kindled by the history of far less deserving men. In this, as in other points, he shares the fate of his party. The career of the Whigs has been a career of unbroken and deserved success, yet many politicians who did not possess half their substantial merits have excited an amount of sympathy which has never been gained by the men who followed Brougham and Russell. The causes of this result are, it may be conjectured, the same in the case both of the Chief-Justice and of his party. Success and happiness are in themselves the greatest of blessings, but they do not excite a tithe of the interest which is often kindled by dramatic calamity. Denman's perpetual felicity, his amiable letters to amiable colleagues, the compliments which he paid to his puisne judges, and the compliments which they paid him in return, are carefully recorded by Sir Joseph Arnould, and they become not a little wearisome to the reader. In the same way, the success of the Whigs, though highly creditable to their good sense, has not promoted their popularity, and the world has become a little tired of the often-told story of the steps by which civil and religious liberty has been obtained under Whig guidance.

Another and deeper cause may certainly be assigned for the sense of dulness which creeps over the reader as he studies the latter portion of Denman's life. No partiality can conceal the fact that the Chief-Justice attached an exaggerated importance to forms. He has left on record his estimate of the great case of Stockdale *v.* Hansard, and speaks of the struggle which he carried on with the House of Commons as "the most important event of my life, and that on which my future reputation must mainly depend." Now, of the legal merits of this once celebrated case we do not propose to say anything. Any one who wishes to see what can be said on both sides of the question involved should compare the very fair account given by Sir Joseph Arnould with the certainly equally fair account given by Sir Thomas Erskine May in his 'Constitutional History.' Most critics will think that the House of Commons and the Queen's Bench were pretty equally in the wrong. The House was attempting to enforce a just rule in a thoroughly unjust way, and the court, while technically in the right, was attempting to support a rule obviously opposed to public utility. The most curious point is that the manifestly expedient mode of terminating the dispute was not adopted till all parties had been worn out by a contest which, after lasting three years, had placed both the House of Commons and the Queen's Bench in an equally absurd position. But what for our present purpose is most noticeable is Lord Denman's failure to perceive that the struggle in which he was engaged was a sham fight, wherein neither combatant was prepared to proceed to extremes, and which involved no matter of vital importance. Here, as elsewhere in his career, you feel that he mistook forms for realities. The advocate who believed in the perfect innocence of Queen Caroline naturally enough became the judge who saw in the case of Stockdale *v.* Hansard a struggle rivalling in importance Hampden's resistance to ship-money.

This tendency to political formalism, if it was the weakness of Lord Denman, was certainly also the weakness of his party, and in both cases has concealed the substantial services which he and they have rendered to their country. The fame of the Whigs will be found in many cases not really to depend on what party writers would describe as their greatest achievements, and, happily for Lord Denman's reputation, need not be rested on what he deemed the most important event of his life. The party and the man alike will really owe their lasting fame to their intense and consistent love of justice. Sir Joseph Arnould notices with obvious regret the letters in which, late in life and worn out with illness, Lord Denman attacked Dickens for "having taken pains to discourage the efforts then making to put down slavery and the slave-trade," and thus "having done his best to replunge the world into barbarism." The letters were "regrettable" because Dickens was not guilty of the offence charged against him. But

* 'Memoir of Thomas, first Lord Denman, formerly Lord Chief-Justice of England. By Sir Joseph Arnould, late Judge of the High Court of Bombay.' London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

the feeling which prompted the old judge to denounce in even violent language the tendency which he truly enough perceived to underrate the horrors of slavery and the slave-trade, is a signal instance of that love of justice and hatred of wrong which was, from beginning to end of Denman's career, the noblest trait in a noble character.

BRIGHAM'S CAST CATALOGUE OF ANTIQUE SCULPTURE.*

A SYSTEMATIC catalogue, in English, of the works of antique sculpture existing in the public and private collections of Europe, would be a desirable and useful book. Mr. Brigham has undertaken to give a list of a considerable number of these works, especially of those of which casts may be obtained, believing that such a list might be serviceable in America in assisting the selection of casts for local collections. In the absence of the originals, casts are important, and with the aid of Mr. Brigham's book a tolerably satisfactory collection of them might be brought together. The photographs with which his volume is illustrated are of interest alike to those who are glad to have their memory of famous originals refreshed, and to those who, not having had opportunity to see the originals, desire to gain some conception of the character of the most famous ancient statues and busts.

Had Mr. Brigham contented himself with giving a simple, however incomplete, descriptive list with these illustrations, he would have produced a book worthy of praise; but he has undertaken something more. He prefixes to his volume an introduction treating of the history of ancient sculpture. He has given some account of the personages, mythical or real, represented in the sculptures which he enumerates, and he has closed his work with what he calls an introduction to the study of ornament. These accompaniments to his list, though the list itself were incomplete, defective in method, and arbitrary in selection, might have added greatly to its value. But we have again the regret (a regret too frequent) of finding a work of good design, and of considerable pretension, by an American, executed in such a manner as to betray the insufficiency of American scholarship and the want of thoroughness of American discipline.

There is a slight test which every scholar applies to a new book in any department with which he is familiar, to gauge the accuracy of its author or compiler and his probable ability to afford trustworthy information—the test of correct spelling. If misprints in citations from foreign languages are frequent, if foreign names are frequently misspelled, especially if a name or word that often recurs is invariably misspelled, the genuine student cannot fail to feel a distrust of the familiarity of the author with the matter in hand, or of his sensitiveness to those minute points on which the real value of his investigation may depend. Mr. Brigham's pages are disfigured by errors that very slight attention would have prevented. He has frequent occasion to refer to the *Towneley* collection in the British Museum. In his pages the name invariably appears as *Townley*. The name *Barberini*, which recurs often, is always printed *Barbarini*. The name *Righetti*, that of the editor of the well-known *Descrizione del Campidoglio*, is always printed *Rhigetti*. In a list of works to which reference is made in the catalogue, which occupies six pages, we have noted twenty misprints—(*photographic* for *photographiques*; *General* for *Général*; *delta* for *detta*; *mausolli* for *mausolei*; *époche* for *époque*, etc., etc.)—no single one of great importance, but, taken together, indicating either ignorance or carelessness, unpardonable in the compiler of such a work.

The character of the two essays with which the book begins and ends confirms the correctness of the inference drawn from the errors of the press. Mr. Brigham's historical introduction shows no grasp of principle, contains many doubtful or inaccurate statements, and is written in a style both jejune and awkward. The same terms are applicable to the essay on "Ornament." The author has imperfect ideas of the principles of ornamentation, and little knowledge of the characteristic features and historic developments of the different styles. The confusion of notions exhibited in such a passage as the following on "Renaissance Ornament" may serve as a warrant of our criticism, and as an excuse for not attempting to justify it by more elaborate illustration: "After the conquest of Constantinople by the Venetians in 1204, that independent city [Venice] threw off the shackles of mediæval art and commenced a new epoch. At first the great change was architectural; the round arch was restored—[when had its use been abandoned?]—and the classical orders as well—[in what works of the thirteenth century?] Ornament was distinguished by delicate scroll-work and intricate net-work [by no means the most characteristic distinctions of the early Renaissance], the latter borrowed from the Saracenic. Niccolo Pisano, Andrea Tuffi [there is no famous artist of this name, Mr. Brigham probably means Andrea Tafi, of whom little is known], Giotto, Orcagna, and Brunelleschi were distinguished masters of this style, which is illustrated in the Cathedral of Florence and the Church of San Francesco di Assisi. From this period the changing style was called the Tre-cento, 1300." What style Mr. Brigham supposed himself to be describing it is impossible to conjecture, or what relation he fancied to exist between the Venetian architecture of the thirteenth century and the Florentine architecture of the fifteenth. There is really no meaning in such writing.

Returning to the list proper, we have to thank Mr. Brigham for numerous serviceable notices of works of sculpture in different European museums. His accounts of special works are mostly simple and to the point, containing a fair amount of information and intelligent description. Had he not gone beyond these notes his list, though imperfect and put together without rational method, might have been commended. But, with his descriptions of the works of sculpture, Mr. Brigham has thought best to unite some account of the personages, real or mythical, whom they represent, and has occasionally added brief reflections to the narrative, by which the reader will be entertained if not instructed. It is a great pity that the inaccuracy visible in the letterpress frequently appears also in the statement of facts. For instance, Mr. Brigham, having occasion to speak of Marcus Aurelius, says of him, "Marcus Aurelius Antoninus was Emperor of Rome after Flavius Claudius," which is as much as to say Abraham Lincoln was President of the United States after Joshua Jefferson; there was more than a century between Claudius and Marcus Aurelius, and the name of Claudius was Tiberius, not Flavius. Mr. Brigham goes on to say, "Although of a cruel disposition, he was renowned for his morality and military skill." This is his character of the mildest of rulers and the author of the 'Meditations'! On the same page he tells us that Augustus was the *second* emperor of Rome. We turn the pages, and open on Pericles, and find it said of him: "In spite of the grand works which he encouraged, it must not be forgotten that he did much to render vice less odious to his fellow-citizens, and, *in the person* of his favorite, Aspasia, *set an example* to the young Athenians that they were only too ready to follow." Having noted so very remarkable a fact, Mr. Brigham may perhaps be excused for omitting to mention some of the other chief claims of Pericles to distinction. Of Phocion we are told that "he devoted his life to the service of his country, and met the usual reward of those who are foolish enough to serve the public."

In speaking of a statue of Sabina, wife of Hadrian, now in the Louvre, Mr. Brigham states that "the statue belongs to those which were made without a head, in order that a portrait-head might be fitted to suit the purchaser. In the case of an empress it was convenient, as her successor need only go to the expense of a new head"! This astounding assertion might puzzle the soundest archæologist. We can but guess at the intended meaning, and suppose Mr. Brigham wished to say that the possessor of a marble figure to which various heads might be fitted could easily, and at no great expense, substitute the head of a new empress in the place of that of her predecessor; but this is very free interpretation, we admit, of the statement that "the successor to an empress need only go to the expense of a new head."

We turn the pages again, and open at "Fauns," who are said by Mr. Brigham to "differ from Satyrs in having human instead of goat legs." Just the reverse was the case, the coarser hand of the Roman showing itself in this instance, as in so many others, in dealing with the subjects of the mythology of the Greeks. But throughout his book Mr. Brigham displays no sense of the essential difference between the Greek and the Roman conceptions of the nature, character, and attributes of the deities and demigods of the religions of the two peoples. Yet unless this difference be clearly recognized and well understood, there can be no satisfactory study of the characteristics of ancient sculpture in its highest field as an expression of the religious sentiment of the nations by whom it was practised.

We have said enough of this disappointing volume.

A MODEL BIBLIOGRAPHY.*

MR. ABBOT'S 'Literature of the Doctrine of a Future Life' was first published in 1862 as an appendix to the Rev. Mr. Alger's 'History of the Doctrine of a Future Life.' Some copies were reprinted separately in 1871, when the whole work reappeared with W. J. Widdleton as publisher instead of Geo. W. Childs & Co. Although some time has elapsed since the original publication of this catalogue, and since it was published separately, though with no alterations, it is a pleasure to call attention to so excellent a piece of work, and to emphasize its merits all the more decidedly now because, in some recent noteworthy articles in the Boston *Advertiser*,

* 'Cast Catalogue of Antique Sculpture. With an Introduction to the Study of Ornament. By William T. Brigham, A.M.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1874. 4to, pp. iv.–200. With photographic illustrations.

* 'Literature of the Doctrine of a Future Life; or, A Catalogue of Works relating to the Nature, Origin, and Destiny of the Soul; the titles classified and arranged chronologically, with notes and indices of authors and subjects. By Ezra Abbot.' New York: W. J. Widdleton.

treating in a general way of American accomplishments in the work of cataloguing, the praise is given to the principal Boston catalogues, those of the Athenæum and the Public Library, while Mr. Abbot's equal if not superior deserts obtain not the slightest acknowledgment. We, however, as our readers know, have often quoted Mr. Abbot as a high authority, though we have never attempted a detailed account of his merits. Before this work of Mr. Abbot's, a few bibliographies of works relating to the future life of the soul and kindred questions had been published in Germany, the most considerable of which had been executed by the well-known bibliographer, Grässe. His work, entitled 'Bibliotheca psychologica,' was printed at Leipzig in 1845. In fulness, Grässe's book cannot be compared with Mr. Abbot's, as Grässe's contains only about 1,500 titles, while Mr. Abbot has more than 5,300. Nor are the two books to be put by the side of each other in point of accuracy. Grässe's book appears, as Mr. Abbot says, to have been rather a hasty compilation, with no attempt at completeness. He, however, has the merit of having furnished to hand a very large number of titles, and so of having performed a valuable work, though it was a contribution in the way of a special bibliography that needed a great deal of examination and sifting.

In giving an account of Mr. Abbot's book, one hardly knows whether to praise most the fidelity and the consistency in the treatment of details the most minute and insignificant—if anything in the work of cataloguing can be called insignificant—or the learning, the patience, and the unwearied industry that has gathered information from all open and recondite sources in a great variety of languages, including the Oriental, or the accuracy of the book in presenting the names of authors in fuller form than that in which they appear on the title-pages, or the excellent taste with which the titles are presented to the eye—the skill of the bibliographer here calling to its aid the art of the printer.

Under one of these heads, the fidelity with which authors' names are given, we suppose that there is no single work in which one could look with greater certainty of finding in full the name of the author of a treatise on the soul published before the first printing of this book than in this catalogue. This might perhaps be expected, but one would not understand, until he had himself made the attempt to establish the true name of an author, through how many forms in different languages the author has occasionally to be chased before his name, as he wrote it in the vernacular, is discovered (J. C. Harenberg, for instance, wrote a Latin work under the name of J. C. Trichorius, the etymological equivalent of Harenberg), nor how often the bibliographers differ, so that very frequently it is not enough to find your man recorded in a dictionary, you must further investigate the accuracy of your authority. Mr. Abbot's book, in this respect, we should look upon as final. As an authority in this department of literature, it ought to be in the hands of every librarian.

With regard to another feature of this catalogue, a fidelity in the smallest details which summons to its assistance the skill of the printer, we would instance a contrivance which, so far as our knowledge goes, is original with this catalogue. We refer to the way in which omissions in the transcription of titles are indicated. One who has given some attention to the matter wonders why among printers, or with one printer in the treatment of the same book, no uniformity has ever obtained in the way of showing omissions. Here and there a mass of stars or points, without regard to number and with no distinction of the marks of punctuation from points that indicate omissions, does the work. It is rare to find uniformity in a book. Mr. Abbot shows an omission in the middle of a sentence by three small dots in close sequence; if the latter part of a sentence is left out, the three dots close together precede the period by an interval double that between the points; if a sentence before the imprint is left out, the three dots separated by a like interval from the period follow the period. If something at the beginning of the title is gone, the dots precede the title after the author's name. It is to our mind a contrivance as simple as it is neat, desirable, and beautiful. It could hardly be simpler, and the only defect in the arrangement, so far as we can see, is that the three dots coming after a period do not tell you whether one sentence or more is omitted, nor, preceding the final period of a title, do they tell you whether some words or one or more sentences have been left out. They do, however, always indicate an omission.

The catalogue is a classed catalogue, and the books are arranged under three general heads: "Nature of the Soul," "Origin of the Soul," "Destiny of the Soul." Under the last head, which contains the greater part of the titles, are three sections: "Comprehensive works on the Immortality of the Soul—the Future Life"; "Doctrine concerning the Soul and the Future Life among Nations and Sects not Christian"; "Doctrine concerning the Soul and the Future Life in Christian Theology." The contents of the last two sections are again arranged in numerous subdivisions, and an appendix collects titles under the two heads: "Modern Spiritualism, or Spiritism, Ghosts, etc."; "Nature, Origin, and Destiny of the Souls of Brutes." At the end an index gives the titles of anonymous works and the names of authors arranged alphabetically, and a second index groups under numerous subject-headings the works treating of the topics covered by those headings.

The titles are arranged under each head chronologically, so that in consulting the different divisions one is able to trace the history of the development of different branches of the subject. A good deal of curious speculation is displayed in these titles. One rubric, for instance, presents us with the authorities in which we may study the speculations of Eastern nations on the doctrine of the transmigration of the soul, and in another we may learn the authority for holding the salvability of Cicero, or Aristotle, or Trajan, or the heathen in general, or Thomas à Becket.

Notes under a very great number of titles give information about authors, editions and translations of the works mentioned, and criticisms, always from eminent authorities. We recommend to librarians especially to consult the titles under Section II. of Class III.: "Doctrine concerning the Soul and the Future Life among Nations and Sects not Christian," if they would estimate the difficulties that have been met and mastered in the preparation of this bibliograph; and to the general reader a perusal of the notes if he would see a fine example of scholarship. The Rev. Dr. Hodge of Princeton, whose 'Systematic Theology,' in the third volume, where he treats of 'Eschatology,' is the most considerable of the later publications which form the subject-matter of this catalogue, calls it "a marvel of ability and learning." Every one must agree with this judgment.

We would only say further, as of interest in the history of classed catalogues making literature accessible, and of bibliographical notes, that Mr. Abbott's preface is dated January 1, 1862, and that his book was commenced more than three years previously. Further, that the work was executed as a by-work in Mr. Abbot's leisure, the latter part of the catalogue having been printed in 1861, when the new and great catalogue of Harvard College Library had been commenced under his direction. It is unfortunate for purposes of comparison with the Boston catalogues and others that this Harvard College Catalogue has not been printed. One should speak guardedly of the relative rank of American catalogues and cataloguers and bibliographers, however, and of the "merely perfunctory discharge of library duty," who has made no attempt to appreciate the value of the work that has been done upon the Cambridge Catalogue, and of Mr. Abbot's labors and his rank among cataloguers and bibliographers.

The Sacred Anthology. A Book of Ethnical Scriptures, collected and edited by Moncure Daniel Conway. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.)—Thanks are due Mr. Conway for the admirable book which he has compiled. It may be described as a mass of well-arranged excerpts from the bibles of all nations and from some other writings as well. These quotations relate to the whole of human character and duty, and embody much of the deepest and best-tried wisdom. A better book as a companion it would be hard to find. It is easy to give an idea of it: The selected passages are arranged under twenty heads, such as "Laws," "Religion," "Love and Friendship," "Character," "Nature," "Justice and Government," "Charity." They are of course selected from a wide range of authors, the authors of the Hebrew and Christian Scriptures being more frequently cited than any others, and their truth, poetry, and wisdom shining bright beside the wise sayings of the other teachers, though from the others also one may renew and increase his respect for the heart of man, capable of originating or at the least of perceiving and accepting doctrines such as are here taught. Acting upon them is another matter; and we have thought that the portability, so to speak, of all these fine sentiments might have an enervating effect, and that the book might thus prove a spiritual pitfall for some readers. But it is reasonable to dismiss this fear and trust to Wisdom to be justified of her children. Of the character of the subject-matter we may best give an idea by some miscellaneous quotations. This upon "conscience" is from the too much neglected Apocrypha, and we choose it from among so many hundreds of passages, every one worthy of quotation, partly because of its undeserved newness to some of our readers, and partly for the poorer reason that it has been drawn upon for one of his poems by Tennyson—a gleaner in many fields, and one, too, who does not always keep his hand from the sheaf. The lord of the field may think it no more than right, but it will always have an ill look. Mr. Conway gives the passage the heading "Conscience."

"*Conscience.*

"When unrighteous men thought to oppress the holy nation, they lay in their own houses prisoners of darkness, fettered with the bonds of a long night, exiled from the eternal providence. No power of the fire might give them light, neither could the bright beams of the stars lighten that horrible night.

"For wickedness, condemned by her own witness, is very timorous, and being pressed with conscience, always forecasteth grievous things. For fear

is nothing else but a betraying of the succors which reason offereth. They sleeping the same sleep that night—which was indeed intolerable, coming upon them from the bottom of inevitable hell—were partly troubled with monstrous apparitions, and partly fainted, their heart failing them; for a sudden fear, and not looked for, came upon them. Whoever then fell down was fast shut in a prison that had no iron bars. They were all bound with one chain of darkness. Whether it were a whistling wind, or melodies of birds among the spreading branches, or a pleasing sound of falling water, or a terrible sound of stones cast down, or of leaping invisible beasts, or roaring of wild beasts, or a rebounding echo from the hollow mountains: these things made them swoon for fear. The whole world shined with clear light, and none were hindered in their labor: over them only was spread a heavy night. Yet were they unto themselves more grievous than the darkness."

In Tennyson's "Palace of Art" we have the terrible wild beasts, the stones thrown down, and the doubt and great perplexity, of the poet of the Apocrypha. Shelley's "Desire of the Moth for the Star" may also be found in its Oriental original in one of these passages.

Of another strain is this, from the Hindu:

"*Servants.*

"The duty of a servant is extremely hard, and not performable even by saints. If he be silent, he is called a fool; if eloquent, a prattler; at hand, an artful fellow; at a distance, a bad attendant; if patient, a coward; if he endure not, a rascal. What sort of master is that who does not honor his servants while they discharge their duty? To secure service or the discharge of duty there is no need of dragging by violence. He is truly wise who knows the word or deed suited to the occasion. By taking up the whole time of a servant, by increasing expectation, by denying reward, the ill-disposed master is recognized. Favorable discourse to a servant; presents that denote affection; even in blaming faults, taking notice of virtues; these are the manners of a kind master. He who knows how to consider his servants abounds with good ones."

From the Scandinavian the following is selected:

"*Hospitality.*

"Liberal and brave men live best; they seldom cherish sorrow: but a base-minded man dreads everything; the niggardly are uneasy even under benefits.

"Givers hail! a guest has come in. Where shall he sit? Fire is needful to him who has entered: he is cold. Food and raiment are required: he has wandered over the fell. Water he needs, who craves refreshment; a towel; hospitable invitation, a good reception. If he can obtain it, discourse and answer, and wit.

"Never with insult or derision treat thou a guest or wayfarer: men often little know who sits within.

"For the hated oft is spared what for the dear was destined."

And under the same heading the Hindu Hitopadesa says: "Who is a foreigner to those who speak civilly?" The following story is from the Arabic:

"*Mercifulness.*

"The prophet was sleeping alone at the foot of a tree, at a distance from his camp, when he was awakened by a noise, and beheld Durther, a hostile warrior, standing over him with a drawn sword. 'Mohammed,' cried he, 'who is there now to save thee?' 'God!' replied the prophet. Struck with awe, Durther let fall his sword, which was instantly seized upon by Mohammed. Brandishing the weapon, he exclaimed in turn, 'Who is there now to save thee, Durther?' 'Alas! no one!' replied the soldier. 'Then learn from me to be merciful.' So saying, Mohammed returned the sword. And thenceforth these two were friends."

But we might quote the whole volume.

Theory of the Glaciers of Savoy. By M. le Chanoine Rendu (Mém. de la Soc. Acad. de Savoie, X. 95, 1841). Translated by Alfred Wills, Q.C., late President of the Alpine Club; to which are added, the original Memoir and Supplementary Articles by P. G. Tait, M.A., Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh, and John Ruskin, D.C.L., Professor of Fine Arts in the University of Oxford. Edited with introductory remarks by George Forbes, B.A., Professor of Natural Philosophy in the Andersonian University, Glasgow. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 216.)—The publication of an English translation of Rendu's essay on the glaciers of Savoy is made the occasion for continuing an old controversy in very opprobrious terms. It will be remembered that some two years ago an attempt was made by the biographers of James D. Forbes to show that the more important results of glacial investigation are due to him. In a notice upon the life of Forbes, printed in the *Nation* of May 29, 1873, exception was taken to this extraordinary claim and to the slurs thrown by its authors upon Agassiz and other glacial investigators, especially upon Tyndall, who has become, for various reasons, the especial object of their wrath. To the reiteration of these charges in the present volume we would call attention; and since Dr. Tyndall is amply able to defend his own cause, and indeed has done so in a late number of the *Contemporary Review*, we shall dwell chiefly on those referring to Agassiz. As the book has a double purpose, we shall, for convenience, treat it in parts rather than as a whole.

First in order comes a preface by Mr. George Forbes. In this we find but one or two points to answer, others having been noticed in the article alluded to above. Mr. Forbes states (page 8) that the measurements of the Aar glacier were made at Principal Forbes's suggestion. This is incorrect. Agassiz's first measurements were made in 1840, before Forbes was heard of in connection with glaciers. The first measurements made by the latter were taken in 1842. There is another error, or rather a mistaken inference, in Mr. Forbes's introductory remarks. In a note (page 9) he says, speaking of the difference between Forbes and Agassiz: "Professor Tyndall would have done well to leave it in that oblivion to which Mr. Agassiz consigned it for thirty years, and from which it must have pained him to see it resuscitated by a third party." When Agassiz was first startled by hearing that Forbes had taken what he felt to be an unfair advantage, he addressed him a letter of remonstrance, which was printed and circulated among his personal friends and scientific colleagues. From that time, during thirty years, he never under any provocation alluded to the subject again, except in private conversation. It is a curious fact that by Forbes's biographers his own silence on this matter, however frequently broken, is always attributed to magnanimity, that of Agassiz to inability to defend himself. To the latter it was certainly a great pleasure, after his long forbearance, to find that an Englishman was willing to do him justice, and Dr. Tyndall had his full permission to use their frank correspondence as he thought best.

Upon Mr. Forbes's preface follows the translation of Rendu's 'Glaciers of Savoy.' Next in order come various appendices, two of which will no doubt attract general attention. The first is by Professor Tait, on the glacial controversy, entitled "Forbes and Dr. Tyndall." After reading it we can hardly wonder that the *Contemporary Review* refused (as a note states) to accept a communication chiefly remarkable for its personalities. In behalf of science in general, we may say that this portion of the book will have its strongest influence with those who believe that abuse can add weight to criticism. It deals chiefly with Dr. Tyndall's share in the discussion, dismissing Agassiz and his claims by referring us, as far as they are concerned, to Mr. Ruskin, who next takes up the theme. Mr. Tait congratulates himself on the accession of this ally. It may win him miscellaneous readers, but among scientific men Mr. Ruskin's clever use of language will hardly atone for his arrogance and ignorance of the special subject, nor can the noted grace and dexterity of his style disguise his coarse unscrupulousness. He concludes by saying that he has "striven always to be kind to the living—just to the dead." In this instance, a tinge of good breeding towards both would have been more to the purpose. It is unworthy of a man who assumes, as Tait does, to be umpire in a scientific discussion, to call in aid a popular writer who may dazzle and confound the public, but who has, as he ought to know, no voice among scientific men. On this ground, Mr. Ruskin's contribution might be dismissed without comment but that certain of his remarks give occasion for restating an important distinction, bearing upon the whole subject of glacial research. Considering as settled Forbes's claim to priority in discovering the viscosity of glaciers and the so-called dirt bands, points which he further tells us have "solved the problem of glacier movement for ever," Mr. Ruskin continues, "Fancy the feelings of poor Agassiz in his 'Hôtel des Neufchâtelois.' To have had the thing under his nose for years and missed it." The elegance of the phrase is perfectly in harmony with the rest of the article; but we may remind those who read it that whether Forbes's explanation of the nature of glacier motion be the true one or not, Agassiz was studying the special process immediately before him with reference to a larger problem. He was seeking the evidence of a great phase in the world's physical history, cosmic in character and extent, the clue to which he found in the local action of present glaciers, and which he traced in after-years over a great part of three continents. To this end, he established his station on the glacier of the Aar; to this end, after four summers spent in tracing the ancient extension of ice in Switzerland, he went to Great Britain with the avowed purpose of looking for glacial tracks there, an excursion the successful result of which was announced in the same year to the Geological Society of London; to this end, feeling the importance of associating a physicist in a work which he and his companions could only pursue as geologists, he invited Principal Forbes to his cabin on the glacier. Forbes came and remained for some weeks, during which he maintained a guarded silence upon the most important points connected with the physical phenomena of glaciers. This was no doubt a disappointment to Agassiz, and he was still more wounded at the explanation given by subsequent events to Forbes's reserve. But here his disappointment ended; for, to adopt Mr. Ruskin's illustration, "the nugget" with which his guest "walked off," even supposing it to be pure gold, was but a fragment from the mine he was working. Mr. Ruskin further characterizes the glacial researches of Agassiz as "scientific mischance" and "scientific dulness." To this we can only answer, that whenever the glacial epoch in its more comprehensive

sense is proved to be a mistake, then and not till then it may be said that Agassiz's glacial work was a failure.

The Amateur's Photographic Guide-Book. By W. J. Stillman. (London: C. D. Smith & Co. 1874.)—In this little manual of about a hundred pages Mr. Stillman has brought together the results of his own wide experience in practical photography and of his intercourse with the first English amateurs of the present day, of whom he says that "the work shown by some of them is literally the very best of its kind the world can show." His instructions embrace the use of both dry and wet plates, and the preparation of all the materials required in the working of them. They are unexceptionably full and precise, and each topic receives a separate discussion in an appendix. Appendix E, on field and tropical photography, displays Mr. Stillman's cleverness as an inventor in overcoming the difficulties of this trying branch of the art. Appendix E (*bis*) is on lenses, in which Mr. Dallmeyer is freely quoted from as an authority. In the chapter on the development of the negative in the wet-plate process, Mr. Stillman departs an instant from his purely technical discourse with the reader, and gives vent on page 41 to his artistic feeling in a paragraph which may be worth quoting—none the less because its evident lack of finish proves it to have been quite spontaneous:

"One of the most beautiful and interesting phenomena I know in practical chemistry is the appearance of the image in this white, dull film, which gives no indication of its presence until the iron solution is poured on, when, with the regularity of a sunrise, the image appears, slowly coming up, each part in its order as the light calls on it; to see it growing into intelligibility and then into completeness; finding in it little things overlooked in nature—little indications of order and preference which we had not anticipated—until, on looking back to the subject, we find that we had not half seen it before, so many things have we watched growing under our eyes whose presence in the scene we had not suspected."

Sketches of Illustrious Soldiers. By James Grant Wilson. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874.)—Between the covers of this book are sketched in brief the histories of many men—too many even to enumerate here—who, in the last four centuries, have been famous in good causes and bad for getting other people killed. Gonsalvo of Cordova, "the Great Captain" of the time of Columbus, opens the record, and the hero of Vicksburg and Appomattox closes it. The book is literary rather than military: that is to say, it is not critical, new, or suggestive in military matters, but deals in a pleasant way with events and anecdotes, and is relieved by a good deal of poetry. Taking a few of the author's subjects at random, we cannot say that his sketches would be useful to any one who had read Motley on William of Orange; Carlyle on Frederic the Great; Alison on Marlborough; Schiller on Wallenstein; the despatches of Wellington; Sparks, Bancroft, or Irving, on Washington; Thiers, Jomini, or Scott, on Napoleon. But to excite an ambition to read these works, these sketches might fall on good ground; and, therefore, we think that the school-room, rather than the library, is the true sphere of the book, especially as in the brevity of its chapters it has a quality which the school-room can best appreciate. We lately overheard a conversation between two little girls in a horse-car on the subject of American history, and after a long discussion of its difficulties, and how hard it was to remember all about the Revolution and the heroes of that time, one said to the other with a sigh: "Well. I like General Montgomery best; he didn't do hardly anything."

While we have nothing to say against the interest of such a series of sketches, we can only regret that in this country a taste for writing military history should not, for the present, confine itself to the truthful and critical illustration of recent warlike events at home. For here, though the harvest of military history is ripe, skilled laborers thus far are few.

History of the American Ambulance established in Paris during the Siege of 1870–71. By Thomas W. Evans, M.D. (London: Printed for the Author; New York: Wm. Wood & Co.)—Dr. Evans's share in this showy volume is confined to the introduction, in which he describes what the Americans in Paris planned for the relief of the wounded during the siege of 1870–1871. A "relief society" was organized at his house in July, 1870, Dr. Evans the chairman. Contributions were solicited from Americans in Paris, and from the ex-members of the Sanitary Committee of our late civil war. About 50,000 francs were given by the former class, and with these funds, and others contributed by Dr. Evans, a tent-hospital was erected upon the Avenue de l'Impératrice, and a volunteer medical staff was engaged. Letters were received from American sympathizers containing abundant enthusiasm, but no drafts; they are here printed in full. Meanwhile, the great frontier battles of the Franco-German campaign were fought, and the question came up whether to go to the front or to stay in Paris. The surgeons wanted to get into the field, "curious to experience in their own persons the sensational excitement," as Dr. Evans sardonically remarks, of seeing battles fought. But Dr. Evans was for staying comfortably in the Avenue de l'Impératrice, and his counsels prevailed, to the offence of the surgeons. They resigned in a body, not without bitter partings. Dr. Evans himself left Paris before the tide of war reached it, the Empress having, as he tells us, "entrusted her personal safety to him." He did not return until the siege was raised and the hospital work was done. That work, with many other things more or less remotely connected with it, is detailed at great length in the reports of Drs. E. A. Crane, W. E. Johnston, and J. Swinburne, the members of a staff engaged and, we believe, salaried by Dr. Evans. These reports make up more than six-sevenths of this bulky book, Dr. Swinburne's essay upon the surgical cases being the best. The whole number of cases treated in this field-hospital (which, by the way, Dr. Evans persists in calling an ambulance, using that word in the French sense) was but 271. Three-fourths of the book is padding. It is sumptuously printed, at great expense, and is evidently intended for courts rather than for camps. It is, indeed, one of those books which are not only not books, but which were never exactly intended to be books. Thus the curious reader will not find the names of Drs. Crane, Johnston, and Swinburne, its chief authors, upon the title-page; they must be sought for in the body of the work. The 'History of the American Ambulance' will not greatly advance our knowledge of history or of surgery, but it will be just the thing for a gift-book to princes and to other persons whose cares will not permit their looking further into it than the title-page.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Aitken (Mary C.), Scottish Song	(Macmillan & Co.)	$1 25
Acrelius (Rev. I.), History of New Sweden	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Blackie (Prof. J. S.), Horæ Hellenicæ	(Macmillan & Co.)	4 00
Brockley Moor: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Cuthbertson (F.), Euclidian Geometry	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Dudley (Col. J. G.), Alcohol; its Combinations and Effects, swd.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	0 25
Guide-Book of Yedo, swd.	(F. R. Wetmore & Co.)	
Hinton (James), Physiology for Practical Use	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Hillard (G. S.), Franklin First, Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Readers	(Brewer & Tileston)	
Harrison (Jennie), Little Boots	(Dodd & Mead)	
Hovenden (R. M.), Odes of Horace Metrically Paraphrased	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Henshaw (H. W.), Annotated List of Birds of Utah, swd.	(Salem)	
Jessup (Rev. H. H.), Syrian Home Life	(Dodd & Mead)	
Kingsley (Rev. C.), Health and Education	(D. Appleton & Co.)	

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RECENT AND FAVORITE VOLUMES.

Richardson's Clarissa Harlowe (condensed for modern readers).
Turgenieff's Spring Floods.
Hardy's Desperate Remedies.
A Pair of Blue Eyes.
Mrs. Jenkin's Jupiter's Daughters.
Mrs. Alexander's 'The Wooing O't.'
Which Shall It Be?
Mme. Craven's Fleurange.

OTHER RECENT PUBLICATIONS.

Auerbach's Waldfried,	$2 00
Conway's Sacred Anthology,	4 00
Chorley's Recent Art and Society, uniform with Moscheles's Recent Music and Musicians,	2 00
Chesney's Military Biography,	2 50
Deutsch's Literary Remains,	4 00
Mill's Autobiography,	2 50
Sumner's History of American Currency,	3 00

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, July 7.

DURING the early part of the week there was an increased activity in the money market, and loans were made at 4 and even as high as 5 per cent. The usual calling-in of loans on and about the 1st of July, for the purpose of making provision for the payment of interest and dividends, was the cause of the rise in rates; besides this, the banks have withdrawn some of their legal tenders to send to Washington to make the required deposit against their circulation. Later in the week money became easier, and in the anxiety of lenders to place their money so as to obtain interest over Saturday and Sunday, loans were made at 2½ to 3 per cent., from which there has been no change up to this time. There is a firmer feeling in the market for commercial paper, and the rates have stiffened ½ to 1 per cent. Prime names are now quoted 6 to 7 per cent.

The bank statement on Friday was favorable, showing an increase over last week of $828,225 in the surplus reserve. The following shows the changes in the different items:

	June 27.	July 3.		Differences.
Loans	$281,791,500	$287,422,200	Inc..	$5 630,700
Specie	19,714.300	21,934,300	Inc...	2,220,000
Legal tenders	62.923,200	63,660,500	Inc...	737,300
Deposits	232.929,200	241,445,500	Inc...	8,516,400
Circulation	26,511,300	25.863,900	Dec...	647,400

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	June 27.	July 3.		Differences.
Specie	$19,714,300	$21,934,300	Inc..	$2,220,000
Legal tenders	62,923,200	63,660,500	Inc...	737,300
Total reserve	$82,637,500	$85,494,800	Inc..	$2,957,300
Reserve required against deposits	58,232.300	60.361.375		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem'ts,	24,405,200	25,233 425	Inc...	828,225

The stock market has been active most of the week, and the fluctuations at times were quite important. The market closed on Friday at very nearly the highest point of the week, and a firmer feeling was felt among operators. This morning the decision of the U. S. Circuit Court in Wisconsin in refusing the application of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad Company for an injunction restraining the State from enforcing the recent laws in regard to railroads, had a very depressing effect upon the whole list of speculative stocks, but especially upon those of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, and the Chicago and Northwestern Railroads; during the rush to sell which ensued upon the opening of the Stock Exchange, St. Paul sold down to 36½ and Northwestern to 40¾. The decline in other stocks was considerable, but not so severe as that in the stock of the two roads named.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Friday, July 3, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	100¾ 101	99¾ 100¼	99¾ 100¼	99⅝ 99¾	99⅞ 100		10,200
Lake Shore	76⅜ 77⅜	75 76⅜	75 76⅛	74½ 75⅜	75⅝ 76¾		235,000
Erie	31 34	33¾ 34⅜	31 33½	30¾ 32⅜	31⅜ 33⅝		131,800
Union Pacific	28 29⅜	27⅞ 28⅛	26⅞ 28¼	26¼ 27	26⅝ 27⅜		87,900
Chi. & N. W.	43⅝ 44⅞	42⅞ 43⅞	42½ 43⅝	41 42½	42¼ 43½		44,800
Do. pfd	60 62½	 61	.... 60¾	59¾ 60	.... 60½		2,300
N. J. Central	 109	 108	....	 108	 108		100
Rock Island	101 101⅜	100⅝ 101⅝	99¾ 101⅜	98 99¾	99¾ 101⅜		33,400
Mil. & St. Paul	39½ 41⅜	39¼ 40⅜	38½ 39⅝	37¾ 39	38⅝ 39½		55,400
Do. pfd	59¼ 60¾	58¾ 59	57⅝ 58	57 57⅝	 60		4,300
Wabash	36⅜ 39¼	37⅞ 38½	37 38½	35⅞ 37⅝	37 38¼		89,000
D., L. & W.	110 110⅜	 110	107⅛ 107⅜	107 107½	.... 107⅜		8,400
O. & M.	26⅛ 26⅞	25⅞ 26⅜	26 26¼	25¼ 25⅞	25⅜ 26		8,600
C. C. & I. C.	19¼ 20¼	19¼ 19⅝	18⅝ 19⅛	18½ 18⅜	.... 18⅝		5,600
W. U. Tel	74⅜ 76	74⅜ 75¼	74¼ 75½	73⅜ 74½	74¼ 75		116,400
Pacific Mail	44½ 45⅜	44⅛ 44¾	43½ 44⅜	42⅜ 43½	43 43¾		57,700

Legal Holiday.

The feature in the Government bond market was the circular of Secretary Bristow inviting proposals for the whole or any part of the remaining unsold 5 per cent. bonds of 1881, amounting to $179,000. The circular was a complete surprise to the Street, and bankers have disagreed as to the real intention of the Secretary in issuing it at this time; some thinking that it was for the purpose of "sounding" the market and seeing what he *can* do, while others believe that an offer has been already submitted to him for a large amount, coupled with the option of taking the balance at any time within a certain period at the same price—a sort of "call," we presume. The opening of the proposals on the 23d inst. will be looked forward to with great interest. We think that the Secretary would hardly have taken so bold a step without having previously received encouragement to do so from others who are perhaps capable of judging what is best in the matter.

Prices during the week have undergone no important changes; the market has been dull, with a moderate demand for investment. The following are the closing quotations this evening:

U. S. 6's of 1881 ..... 116¾@117	U. S. 5-20, 1867 ..... 116¾@117
U. S. 5-20, 1862 ..... 113¾@113¾	U. S. 5-20, 1868 ..... 116½@117
U. S. 5-20, 1864 ..... 116¾@116¾	U. S. 5's, 10-40 ..... 113 @113¼
U. S. 5-20, 1865, May and Nov.. 116½@117⅛	U. S. 5's of 1881 ..... 113 @113¼
U. S. 5-20, 1865, Jan. and July. 115¾@116¼	U. S. Currency 6's ..... 116 @116¼

The gold market has been very dull, with a declining tendency in prices. The following table shows the course of quotations each day of the past week:

	Opening.	*Lowest.*	*Highest.*	*Closing.*
Saturday, June 27	111¼	111¼	111¼	111¼
Monday, June 29	111	111	111	111
Tuesday, June 30	111⅛	111	111¼	111
Wednesday, July 1	110⅞	110⅞	110⅞	110⅝
Thursday, July 2	110¾	110⅝	110⅝	110⅝
Friday, July 3	110⅝	110¼	110⅜	110⅜

The Treasury programme for July provides for the sale of $5,000,000 gold—$1,000,000 on each Thursday.

The specie exports for the week ending July 4 amount to $534,186.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 16, 1874.

The Week.

THE news from the Plains is full of rumors of an Indian rising, and outrages of greater or less gravity are reported all the way from Pembina in the north down to the frontier of Mexico. The army is too small to display much activity over so wide an area, and General Sherman jokes grimly over the Indian policy of the Department of the Interior, which, he says, sends the warriors and ponies fat and sleek in spring to ravage the frontier, and receives them back in the fall like returned prodigals. The testimony of all respectable white men who have lived on the Plains is, however, that the Indians are more sinned against than sinning, and that their risings usually have behind them a solid support of cheating and cruelty. They are swindled by the contractors out of their lawful subsidies, and they are roused into quitting their reservations by the fact that they are constantly being shifted from good land to worse, in compliance with the intrigues of knavish land speculators at the Department of the Interior. Probably nothing could happen at this moment that would seal up such a fountain of white iniquity so well as the death of the last Indian. The cool way in which General Grant has allowed his Indian Commissioners to be driven out of their offices by the Ring knaves, is a striking illustration of the official nonchalance of which we have spoken in another paragraph.

We are apparently at last about to have some light on the affairs of the Erie Railroad. A meeting of the directors was held on Tuesday, at which Mr. Watson, the President, presented, pending the completion of his own report, that of the two auditors appointed to overhaul the books after the withdrawal of Dunan. It appears from their report that Dunan, by omissions and irregularities, made it appear that there was a surplus of over two millions when there was in reality a deficit of over one hundred thousand, and that although the dividend recently declared was really earned during the period assigned for its production, of course there was no money which could, had the truth been known, have been properly used for paying it. Dunan's "revelations" last spring would thus be explained even if they had not been disposed of by the admitted falsehoods of his statements at the Attorney-General's investigation, and there appears to be little doubt that he has confessed himself a knave in the interest of a stock-jobbing operation. What are the prospects of the road, however, it will be difficult to say until Mr. Watson's report appears. The examination made by Captain Tyler and the English accountants who are over here is said to have resulted favorably, or at least to have revealed a more satisfactory state of things than they had expected.

The Cincinnati *Commercial* thinks the New York *Tribune* is incorrect, as well as injudicious, in maintaining that the result of the Wisconsin railroad law, if enforced, will be that the corporations will buy up the legislators, and holds that not only will saying this exasperate the Grangers, but that these latter will have no difficulty in electing legislators who will not be corruptible on this point; that no legislature dare take bribes to act in opposition to the popular wish, when it is clearly expressed and strongly felt and the people knows its own mind. This is doubtless true of great and distinctly defined questions, such as slavery or secession, but it is not true of matters of dollars and cents (or rather of cents), the right or wrong of which no man can tell, and which are never finally settled. The rate which a railroad ought to charge would come up in Wisconsin every year, and there would be one hundred good excuses for changing which the farmer could not understand or weigh, and which might appear insignificant to him. To suppose that the public would keep its mind so steadily fixed on the matter as to prevent bribery is preposterous. Besides, if the companies do not have to pay the politicians for raising the rates, the politicians will certainly before long insist on being paid for not lowering them, and of this the godlike farmer would know nothing.

The *Railroad Gazette* of last week has a useful and instructive article, the reading of which, however, gives one a sensation which is, we imagine, very similar to that which one would experience from passing an evening with a band of communicative brigands in Calabria or Greece. It contains a calculation of the pecuniary gains to Wisconsin of carrying out her railroad law, and starts with the assumption that, as but few railroad proprietors live in Wisconsin, the people will have no hesitation in squeezing all they can out of the corporations, without any regard to the morality of the matter. It shows that there is but little comfort to be derived from the notion that the law does not affect inter-State transportation, because, if it be dearer to send grain to Chicago outside the State than to Milwaukee within it, the grain will go to Milwaukee. It prognosticates as a probable effect of the law, if enforced, the wiping out of the railroad stock, and the reduction of the bondholders' interest to about two per cent. on their bonds, which will then be no more valuable than stock. Then, although the State can do for some years without new roads, it cannot do without new and additional rolling-stock and repairs, which, however, the owners of the roads would never think of providing, knowing them to be subject to confiscation. The result would speedily be that the roads would run down until they were unworkable, and the State would then have to take possession of them, and spend a large amount of money on them, raised by taxation. Indeed, the *Gazette* says that taking possession of the roads at a valuation, and working them by State officials, is "the only course compatible in the long run with the authority of the State to fix rates of transportation in communities like those of the Northwest," where there are no resident capitalists and nobody to say a word for vested interests. The trial of such a system by one State, it thinks, would be of inestimable advantage to the stockholders of roads in other States, for obvious reasons.

The Republican magnates have prepared an address to their party, and it is to be issued in time for effect upon the Congressional elections. It naturally has two main topics—the currency and the transportation question. Perhaps we might better say that it has three main topics—the two we have mentioned and another one which every now and then crops out, namely, the futility of looking to the Democratic party for any real friendship to the country or any real service. It is Short that is the friend, not Codlin, as Mr. Short says in 'The Old Curiosity Shop.' "Whatever may or may not be expedient to be done," says the address, "this much seems certain, only the Republican party can be relied on to do it. The Democratic party has forsworn all such labors." And again: "If you do not mean to retrace your steps, you will select Republicans and not Democrats. If you mean to go forward in the future, you will select Republicans and not Democrats;" not Codlin but Short. Of lesser matters a number are touched upon, some of which are not a little musty. Of these the foreign policy of the Democracy is one, and the Committee assert of this policy that it has hardly a memory at which the citizen will not blush. Witness our bullying Austria (the Martin Koszta case and the Hülseman letter); the spoliation of Mexico; the demolition of Greytown; the truckling to Great Britain in the matter of the Northwestern boundary (Polk and Marcy); and the Northeastern, between Maine and New Brunswick (Tyler and the Webster-Ashburton Treaty).

As to this last, the address seems to bear the car-marks of Mr. Blaine's property: "While by successive concessions we were constantly adding to the area of the Canadas, we stupidly relinquished to their products free access to our markets," etc. etc. The home record of the Democrats is also brought forward, but the printed synopsis of the forthcoming document does not go into particulars.

As regards the currency, the Committee who prepared the address say that it "is in an abnormal condition, and must be reformed," and while they admit that the Republican party is not agreed upon the method of effecting this reform, yet the Democratic party, they urge, is not any more ready: "Neither party, as such, yet sees clearly the right way." Yet two reasons are visible for believing that the Republicans can deal with the question better than their rivals. In the first place, as the former have at one time and another found their way through greater difficulties than this, so they may be supposed more able than the Democrats to dispose of this one. In the second place, the country may feel sure that when Republicans discover the true way they will pursue it, but that the Democrats will do as much there is nobody to go bail. The method adopted with respect to the cheap-transportation controversy is better than might have been expected. A glance is given at the great bulk of our agricultural products and at the need of getting them as cheaply as possible to the sea, and then brief consideration is bestowed on the various expedients for doing this. The first mentioned is the proposal for State regulation of the rates of fare and freight, and it is observed that "the objections to it are so serious that it should not be embraced if a better can be found. . . This country, so new, so raw, needs capital, and any policy which would tend to drive capital from us should be avoided if possible." Yet if on the one hand the people of the State, who are the purchasers of transportation, are eager to buy it as cheap as they can, and even to buy it cheaper than they ought, on the other hand the railroad companies, the sellers of transportation, naturally wish to get as much as possible for their commodity, more perhaps than they ought. What, then, shall be done? The interests of both purchaser and seller are closely intertwined and practically identical, and it may be hoped that a way will be hit upon—but by the Republicans of course, not by the Democrats, who traditionally hate all internal improvements.

The charges against Mayor Havemeyer have been formally presented to Governor Dix, who has sent him notice of them and called on him to answer. Since then the old gentleman has been pestered by reporters wanting to know what he is going to do, and he meets their attacks with his usual gaiety, pretending not to be troubled and pleading ignorance of nearly everything unpleasant in his position. People think, he says, that the charges against him are "a big thing"; "but a balloon is a big thing, and yet the prick of a pin will let the gas out of it," and then he chuckles over his own joke. His excuse for reappointing Charlick and Gardner is that the families of these men are disgraced by their conviction, and he owes it to their children to rehabilitate them, which is also a good joke; but it shows that Havemeyer with all his folly is a man of his time. In fact, he furnishes a very interesting illustration of the way in which what we may call the Tweed "style" has taken possession of men in politics in all parts of the country. A jaunty, indifferent air, in the practice of which Tweed was a great master, a tone of contempt for newspaper and other criticism, an affected ignorance of the commoner subjects of popular excitement and indignation, and an ostentatious devotion to all colleagues and subordinates, under all circumstances and in defiance of all charges, as "comrades" or "brother officers," and a readiness to meet all pursuit of them by promotion or translation to a fresh place, are among the characteristics which a large number of men in public life now seem to take a pride in. It is a fashion which will speedily pass away, and strikingly resembles, on a lower plane, the tone Palmerston for a few years introduced into public life in England. That Havemeyer should have caught it so readily in his old age shows how subtle and penetrating such an influence is. Among the chief fosterers of it in this country are General Grant, General Butler, Senator Conkling, Boss Tweed of course, and Boss Shepherd, and they have a host of smaller followers. One of the most amusing recent exhibitions of it was Senator Howe's affected ignorance, towards the close of the moiety investigation in the Senate, of anything wrong with Jayne. He did not know what all this fuss was about; all he could learn of Jayne was that he had collected so much money for the Government, etc., etc.

Mr. Henry Ward Beecher's determination, which he seems to have reached immediately upon the appearance of the Tilton letter, to have the matter investigated by a committee of his own church, has given a good deal of relief to multitudes who are deeply interested in having his good name preserved, if for no other reason, because they believe that the fair fame of such a man as he cannot be destroyed without serious injury to things of more importance than any man's fame. The investigation is, at this writing, in progress, and the committee give the public to understand that it is thorough, and that the doors are open to all Mr. Beecher's accusers. We mean to cast no imputation on the committee when we say that the result, if favorable to Mr. Beecher, would be more satisfactory if some of the members did not belong to Plymouth Church, and if they had not all been selected by himself. The community as well as the church is interested in the matter, and ought to be represented. This would be true even if there was not in every church a good deal of ordinary mundane *esprit de corps*, which is not a judicial quality.

The white men of New Orleans have recently held a political meeting, which was so well attended that newspapers friendly to the cause asserted it to have been a very large gathering. Considering the fact that Louisianians have of late seen fit to make more than one formal appeal to their fellow-citizens at the North for protection, sympathy, and support, we doubtless are free to say that the white people of New Orleans are yet in some ignorance as to the condition of Northern opinion, and that they had better let the Democracy carry a few more important States before they placard such sentiments as make up the manifesto of the Crescent City White League. Much that is said is well said; but to tell the truth, the document cannot be read without feeling as if its authors were impatient young White Leaguers, with their fingers on the triggers of their pistols, and all ready, if not more than ready, for another 1866 riot of vastly larger proportions. They declare that once there was a time when they thought the negro could be induced by persuasion to see that his interests were identical with those of his white fellow-citizens, but it is long since they have been forced to discard that vision. Everywhere around them they see "the most absurd inversions of race." Negroes are not only incessant in demanding offices for which they have no qualification except the color of their skin, but in their conventions they develop a spirit of proscription against all white men including Republican ex-soldiers; the negro arrogance knows no bounds; and "the hereditary civilization of Louisiana is threatened and menaced by a stupid Africanization," for nothing less is intended than to drive every white man out of the State, and to make of it a second Hayti. Under these circumstances, "it is worse than idle to reason with these people," and what the address proposes, almost in so many words, is a league of white men pledged to fight, if need be, for their liberties against negro insolence and despotism, and apparently expecting that the fight may begin at no distant day.

While all this appears to be, as political action, extremely ill-judged, and certainly will meet with commendation from few or no people at the North, and especially from no persons of political influence, we may properly bear in mind that it is frank, whereas it need not have been; and that the provocation has been tremendous.

Here, for instance, is how Gov. Kellogg collects the taxes, the collection of which is the proof of how fond of him the Louisianians are:

"That of the taxpayers who are now or shall become delinquent by the non-payment of taxes on real estate, as is provided for in this act, and shall have been so returned upon the rolls of the tax collector to the auditor of public accounts, the auditor shall publish in the official journal of the parish in which such delinquent resides, or by public notice when there is no official journal, by three insertions within ten days, the name, residence of, and amount due from such delinquent taxpayer; and such delinquent taxpayer shall, after thirty days, *forfeit his right to bring suit or be a witness for or in his own behalf before any justice, parish, district, or State court; and every court having jurisdiction within the State shall deny and refuse to issue a civil process of any kind or nature whatever in his own name or for his own benefit*, until he shall, if a resident of the parish of New Orleans, have procured from the auditor of public accounts, or, if a resident of a country parish, from the tax collector thereof, a certificate setting forth that all such claims for delinquent taxes and costs thereon against said delinquent taxpayer have been paid."

In other words, if McEnery does not pay his taxes to Kellogg, he is made an outlaw.

The announcement that he is going home to Ireland will be the first news to the greater part of the public that Mr. John Mitchel, one of the Irish agitators of 1848 and the years just preceding, and afterwards a resident of this country, has still been living here. When he first came over in 1854, the ardor of the Slievegammon days and the Slievegammon Funds had somewhat abated, but there yet remained a welcome for men like Mitchel not only from his countrymen, but also from many Americans. It is not now quite as it was then; witness the experience of Rochefort and Bradlaugh; but at that time it was inconceivable that any rebel (so he was white) against any government anywhere in the world, should not be received with effusion at first, and afterwards, if he behaved himself, or if he misbehaved himself with judgment, assisted to get on his legs again and succeed. Mr. Mitchel, however, was an inconsiderate man, of a senseless violence of thought and speech, of an overbearing, arrogant disposition, and with an opinion of himself and his importance which he was very soon almost alone in entertaining. He set on foot here in New York a paper called the *Citizen*, but he made little or nothing of it, and by-and-by, with his usual skill in discovering the main streams of public life and thought, he became a characteristically bitter and headlong advocate of pro-slavery doctrines. Many of his American friends who would have hailed a victory, or a hatful of them, at Slievegammon, and would have liked to see the Republic of Ireland proclaimed, with Meagher of the Sword at the head of the army for the invasion of England, he disgusted by his well-chosen declaration that he would be very glad of an Alabama plantation stocked with good fat niggers. Nor was his warmth of zeal especially pleasing to the Southerners, among whom he desired to cast his lot. In short, he was a new-comer, unfitted for anything but dabbling in politics, and very ill fitted for that except as an unbridled tongue could fit him, who made himself injudiciously busy, and whose behavior was suspected to discover as little sincerity as modesty or good sense. During the war he was a secessionist, and we dimly remember that at or towards the end of it he contrived to make a disturbance by getting a newspaper, of which he was the slashing editor, into difficulties with the Government. He now goes back to Ireland with the avowed intention of trying to get into Parliament as a Home Ruler. We believe he goes back with an unfulfilled sentence still hanging over him, but his hopes of martyrdom are probably slender. He is an unfavorable specimen of a poor breed from whom Ireland has probably suffered more than she will suffer again, but whose existence is not the less to be regretted.

On Wednesday week there would have been another "ministerial crisis" at Versailles if it were not for the determination of Marshal MacMahon, to which we have already referred, to govern in the Prussian and not in the English way—that is, to consider the ministry responsible to him and not to the Assembly. Accordingly, after a motion of the Legitimist, M. Lucien Brun, regretting the suspension of the *Union* by the Government had been negatived, another by M. Paris, of the Right Centre, declaring that the Assembly upheld the Septennial powers of the President of the Republic, and, reserving the other questions submitted to the Constitutional Committee, passed to the order of the day, was put and lost by 368 to 331, whereupon the ministry tendered their resignations, and Marshal MacMahon refused to receive them. The Marshal, who is evidently getting rather tired of the performances of the Assembly, on the following day sent it a message, in which he declared that the Assembly, in giving him the executive power for seven years, "imposed duties on him for which he was accountable to France, and from which he could in no case be permitted to withdraw," and that these powers were irrevocable. He then said that it must go on and complete its work, that the Assembly could not meditate tearing up its engagements, and that the country demanded "the organization of the public powers" and "the settlement of reserved questions." An attempt was then made to dissolve the Assembly as incompetent to perform the work demanded by the Marshal, but it failed, and the motion was referred to the Committee on Parliamentary Initiative, in which there is a Radical majority.

On Friday, M. Fourtou, Minister of the Interior, appeared before the Committee of Thirty, which is charged with the drafting of constitutional bills, and explained in detail the Marshal's views as to what "the organization of the Septennat" meant. He is prepared to accept the plan of a Second Chamber, in which he should have the power of nominating a large proportion of the members; but insists that members of the Assembly should be elected by districts, and not on a general ticket as now, and that he should have the power of dissolving the Lower Chamber. There appears to be no serious opposition to all this, except among the Legitimists, who are very downcast—probably over the revelation recently made by the London *Times's* correspondent (apparently on information received from the Duc de Broglie), that the restoration last year was frustrated by the mulish obstinacy of the Count de Chambord with regard to the white flag, the appearance of which as a substitute for the tricolor Marshal MacMahon declared would "cause the chassepots to go off of themselves."

There is little news from Spain, but what there is is favorable to the Carlists, who gain rather than lose ground. There are no fresh signs of a definitive organization of the Government. The present one is in the meantime meeting the financial difficulties of the situation, which are of course very great, by subjecting the national creditors to another swindling process. The Spanish bondholders have for nearly thirty years been objects of pity on the Exchanges of London and Amsterdam; they now seem likely to become objects of contempt as well. Our readers may remember the compromise with them which was entered into over a year ago, and which was explained at the time in the *Nation*, and which, passing over details, may be best described as the process known among defaulting railroads in this country as "funding your coupons." The Government creditors were in short asked to fund their overdue coupons in a five per cent. bond, secured by a deposit of certain mine and national land certificates. The bonds issued were for much less than the amount due, and under the most favorable circumstances the creditors would have lost heavily. But it now turns out that even this poor compromise will not be executed. The promised security for the bonds has not been put up, and the creditors will receive nothing. In the meantime, the return of Serrano to Madrid has been taken by the British Government as a sign that the Government is sufficiently strong to bear a peremptory application for redress for the shooting of the British subjects found among the crew of the *Virginius*. This was made by the Liberal Ministry, and Lord Derby is now pressing it. The difficulty of "the Republic" in meeting it will be considerably aggravated by the fact that the officer who committed the butchery at Santiago has since been promoted.

THE GRANGER METHOD OF REFORM.

THERE is no doubt that there was to be found in railroad management plenty of reason for great dissatisfaction on the part of the public before the Granger movement had ever been heard of. Rings among the managers of the roads, for the purpose of defrauding the company by making contracts with it, or furnishing it supplies above the market rates, had become shamefully common. So had the practice of stockjobbing on the part of directors. So bad dishonest secresy, and equivocation in the transaction of its business; but from all these things it was the shareholders who suffered. The things of which the public had to complain were the corrupting influence of corporations on the State legislatures; the corrupt discriminations made in freight charges in favor of particular persons, with whom the officers of the roads had a secret understanding; the occasional raising of charges in the absence of competition, and occasional failures to lower them as much as the abundance of business would have warranted; a general want of civility and of a spirit of accommodation on the part of railroad officials. But of all these causes of dissatisfaction, the charges for freight and passengers were the most trifling. Few, if any, roads charged exorbitantly or even unreasonably. The mass of railroads did not indeed charge enough to pay ordinary interest on their cost, and that none were really extortionate was shown by the rapid growth of the country in wealth and population along all the great lines. The first great fuss about railroad charges originated with the seaports on the Atlantic, which were competing for the business of supplying the West with manufactures and exporting its produce. It was and is of the last importance to Boston, New York, and Philadelphia to draw the Western custom to their own wharves and warehouses, and they have therefore all three been for years filling the air with speculations as to the best mode of making transportation cheap for the Western farmers. In the course of these speculations the railroads naturally came in for a good deal of abuse, and it was the earliest abuse which they received, and the fight between these cities was one with which the Western farmer for years never thought of meddling. Indeed, there was no occasion for his meddling, because he had the market to himself for a good while. As long as he stood within reasonable distance of the seaboard, he had no difficulty not only in beating all the Eastern States out of cattle-raising and grain-growing, which he did very speedily, but in beating all competitors out of the European market. Accordingly, it was a matter of perfect indifference to him where his produce was shipped, and he left the New York and Boston and Philadelphia "speculators" to sweat over the problem of cheap carriage.

When, however, the Government began the policy of offering the public lands at low rates to settlers, so as to entice "the pauper laborers of Europe" to this country, and the various States began, with the hearty support of the public, to subsidize and otherwise encourage the construction of railroads running out into the wilderness, so as to force the settlement of these lands, the crisis which we are now witnessing was prepared. This policy was equivalent to the offer of a heavy bounty on agricultural products, and it has forced into the business of farming in the West an enormous and of course undue proportion of the labor of the country. It has done this, too, to the serious injury of our civilization and politics, because the cheapness of land and the facility of transportation have led to the scattering of inhabitants over areas so vast that the educating influence of density of population—one of the most valuable—is lost.

As soon, of course, as corn and other produce began to be raised in greater quantities than could be disposed of in the home markets, and at such distances from the European markets as to be unable to bear the cost of transportation, the cheap-freight problem began to occupy the farmer's mind seriously. For some years, when he had to burn his corn as fuel, the Eastern manufacturers tried to persuade him that all that was needed in the way of remedy was to raise the tariff so as to bring "the toiling millions of Europe" over here to eat his produce, and this, with the feverish demand kept up by the war, pacified him for a while. But as railroads continued to be built, and as settlers continued to push out in the wilderness, and the wilderness to be held up to admiration as the paradise of the young man, and "the hardy pioneer" to be painted as among the noblest of the race, the want of a market became more and more pressing, and the Western farmer more and more sensible that he had somehow got into a false position. And he *had* got into a false position. He had produced too much, in a reckless way, under the influence of applause and encouragement from people who had not weighed their words, and he is now suffering from a glut which nothing but a restriction of cultivation, until population grows up to the level of that now going on, will cure. In other words, farming and colonization have been overdone in the United States. The farmer has shared in the folly of the railroad-builders; but instead of meeting the situation patiently and bravely, he is looking around in the most comic way for somebody to throw the blame upon, or force into saving him from the consequences of his own mistakes. It was said after the panic last fall that we were suffering from the consequences of a railroad debauch; it may be said with equal truth that we are suffering from a land debauch. The poor railroad man is, however, pocketing his losses, and going quietly to work again in the hope of better times; the farmer, on the contrary, seems disposed to occupy himself while he is waiting for a market by robbing on the highway.

The way in which he and his friends are just now trying to conceal from themselves and the public the real nature of the interesting and instructive economic crisis through which the West is passing, has been well illustrated by a paper which Mr. W. C. Flagg, a farmers' champion from Illinois, read before the Social Science Association in this city last May, which that body is going to print among its transactions, and which Mr. Flagg was invited to deliver before the students by the President of Cornell University, at the last commencement, and which he did deliver, if correctly reported, with numerous aggravations. We refer to it because it is the only attempt we know of to make a formal statement of the farmers' wrongs. In it the American farmer—the hardy, independent, and intelligent freeholder of whom the country has been boasting for ninety years, and who really has made it what it is—is treated as the regular successor of the mediæval serf and villein, and as the equivalent and companion in misfortune of the English hinds now striking for higher wages. The American farmer is imitating Wat Tyler, and Jack Cade, and Jacques Bonhomme, we are told, in rising against his feudal masters; and, looking around for these masters and not knowing exactly who they were, he has decided it must be "the railroads and the middlemen," says Mr. Flagg, "and subsequent discussion has shown he was not far wrong." Mr. Flagg goes on to enumerate the "farmers' grievances," the first of which is that while the manufacturing, mining, and industrial wealth of the country has increased eleven per cent. per annum, the agricultural wealth has increased only four per cent. per annum between 1860 and 1870, which he gravely told the young men at Cornell "constituted a most serious charge against the political economy of the country." The second "grievance" is that, while Congress contains only one farmer to every 228,000 farmers in the country, "trade and transportation" furnish one of the class engaged in them to every 26,000 persons; "professional and personal pursuits" furnish one to every 10,800; manufacturing, mechanics, and mining one to 208,000. The result is, he says, that "freights from the West to the seaboard pay or are compelled to pay a heavy tax over and above the necessary cost of transportation." Another grievance is that banking and other moneyed corporations are allowed to make twenty per cent. on their capital, while farming pays only four. We cannot go through the whole list. Since the clubs were closed in Paris in 1871, we have not read a more extraordinary production presented in the guise of a contribution to political economy or "social science."

The attack on the railroads in Wisconsin, without the least re-

gard to the facts or figures of the case, is a legitimate outcome of the agitation which has been going on for the last two years. This agitation received its first stimulus, as we have said, and its only legitimate one, from some of the recent revelations of railroad fraud and mismanagement, beginning with the Erie revelations, and including those of the Crédit Mobilier affair. The second came from the anticipations entertained by the Liberal Republicans, who were disheartened at the result of their campaign, and by a considerable portion of the Republican party who voted for Grant under a sort of compulsion and longed for the formation of a respectable opposition, that the Granger movement would develop into a reform party, and would attack all existing abuses, including, as the free-traders thought, the tariff. We ceased to share these hopes almost from the outset, because it was quite plain from the earliest utterances of the organization that its mind was set on getting its goods carried to market cheaply by *somebody*, and that all it had to say about other concerns was buncombe. Its very earliest act, as we now see, is to add an enormous aggravation to one of the grossest and most dangerous abuses of American politics, and the one which reformers of all shades of opinion have for a long time been trying to uproot, viz., the power of legislatures over corporations. It is well known that there is not a legislature at the North which this power has not in some degree debauched. In this State and in Pennsylvania it had almost destroyed the government, reducing the legislators to the status of mere lacqueys or nominees of speculators. Jay Gould testified that the purchase of legislators was a regular department of his business, and the revelations of Harrisburg were hardly less noisome than those of Albany, and yet all that legislatures have hitherto been asked to do is to grant charters and amendments to charters. In Wisconsin, and in Illinois and Iowa and Minnesota, however, the practice has actually been begun of authorizing the legislature to raise and lower railroad charges, practically without limit, from year to year, thus giving the members a power which will, according to all experience, make them purchasable as cattle; and that railroad managers will deal in them hereafter almost as freely as in stocks, no intelligent man need to be told. The attack on property in which the movement has resulted, is therefore really its least serious feature. Property in such large masses as the railroads has never yet in this country failed to take care of itself in the long run. What we have most to fear from it is a still deeper degradation of politics, by an enormous aggravation of the existing venality, and of the fatal disease of the European democracy, which consists not only in imputing all the evils of one's condition to the government, but in expecting all improvement from it.

WHY PEOPLE LIKE TO LIVE ABROAD.

ABOUT this time there is every year a great deal of discussion of the best mode of spending the summer, and the course of the people who go to Europe, instead of submitting to the discomfort and extortion of American hotels, is for the most part greatly commended. The story told about the hotels and lodging-houses is the same every year. The food is bad, the rooms uncomfortable, and the charges high. This year there is an additional wail over the growing dislike of "country places"; land along the Hudson is declining rather than rising in value; most of the "mansions" and "country seats" are in the market, or ready for it. The fashion, except perhaps at Newport and Beverly, near Boston, and one or two other highly favored localities, grows stronger and stronger, to live in the city in the winter and spend the three hot months in France or England or Switzerland. Moreover, the accounts which come from Europe of the increase in the number of American colonists now to be found in every attractive town of the Continent, are not exactly alarming, but they are sufficient to set people thinking. The number of those who pass long years in Europe, educate their children there, and retain little connection with America beyond drawing their dividends, grows steadily, and as a general rule they are persons whose minds or manners or influence makes their prolonged absence a sensible loss to our civilization. Moreover, when they come back, they find it difficult to stay, and staying is not made easy for them. People here are a little suspicious of them, and are apt to fancy that they have got out of sympathy with American institutions, and have grown too critical for the rough processes by which the work of life in America has in a large degree to be done. They themselves, on the other hand, besides being soured by the coldness of their reception, are apt to be disgusted by the want of finish of all their surroundings, by the difficulty with which the commoner and coarser needs are met in this country, and by the reluctance with which allowance is made by legislation and opinion for the gratification of unusual or unpopular tastes. The result is a breach, which is already wide, and tends to widen, between the class which is hard at work making its fortune and the class which has either made its fortune or has got all it desires, which is the same thing as a fortune. There is a good deal of work which this latter would like to do. There is a great deal of the work of legislation and administration and education for which it is eminently fitted, but in which, nevertheless, it has little or no chance of sharing, owing to the loss of the art of winning the confidence of others, and working with others, which is more easily learnt in America than elsewhere, and which is readily lost by prolonged residence in any European country, and the absence of which here makes all other gifts for practical purposes almost worthless. So that it must be said that the amount of intellectual and æsthetic culture which an American acquires in Europe is somewhat dearly purchased. When he gets home, he is apt to find it a useless possession, as far as the world without is concerned, unless he is lucky enough, as sometimes but not often happens, to drop into some absorbing occupation, or to lose his fortune. Failing this, he begins that melancholy process of vibration between the two continents in which an increasingly large number of persons pass a great part of their lives; their hearts and affections being wholly in neither.

What the remedy for this state of things is it would be hard to say. That it is not to be found in preaching patriotism is quite certain. There is something a little comic in many of the sermons one reads on this subject. People do not love home and country from a sense of duty, or through conviction, any more than they love their mothers, and therefore cannot be argued into it. No people in the world stay at home because they ought. They stay because they like it; and a country which becomes to a man an object of duty rather than an object of affection becomes speedily a bore, of which he is glad to be rid. Probably no remedy will be found soon. A good deal of the summer travel to Europe may be lessened by the improvement of accommodations at home. Country life may and doubtless will become more attractive through the improvement in the roads, the condition of which is what is killing country life in this part of the country. Men who have got used to Park roads in this city will not submit very long to live on the dirt roads which the country road-masters so laboriously repair every year by heaping up muck on them out of the ditches; but it is safe to say we shall witness before many years competition between neighborhoods in the making and repair of roads, as a means of enhancing the value of real estate. Good roads have made the fortune of Switzerland; they are making the fortune of Newport; and they would make the fortune of the Hudson River. A broad, well-kept macadamized route, running up to the Highlands, with occasional branches, and with good sidewalks, would bring back to real-estate owners, we have no doubt, the happy hopeful times of fifteen years ago. The condition of our country roads alone is enough to send any man to Europe in summer who loves either walking or riding. We need a state of things in which a man need not possess horses of matchless speed to prevent people "giving him their dust."

The remedy for the mania for *living* abroad is a more elaborate one, and one needing more time for its creation. No country retains the hearty affection of its educated class which does not feed its imagination. The more we cultivate men, the higher their

ideals grow in all directions, political and social, and they like best the places in which these ideals are most satisfied. The long and varied history of older countries offers their citizens a series of pictures which stimulate patriotism in the highest degree; and it will generally be found that the patriotism and love of home of the cultivated class is in the ratio of the supply of this kind of food. They are languid among the Russians, and among the Germans prior to the late war, as compared to the English and French. In default of a long history, however, historic incidents are apt to lose their power on the imagination through over-use. The jocose view of Washington and of the Pilgrim Fathers, of Bunker Hill and of the Fourth of July, already gains ground rapidly among us, through too great familiarity. When Professor Tyndall, in one of his lectures here, made an allusion which he meant to be solemn and impressive, to Plymouth Rock, its triteness drew a titter from the audience which for a moment confounded him. Unluckily, history cannot be made to order. It is the product of ages. The proper substitute for it, as well as for the spectacular effects of monarchy, in new democratic societies, is perfection. There is no way in which we can here kindle the imaginations of the large body of men and women to whom we are every year giving an increasingly high education so well as by finish in the things we undertake to do. Nothing does so much to produce despondency about the Republic, or alienation from republican institutions, among the young of the present day, as the condition of the civil service, the poor working of the Post-office and the Treasury or the courts, or the helplessness of legislators in dealing with the ordinary every-day problems. The largeness of the country, and the rapidity of its growth, and the comparatively low condition of foreign nations in respect to freedom, which roused people in Fourth-of-July orations forty years ago, have like the historical reminiscences lost their magic, and the material prosperity is now associated in people's minds with so much moral corruption that the mention of it produces in some of the best of us a feeling not far removed from nausea. Nothing will do so much now to rouse the old enthusiasm as the spectacle of the pure working of our administrative machinery, of able and independent judges, a learned and upright bar, a respectable and purified custom-house, an enlightened and efficient Treasury, and a painstaking Post-office. The colleges of the country and the railroads, and indeed everything that depends on private enterprise, are rapidly becoming objects of pride; but a good deal needs to be done by the Government to prevent its being a source of shame.

Correspondence.

MAGNANIMITY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your article on "Universities in Politics," there is put into the mouth of Gen. Bartlett a bit of ethics which needs explanation, viz., "that *all* who shared in it [the war of the rebellion], victors or vanquished, *helped to save the country* and establish its government."

When Israel Putnam killed that noted wolf, did he and the wolf *together* help to save the neighboring sheep and establish their security?

To answer that the rebels were not wolves is not pertinent: First, because the wolf thought his right to eat sheep a good one; the wolf ate or ever man owned. Secondly, because the true and only question is, Whether the wolf, in fighting Putnam, *a fortiori* helped to save the sheep?

It seems to me that we are applying our slipshod good nature, under the name of magnanimity, to the persons lately in rebellion. It is the same spirit that you are wont to call sentimentalism—the spirit that says of every criminal: "Poor fellow! let him out of prison; with his disadvantages, we should have done as he did."

Whether we speak of God's government, or use the phrase of the now numerous all-knowing ones who call it the natural evolution of morals, the fact remains that a crime is never forgotten in that evolution—its vibrations continue always.

Every man who drew sword or shouldered musket to break down the Union committed a crime, greater or less according to his knowledge or his ignorance. I will be second to no one in advocating the full forgiveness of that crime, and in aiding its perpetrators to regain prosperity and happiness; for revenge is base, and has nothing to do with a proper distinction between vice and virtue. To recognize crime, yet forgive and aid the criminal, is magnanimous. To put vice on a level with virtue is to be morally weak.

Others may think as they please; whenever I look on those tablets in Memorial Hall, I shall say: These men died in upholding the right against the wrong. T.

[Our version of the story is this: Putnam and the wolf had been for a great many years sharing the guardianship of the sheep, and on perfectly friendly terms, and holding the flock in common, and under a formal agreement as to the division of duties and profits. They finally differed on various points, and the wolf grew more and more cantankerous and threatening, and finally announced his determination to take his half of the flock and withdraw, which Putnam declined for various reasons to permit, and both parties then agreed to settle it by a fight, but not with deadly weapons, for Putnam declared at the outset that his object was not to kill the wolf, but to bring him to reason, and compel him to continue in the partnership. They accordingly fought, and the wolf got a tremendous cudgelling, and cried for quarter, and agreed not only to go on with the business on the old footing, but never to propose a dissolution of the partnership again, and to perform all the duties and lead the life of a sheep dog. Putnam was very glad to settle the matter on these terms, and always said that inasmuch as he had to live with the wolf, and raise sheep in conjunction with him, and rely on him for a considerable share of the watching, and really at heart respected and esteemed him, he felt that his true policy was to treat him well, and do what he could to soothe and pacify him, and that he must admit that the wolf's straightforward course in fighting it out, and then loyally submitting when he was beaten, was the means of giving a great increase of security to the common property. Being asked, too, whether the wolf had not committed "a crime," and was not therefore unpardonable, he said that as there was no court in which a wolf was triable, he did not see that there was any use in talking about his "criminality." Moreover, he said, there was not much use in debating his conduct as a question of morals; because unhappily a large part of the civilized world thought it at least excusable, and nobody denied that, had he succeeded and got off with the sheep, he would have been considered a very fine fellow. This, we imagine, is the story which our correspondent had in mind, though he has reported it somewhat inaccurately.

As regards the general question of dealing with the South, we hold that anybody who persists in treating and thinking of the persons lately in rebellion "as criminals" is a true sentimentalist; as the object of war against the South was not punishment, in the legal or moral sense of the term. The term punishment, applied to large bodies of men, if it means anything, means vengeance, and vengeance which involves the slaughter of thousands of human beings and the devastations of vast tracts of territory, is an act only worthy of savages. The term, even when used in municipal legislation, does not any longer mean to enlightened persons the infliction of suffering by way of expiation or satisfaction for moral guilt. It denotes simply a means taken by society to protect itself against violence and outrage. Society, as such, knows nothing about moral guilt, because it knows nothing about the state of men's hearts. It only knows that certain precautions are essential to the preservation of life and property, and it takes them. The question of guilt it leaves to the Supreme Ruler. So, also, in the dealings of a nation with a hostile power seeking its destruction. It wages war against it, not in virtue of any divine mission or abstract right, but for the purely utilitarian purpose of self-defence. The North fought against the South, not for the purpose of dealing out retribution, but for the purpose of saving the Union, and under the influence of a well-settled conviction that the Union was so valuable that it was better that 500,000 men should perish than that it should be broken up. To call the war a process of "punishing criminals," in virtue of some inner light as to abstract right and

wrong possessed by the North, is to compare the Northern people to the hosts of Simon de Montfort or the Duke of Alva. The Northerners occupied no such position. They were civilized modern men, who, as Cromwell said, "knew what they were fighting for, and loved what they knew." They were not crusaders or propagandists. In other words, they applied to their undertaking the simple test of *expediency*, the virtue, and indeed the obligation, of which in all such cases has been fully expounded by Burke, and more recently by Austin. Of course, fighting because it is expedient does not prevent a man's believing in the justice of his cause and warming into enthusiasm over it. But it does prevent his setting himself up as the vicegerent of God, and undertaking to reveal the secrets of his enemies' hearts and pronounce whether they were honest. There have been many occasions in European warfare in which both parties sang *Te Deums* for the same battle. Let us be thankful if we can avoid such absurdities here.

If this was the Northern position in the war, the proper policy now to be pursued towards Southern men is easily inferred from it. A man who asks himself: "Why did I go down and kill Southerners during the years 1861, '62, '63, '64? Was it because I was sent by God to inflict punishment on the wicked, or because their conduct hurt my feelings?" and who answers: "I killed Southerners because they were trying to break up the Union, the permanence of which I believe to be in the highest degree valuable both to the human race and to the American people, and with which all my own hopes and affections were bound up, and because I believed its preservation essential to the happiness and prosperity of all parts of the Union," has no difficulty in determining what his treatment of Southerners, now that the war is over, should be. He says at once, "I fought to bring the Southerners back into the Union, or, in other words, to force them to be my fellow-citizens. I succeeded; they are my fellow-citizens, and as such I owe them whatever treatment is necessary to secure their attachment to me and to my country, by forgiveness of injuries, oblivion of past grounds of offence, assistance in all times of danger, necessity, and tribulation, and a hearty co-operation in whatever seems likely to promote the safety, honor, and welfare of this nation." Burke has said that we cannot frame an indictment against a whole people. It might be added to this that no man is competent to sit in judgment on a whole people, and all talk of "crime" about the doings of millions of men is therefore irrelevant. When we say even that the course of the North was just, we mean simply that it seemed to us to be expediency in its highest form. We know there are persons among us who profess to be able to tell us what the absolute right of every question is, and who are ready to give their personal guarantee that God Almighty approved of the military operations of the United States against the Confederacy. But we do not argue with these gentlemen. Prophets always have their own way in debate. The question whether under this view we should be willing to commemorate the Southern dead in the Memorial Hall, is one which of course will occur to everybody; but the answer seems to us to be that the question is not one of conflicting duties, but of pure feeling. The Memorial Hall is an expression of reverence and affection. To put up tablets in it, therefore, to persons whom its builders do not reverence or love—*i.e.*, the Southern dead—would be a kind of absurdity difficult to describe, if it were not an act of hypocrisy.—Ed. Nation.]

A SOUTHERN VIEW.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In an admirable article in your issue of July 2, on the "Rôle of the Universities in Politics," you say justly: "We at the North owe to the civilized men at the South who are now, no matter what their past faults or delusions may have been, struggling to save a large portion of the Union from descent into heathen darkness and disorder, the utmost help and consideration. We owe them above all a free and generous welcome to a share in whatever means of culture we have at our disposal, and ought to offer it, as far as is consistent with our self-respect, in a shape that will not wound theirs."

You go on to consider the question whether the erection of the great hall at Harvard, "in memory of the graduates of the University who died in the war," would "tend to keep Southern students away from the University," and, in support of your conclusion that it would not, you refer to General Bartlett as having "uttered in a burst of unpremeditated eloquence, at the close of the proceedings" at the dedication of the hall, "the real reason why no Southern man need, and we hope never will, feel hurt by Northern memorials of the valor and constancy of Northern soldiers"—to wit, that "it is not altogether the cause which ennobles fighting; it is the spirit in which men fight"; and that "this test may be applied by each side to all the victims of the late conflict without diminishing by one particle its faith in the justice of its own cause."

These remarks of General Bartlett bring to my mind a conversation I had, at the time the building of the hall was determined on, with a classmate whose sympathies were with the North, as mine were with the South, during the war. It was his wish, he said, that the hall should be, to use your words just cited, Mr. Editor, "in memory of the graduates of the University who died in the war"; those on the Southern side, as well as those on the Northern. "But," said he, "the North is not yet ready for it; but the time will come when it will be ready."

It seems to me, judging from General Bartlett's speech and the *Nation's* article, as well as from a good many straws on the surface, that the time has come or is fast coming. What is to hinder the Northern alumni taking the thing into consideration between now and next commencement, thinking it over in all its bearings, and then coming prepared to unite in a cordial invitation to the friends of those who fell on the Southern side to put up tablets to their memory side by side with the tablets to those who fell on the Northern? I verily believe that such an invitation would be as cordially responded to, and that the tablets would be up before the commencement of '76; and then Northern and Southern alumni might meet on common ground, and rejoice together over a common heritage of glory. And would not this be *indeed* "a centennial monument worth having"?

I agree with General Bartlett that "the view of the nature of the struggle which is sure to gain ground all over the country as the years roll on, is that it was a fierce and passionate but inevitable attempt to settle at any cost a controversy which could be settled in no other way, and that all who shared in it, victors or vanquished, helped to save the country and establish its government on sure and lasting foundations." I recognize "the finger of God" in the result; not as deciding the right or wrong of either side, but as determining which side it was best for the welfare of humanity should succeed. If ever there was a just cause, it was that of Spartacus and his gladiators, but their success would have been the downfall of Roman civilization, and the shadow on the dial of human progress would in all probability have been set back by it fifteen generations, if not fifteen centuries.

E. J. Stearns.

Denton, Md., July 7, 1874.

Notes.

THE works, prose and poetical, of John Hookham Frere are to be issued in a new edition, of three volumes, by A. Denham & Co.——Scribner, Welford & Armstrong will publish shortly 'Bibliotheca Diabolica,' a catalogue of works relating to the Devil, "in two parts, pro and con, and serious and humorous; chronologically arranged; with notes, quotations, and proverbs, and a copious index." This can hardly be called dear at 25 cents. ——Dr. Fritsche's astronomical and hypsometrical observations in Northern China, Mongolia, and Mantchooria in 1869-72 are mapped roughly in No. 50 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal*, and more carefully in the current issue (May 20) of Petermann's *Mittheilungen* (New York: L. W. Schmidt).

—A South Carolina gentleman, writing to us from Fort Motte, speaks of the plan proposed by Mr. R. S. Guernsey (*Nation*, No. 470, p. 6) of "celebrating the centennial anniversary of national independence by inducing each State to publish a roll of its men both rank and file who fought to establish our national Government." Mr. Guernsey's plan meets with our correspondent's warm approval. He says: "Permit an old man who, in the evening of life, bears with him to the grave a national pride which no revolution of political partisanship can destroy, to express his great gratification at this movement. . . . There is want of organization in our unhappy South to move in this matter, but it may be that the paralyzed spirit of our people can be restored again to activity through the activity of other centres." As a means of aiding to bring about this result, our correspondent encloses to us for publication a copy of some memoranda made by a South Carolinian Revolutionary soldier, Mr. John Postell, a note-book of whose indit-

ing is in the possession of his descendants, and, as our correspondent conceives, contains exactly the kind of information which Mr. Guernsey's plan calls for:

"The following were companions and messmates in the Old Second Continental Regiment of South Carolina infantry, while William Moultrie was Colonel, Francis Marion, Lieutenant-Colonel, and Peter Horry, Major—at Sullivan's Island, S. C., June 1776.—(Sg.) JEHU POSTELL.

"*Alfred Hugér. 2d Lieut.* in Capt. Horry's company, 2d regiment S. C. continental regiment—afterwards Captain in same regiment—joined Marion's legion and commissioned Major in 1777. Killed at Stono, near Charleston.

"*William Capers. 1st Lieutenant* in Capt. Horry's Company, 2d regt. S. C. Continental troops, joined Marion and made Captain of the Santee Scouts. Served at Savannah, Fort Moultrie, Eutaw Springs, Rugely Mills, Charleston. As brave a man as ever God let live.

"*George Sinclair Capers. Private* in Horry's Company, 2d S. C. Regt.; joined Marion with his brother, generous, brave, and full of all manner of fun. He could make a royal rum-punch, and as good a swordsman as ever made point or cut.

"*Jehu Sinclair Postell. Private* in Horry's company 2d S. C. Regt.; after regiment disbanded in 1776, Jehu joined Capt. Capers' Dragoons with Marion—being my brother, I might say too much of him if I were to give his mannie qualities as a gentleman and a soldier. He was the strongest man in Marion's legion.

"*Daniel Eggleston. Lieut.* in Capt. Horry's company and *Cornet*, afterwards transferred to Huger's 2d Regt. S. C. troops. When regiment disbanded he joined Colonel Lee, and became Capt. of Cavalry—a fine fellow he was—and *Jehu Postell* who writes this, and has no more to say of himself.

"*P.S.*—I must not forget the boy *Peter*, whose freedome we give on condition of his faithfulness. He could laugh louder, sleep sounder, and drink more rum than any person I ever saw."

—Mr. T. W. Higginson has been guilty of "journalism" in the last number of the *Woman's Journal*. Journalism is a generic name which includes a great variety of offences. In this particular sense, it consists in citing or referring to something an opponent has said in such manner as to make it mean whatever it happens to be most convenient for your own side of the argument that it should mean. The *Evening Post* was guilty of it when it alleged that we had objected to its making "any mention whatever" of M. Rochefort's letter to the *Herald*, the fact being that we had objected to its "treating his story of the Commune as worthy of credit." The New York *Times* was guilty of it when it said that the *Nation* "was of opinion that to assist a swindler to escape justice was quite right," the fact being that we had expressed an opinion favorable to the course of the Erie directors in compromising a civil suit brought against Gould, for less than the full amount of the damages claimed in the complaint. The offence is one which, in a well-drawn criminal code, would be put in the same category with robbing an orchard or hen-roost and milking other people's cows in the pasture for immediate personal use. That is, it indicates rather recklessness and *insouciance* than badness of heart, and all attempts to repress it should therefore be reformatory rather than punitive in their character. We subjoin, in parallel columns, the *corpus delicti* in Mr. Higginson's case:

[*The Nation.*]

In short, the position of conservatives is simply this: Woman's place in society, even in the most civilized countries—including her deprivation of certain employments; the greater importance attached to her purity than to man's; the objections to her active and public participation in the work of government; the nature of the marriage contract—is based on physiological considerations, the discussion of which is usually confined to professional journals and learned societies. We would rather not handle them in the newspapers or in the family circle. There are several objections of a grave kind to making them topics of common conversation among the young, and simple, and unlearned. But if you insist upon it, and upon treating our reticence as a sign of acquiescence in the serious changes you propose in our laws and manners, we certainly shall not be restrained by considerations of decency, and give you fair notice that we shall "invade your privacy" in a manner you will not like. We shall not sacrifice society to our squeamishness.

[Mr. Higginson's Rendering.]

The manner in which the New York *Nation* of June 25 treats those young girls who wish for higher education;—using toward them a coarseness of tone as brutal and discourteous as that which the *Nation* itself denounces in General Butler's speeches; and avowing the purpose not to be "restrained by considerations of decency," (p. 408,) *in attacking them, should they persist in petitioning for the best collegiate instruction, namely, that at Harvard and Yale;*—this is paralleled by many things that appeared in newspapers then held reputable, twenty-five years ago.

We supposed we had made it plain by punctuation that the foregoing description of "the position of the Conservatives" was put in the mouths of the persons now engaged or likely to be engaged in this physiological discussion—namely, such persons as Drs. Clarke, Maudsley, and others. If we have not done so, we presume the fault is ours; but, in any case, the interpretation of Colonel Higginson is a very aggravated case of journalism, particularly as the passage in which it was performed was devoted almost entirely to giving some account of a controversy actually raging, in which we have taken no part whatever, and as the small piece of quotation which he makes gives the rest of his remarks the appearance of being a mere paraphrase of ours. The phrase "invading your privacy" is quoted from Mrs. Howe's preface, in which she complains of Dr. Clarke's book as "an intrusion."

—If there be any marriage statistics in the last Census Report we have been unable to find them, and if they have been omitted it is an omission of some importance, because they would throw some useful light on the question of female education, and on the attempt which some persons are engaged in to reorganize society, on the theory that the body of women who will not or need not marry is so large that our social and political arrangements might safely be adapted to their needs. In default of statistics of our own, those of the last English census just issued are of considerable value, inasmuch as England is a country in which women find it vastly more difficult to get married than they do here. The population of England is 23,500,000 nearly. Of these 10,000,000 are under 20 years of age, and therefore may for political and social purposes be pronounced unmarriageable. Of the rest, 10,000,000 are either married, or widows or widowers, divided about equally between the sexes. The remaining 3,500,000 of unmarried marriageable persons over 20 are also divided equally between the sexes. Out of every 100 men in England over 20, 66 are husbands and 7 widowers, or 73 per cent. have been or are married. Of every 100 women of the same age, 61 are wives and 13 widows, or 74 per cent. have been or are married. In our recent article on the "Replies to Dr. Clarke," we estimated the percentage of women likely to marry at 70 or 80, which was, we now see, a close approach to the exact figure, even in an old country like England, in which marriage is difficult. We do not believe 80 is too high an estimate for the United States, so that what some of our women's-rights friends are really trying to do is to regulate female manners and education for 20 per cent. of the female population. We say *some* only, because many of the proposed reforms in female education would undoubtedly be a most valuable preparation for domestic life—*i.e.*, for the life which four women out of every five are destined to lead.

—It is something like a self-contradictory statement; but the *International Review* for July is as usual ill-edited, while as usual most of its articles are good. The table of contents is as follows: "William Cullen Bryant and his Writings"; "Coal and its Supply"; "Thirteen Years of Freedom in Italy"; "The Catholic Reformation in Switzerland"; "The New Revision of the English Bible"; "The Orthodox Church"; and the "Notices of New Books." This list, it is plain, is overweighted heavily with religious and semi-religious topics, and thus is badly made up for a table of contents of any international review of properly wide scope. From Professor E. B. Andrews's "Coal and its Supply" the general reader may get a notion of the disproportion that exists between the extent of our American coal-fields and those of other countries, the difference being vastly in our favor. This fact is usually looked upon by our citizens with hopefulness, not to say with a disposition to boast, as if we were ourselves somehow responsible for the coal-beds, or at all events for most of the better sorts of our carboniferous deposits. Professor Andrews, however, has found one American writer who has taken a more thoughtful view of the subject. "But," says this writer, a Mr. Macfarlane, "if we take a higher and more thoughtful view of the subject, we will observe the malevolence of that Providence which in its apparent anger has submerged beneath the ocean so much that might have benefited our race, or caused it to be eaten away through countless ages by the action of the waves, leaving only poor fragments to tell us of the much larger portions that have been removed. Hence we cannot doubt but that the earth, in its rocks as well as its soil, was cursed for our sake, and that far back in the geologic ages there was built up, by a Being who saw the end from the beginning, a mutilated planet as a fit habitation for a fallen race." This passage is another reminder of our good luck in escaping from the various beneficent Providences suggested from time to time by the philosophers, and in keeping on with the Providence whose malevolence seems so deplorable to Macfarlane. It is a pity indeed that three-quarters of our mutilated planet is covered with water instead of being rounded off with anthracite and cannel.

—Dr. Ray Palmer contributes to the *International* a biographical essay on Mr. Bryant and comments upon his poetry with zeal; but he has a subject whose main lines are not to be missed, and the essay is better than some of its indications would lead the reader to expect. "Thirteen Years of Freedom in Italy" is by Professor Angelo de Gubernatis, and the gist of it is that tourists who really wish to see the essential nature of the new, free Italy

should give less time to Italian monuments and the picturesqueness of Italian scenery and poverty, and should study with care the life and activity of Milan and of Turin—cities at which the traveller now takes but a glance as he passes eagerly southward to Florence and Rome and the Bay of Naples. It might be wiser; but tourists in these days go abroad neither for the purpose of instructing themselves, as once they did; nor of elevating the condition of the foreigner, as indeed they never did so far as we know; but of resting and amusing themselves. An article seeming more mature and solid than that of Professor de Gubernatis is the next one—"The Catholic Reformation in Switzerland." It is clear in its arrangement of facts and perhaps not the less to be trusted that it is the work of a writer (anonymous) whose sympathies and whose well-settled convictions are on the Protestant side. As illustrating at the same time the writer's clearness and the turn of his sympathies, we give the substance of his answer to a question supposed by him to be put by the reader—namely, Is this reformation a movement, *bona fide*, of Catholics, or is it but a demonstration carried on by old enemies of the Catholic Church, who seize on a small disaffection among the faithful to impose on the public by using the Catholic name? To this question he begins an answer by saying that the nature of the answer will depend altogether on the definition given to the term "Catholic." As every one knows, he says, Catholic polemics have two definitions of that term and two corresponding sets of statistics—one for assault, one for defence. Under the former, they speak of the 300,000,000 of Catholics in the world, of their voting strength, and so forth, and demand a proportionate share of the public moneys and the prison chaplaincies. Under the other, they protest against the unfairness of statistics setting forth Catholic crime and Catholic pauperism, and contradict reports of dissension in the Church by declaring all dissentients to be no Catholics at all or "half Catholics." In this latter view, says our author, if we regard as Catholics only the select, pure, and homogeneous sect, far from overwhelming in point of numbers, with whose members their pastors can find no fault, then the reformation is not a *bona-fide* movement of Catholics. But if we use language as it is ordinarily used, the movement is strictly a spontaneous movement among Catholics themselves, and already has accomplished a great deal in the way of freeing the Swiss Catholic from Ultramontanist dictation, and will accomplish more. We do not see in what respect the principle on which the Roman Catholics act in using, as above set forth, two definitions (to call them definitions) differs from the principle on which other religious bodies act in the same and similar cases. But the writer's remarks make it clear in what sense he gives his answer, and his answer with its supporting facts as set down by him in his article is worth attention. "The New Revision of the English Bible" is by Professor Fisher of Yale, and is readable, though it does not pretend to any newness of matter or any deep-going views. It puts plainly with sufficient illustrations the necessity of the Revising Board's not being so conservative in making changes as really to leave the present Authorized Version still in the field. Thus much labor would be lost and a great opportunity lost also. "The Orthodox Church," by the Princess Dora d'Istria, gives some account of the history and present condition of the Greek Church and its relations to Western Catholicism.

—*Brownson's Quarterly Review*, written wholly by its editor, contains nearly two hundred and fifty pages, and the quality of its contents offers no less evidence of the editorial vigor than the quantity. The article which will be of interest to most readers, is the notice of the Marquis de Chambrun's book entitled 'The Executive Power of the United States,' which is highly praised, though, of course, on some points issue is taken with the author's views. For instance, we agree with the author, says Dr. Brownson, that the abolition of the electoral colleges would clear away a practical absurdity; but we do not agree with him and some of our native politicians that the change would tend to break up the caucus system, weaken the tyranny of party, or give greater freedom of choice to the voter. There would remain the same motive for party organization as now, and as strong a reason for caucus nomination. Indeed, as things are now, under the present system, the electors count for nothing with the voters in a Presidential election; it is not to secure the return of the electors, but of the party candidate for the Presidency, that party machinery is employed as we see it and regret to see it. Pursuing the general subject, Dr. Brownson goes on to say that in times past he, in common with his countrymen, has declaimed against the strict party organization which obtains among us, but that now he knows well that party tyranny is a necessity of popular government. And this because, if the truth must be told, the democratic form of government is the most unnatural form of government under the sun. It is utterly opposed to the truth; the first family, the first school we visit, the first crowd in which we mingle, shows this;—the one or two lead, the great majority follow and do as they are bid. Hence a government democratic in form becomes practicable only when human nature is neutralized by party organization, party machinery, and party discipline. This is not a very new truth—it has been known that minorities always rule; nor a very fruitful lesson, for what it is desired to know is, how minorities can be made to rule better than they have hitherto; but our author's way of looking at political matters will be so fresh to so many American formula-swallowers, that to read what he writes would be highly medicinal to our political class in general. To go on: he says, in speaking of the "one-man power," or "Cæsarism," of which we used to hear a generation ago and are now hearing again, that the clamor about it he regards as both senseless and mischievous. The power of the Executive, already limited by the Senate's right of confirmation, has, within a few years, been still further limited by the tenure-of-office law. What has really happened is, that a Cæsaristic power has, by the course of recent events, been lodged in the hands of an irresponsible body of Representatives and Senators, who exercise the whole executive patronage for their own and their party's aggrandizement. We need not, however, speaking by the way, disguise from ourselves the fact that the President's power in this respect is in practice enormous. The worst of it is, responsibility has in a great measure disappeared. To illustrate Dr. Brownson's readiness to speak out his individual opinions, and the danger of his running at any moment from sense to whimsicality, we may quote his peculiar view of the nature of the right of secession: "We maintain," he says, "and have always, except for a brief moment before we had fully investigated the question, that the States had a right to secede if they chose—the same right that a sovereign has to abdicate; but we denied, and deny, that by seceding they became independent States, or territory independent of the United States. By seceding they lost their sovereign rights, which were held only in the Union, and became simply people and territory subject to the Union"—a doctrine of secession as agreeable to the South Carolinian ear as Sherman's guns themselves. Illustrative of this same sort of individualism and positiveness are some of the odd little book-notices, as for instance of 'Dame Dolores,' a book by a writer whose name is not given to the public: "We suppose we ought to know, and probably have known, who is the author or authoress of these charming stories, but if we have known we have forgotten. There is more pride than humility in publishing a book anonymously." There is nothing like having these things settled. There are six articles besides those which we have mentioned, "Count de Montalembert," "Gallicanism and Ultramontanism," and four others, each with its due amount of Brownsonism.

BURTON'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.*

WE have more than once taken notice of the new edition of Burton's 'History of Scotland,' of which the closing volumes have now been received. It may fairly be pronounced one of the most important and best-executed historical undertakings of our time. The complete history of any country is, in the rapid accumulation of materials and the stringent demands of criticism at the present day, a task which might well daunt the most courageous. And we can bestow no higher praise upon this book—none, that is, which better expresses its literary rank—than to say that neither England nor America possesses any complete history which can compare with this in merit; nor, in the English language, any modern nation of the European Continent, unless it be France. The author has traversed the seventeen centuries embraced within the scope of his work with a steady step and a clear eye, and produced a book which is from beginning to end at once readable and worth reading.

It was not to be expected that in so extensive and varied a field all portions should be done equally well; and we should say that, on the whole, the early period is less well done than the later. The author's temper is too cautious and his tone of thought too sceptical to be thoroughly satisfactory in a period which calls for a somewhat higher degree of imagination than he possesses. The results in these early chapters are very apt to be merely negative; the reader finds a thorough examination of the evidence, a clear and impartial statement of arguments on both sides, and a very sagacious consideration of them, and is then dismissed with the remark that the evidence warrants no conclusion. That this proceeds not from a lack of capacity to decide controverted points, but from a defect in historical imagination and an overconscientiousness as to going beyond the record, is abundantly proved from Mr. Burton's masterly treatment of controverted points further on, especially in the case of Mary, Queen of Scots. He has an eminently judicial mind, but it acts most freely in the clear light of distinctly historical times.

This most vexed of the moot questions of history, the guilt or innocence of Queen Mary, receives from Mr. Burton an almost disproportionate

*'The History of Scotland, from Agricola's Invasion to the Extinction of the last Jacobite Insurrection. By John Hill Burton, Historiographer-Royal for Scotland.' In eight vols. (and Index volume) 12mo. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1873.

attention. The entire fourth volume is devoted to the nine years (1560-69) between the death of Francis II. and the adjournment of the Commission of Enquiry held in England after Mary's flight thither. It is a remarkable piece of work. There is no aim at picturesqueness or dramatic effect, in which respect his treatment of it is strongly contrasted with Mr. Froude's (whom, by the way, Mr. Burton always mentions with respect). The result, however, is one which possesses all the most desirable elements of the dramatic and the picturesque. The career of Queen Mary is narrated with the greatest fulness and care, and the events are so grouped as mutually to illustrate each other and to help the reader to place himself at the point of view of a contemporary. The most scrupulous impartiality is observed, so that hardly a clue is given to the judgment which is about to be passed; and it is not until the simple and direct narration, by its own accumulation of evidence, has made her guilt almost self-evident, that the writer allows his own opinion to be seen. Neither does this appear to be the artifice of the advocate, but the logical process of one simply aiming to arrive at the truth. For example, in the account of the murder of Darnley, Mr. Froude, making use of the facts afterwards put in evidence, tells the events as they occurred (or are considered by him to have occurred), making free use of the casket-letters as unimpeachable evidence. Mr. Burton makes no allusion to these (although he does make some use of Crawfurd's concurrent testimony) until he reaches their discovery in the due course of his narration, constructing his story from independent sources, so that his argument up to this point depends in no way on their validity. This method he justifies by an interesting note (p. 253), which explains and illustrates his judicial method of treatment: "In the supposition that they are genuine, they were a secret between two criminals which did not yet begin to influence others; and it seemed to be the historian's proper duty to deal with what was known to, and consequently influenced, the actors at large on the political stage. From the 20th of June, 1567, however, the ruling power in Scotland took its stand upon the import of these letters; and it is therefore from that day that they properly become a part of public history."

Mr. Burton's style is strong and masculine, occasionally with a slight lack of finish which is not a great defect, and with a racy humor which lights up some of its most tragic chapters. This is nowhere more conspicuous than in the account of the intercourse between Mary and Knox—a juxtaposition which certainly has its comical as well as its serious side. "It occurred to him to put in a word of comfort founded on his domestic experience. Weeping was far from pleasant to him, and he could scarce stand that of his own boys when under paternal flagellation. But on the present occasion, that he should be assailed by tears was more unreasonable, the queen having no just cause of offence, since he had but spoken the truth, as his vocation craved of him. He was thrust for a time into an ante-room among the queen's ladies—a body for whom he had often expressed intense disgust, railing at their 'stinkin' pride' and the 'targetting of their tails and the rest of their vanity,' all calculated to 'provoke God's vengeance not only against those foolish women but against the whole realm.' The grim preacher was probably no more welcome to them than they to him; but he resolved to improve the occasion, and to this accident we owe a sentence of quaint and solemn moralizing which may fairly match with Hamlet's over Yorick's skull" (IV., p. 74). A favorite object of his sarcastic humor is Queen Elizabeth—he would be no Scotchman if he loved her. "The sacredness of the sovereign was to her the most imperious of human creeds. She had counted on it as absolute when she coquetted with her sister's subjects; they might go so far, but there was no risk of their going further. The leaders in Scotland had now committed the most awful crime that it lay within the compass of human wickedness to commit. Blasphemy against the Almighty was merely a rash use of words, doing nothing which penitence might not recall; but here was blasphemy put in practical and irretrievable shape against the representative of the Almighty upon earth" (p. 295). Again: "The other document was a letter of special instruction by Queen Elizabeth to her commissioners. These unhappy men, if they had not known all too well the voice which spoke to them, might well have said, in the voice of Scripture, 'Who is this that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge?' To abbreviate the meaning of sentences so adjusted as not to have a meaning is impracticable, and it would not aid the narrative to introduce such a document in full. It is more suitable as a study in royal or feminine correspondence than an aid to the reader, who could only be as much perplexed by its contents as were those to whom it was addressed" (p. 430). Better, in this vein, is what he says of Buchanan's instruction of the young king in the principles of government: "Buchanan was then at work upon his 'History'; and as he had some thirty fictitious kings to deal with, he was enabled to adjust the conduct and the fate of each to his own satisfaction. His 'History' became, indeed, what the French call the 'pièces justificatives' of his essay" (Vol. V., p. 139).

No portion of the work approaches the fourth volume in tragic interest, although every succeeding one has its episodes and characters as universally familiar and inexhaustibly fresh as this of Mary, Queen of Scots. Probably no field of history is so crowded with the names and events of romance as that embraced in these closing volumes; and all of these, Montrose, Claverhouse, Argyll, Prince Charlie, the Gowrie Conspiracy, the Murder of Archbishop Sharp, the Massacre of Glencoe, receive worthy treatment. The prevailing character of this later period, however, is serious and earnest. The great religious controversies, and the organizations and contests growing out of them, form the background of later Scotch history; the stern spirit of John Knox continued to inspire his nation. Able and successful as Mr. Burton is in the more stirring portions of his work, it yet seems to us that his favorite field is the great religious and political movements which grew out of the Reformation and out of the antagonistic phases which the reformed religion assumed in the two sister kingdoms.

Of subordinate topics, we will especially mention the manner in which architectural remains are turned to the purposes of history, and we will instance, besides the numerous discussions in the early volumes, the account of the Cathedral of Glasgow, in connection with the Glasgow Assembly (1638), Vol. VI., p. 222, both text and notes. We were inclined to think that historical geography was a weak point with Mr. Burton, and, as it is, he does not make of it nearly so much as we could desire. There is no general description of Scotland or of the relation of its history to its geography, and in particular we miss a clear view of feudal Scotland. There are, however, numerous scattered passages upon these points which, if collected in one, would make a very considerable amount, and these are all characterized by Mr. Burton's clear and vigorous treatment. We will mention particularly the account of the dominions of the Huntlys, Vol. III., p. 59, and Vol. VI., p. 206. The relations of the Isles to Scotland and Norway respectively, and indeed the whole treatment of the early international relations of these northern powers, are among the most striking and satisfactory portions of the work.

One of Mr. Burton's prominent habits of mind is his power of placing himself intellectually in the atmosphere of the events of which he is treating—one of the sources of his eminently fair and sagacious judgment. Thus, of the murder of Rizzio: "Much of the accusation and defence wasted on the characters of that age arises from the supposition that, like a well-principled citizen of the present day, any one hearing of an intended crime was expected to go and inform the police. People in the public world had too much anxiety about themselves to think of others, and only the strongest personal motives would prompt one to interfere with any act of violence. An attempt to thwart a crime by which his cause would profit might have justly exposed a man to the charge of insanity or gross duplicity" (IV., p. 151). Again, of the death of Archbishop Sharp: "A word, however, has yet to be said for those who have not thought fit to denounce this crime in the strongest language available for the purpose. It is common in history to use the term 'assassination' rather than 'murder' on such occasions. The practice is useful, as it separates two acts of different character from each other without conceding to either the palliation that may be conceded to casual slaughter in troublesome times. Private murder for personal revenge or for robbery is a different form of crime from the act by which a public man is put to death as a punishment for his political creed, and as a means of stopping his political career, even although it be done without any form of trial or other judicial procedure" (VII., p. 217).

Mr. Burton discusses somewhat elaborately the great question of the feudal supremacy of England; but the gist of his argument is found in the opening words of the second volume relative to the Treaty of Falaise (1174): "The much-desired infeudation of Scotland was now complete, at least on parchment. In the great homage dispute, on one side of it at least, a perverse pedantry has depended on ceremonies and writs instead of broad historical facts; as if all that a high-spirited people could gain by ages of endurance and contest might be lost by a slip of parchment. But it is odd that these pedantic reasoners should have overlooked how strongly this transaction bears against them. If the Scots people were really under feudal subjection to the Norman kings of England, what need to create that condition by a hard bargain with a prisoner? Or, supposing that the condition had really been established, and the King of Scots was a rebel, then the phraseology of the documents would undoubtedly have shown as much, and would have renewed or confirmed the past. What the conditions of the Treaty of Falaise do, however, is to create the new condition of vassal and superior from their date. They explain the opportunity and certify the use it is put to." A strong argument, it must be admitted, and clinched by Richard Cœur de Lion's revocation of the treaty in 1189.

A few slight errors may be pointed out. In Vol. II., p. 321, Louis X. of France, instead of Charles IV., is said to have died in 1328. On p. 344, Ro-

bert II. is spoken of as nephew, instead of grandson, of Robert Bruce. Vol. III., p. 8, King Christian I. is spoken of as if he were primarily King of Norway instead of Denmark. Vol. IV., p. 5, the Emperor Ferdinand is called Frederick. The book is handsomely and correctly printed, and possesses the great treasure of an index volume. Maps and plans would add much to its value, and so would a few tables of genealogy and of contemporary sovereigns.

RECENT WORKS ON MENTAL HYGIENE.*

WE group these three books together because the two latter, though they cover a wider ground, are yet in reality more important manuals of mental hygiene than the American volume which bears this exclusive title. This latter does not deal, like those of Ray, Feuchtersleben, etc., with didactic maxims, but is a concatenation of quotations, statistics, and propositions regarding the effect of different circumstances on the mental life, from which the reader is avowedly left to draw his own practical conclusions. Though it sadly lacks unity and smoothness, the original portions are well written, and the quotations make it entertaining. Many persons will probably find it useful, though we can by no means consider it in the light of a valuable contribution to knowledge. The wisdom of some of the author's ideas is more than questionable. Alluding to the fact that steam, electricity, and mechanical inventions "are superseding the necessity for the stalwart frames and heavy sinews which were in such prime demand a few years since," he says: "When the brain and nervous energies, backed by creations of mechanical art and skill, assume the countless tasks so long performed by human hands propelled by hardy muscles under the impetus of hardier wills, we may be pardoned for questioning the wisdom of continuing to maintain that degree of muscular development which obtained among our forefathers, as a necessity of a civilization which no longer exists." This surely is singular language for a physician to use. We believe, on the contrary, that the indirect benefits we shall get from "keeping up our muscle" (even supposing our author to be right in his idea that the new civilization will do away with any very urgent *economic* necessity for it), will be quite as important as its immediate mechanical uses have ever been; and that, if our race ever gets to disregard muscular strength as an element of human perfection, it will be far gone on the path of degeneration. A well-developed muscular system means something more than the ability to raise a given weight. It is apt to be correlated with calm nerves and strong digestion, with joyousness and courage of every sort, with amiability and all manner of sound affections and sensibilities. Society owes an immense debt to its nervous temperaments, its Shelleys, its J. S. Mills, and others. But who would not shrink from having the *type* grow strenuous and hectic like these? The old vascular and muscular breadth is better for the stock of human nature, and we trust that here in America we shall never lose the wholesome sense of this, but by the increasing interest taken in athletic sports and the honor paid to their heroes keep up in some degree that admiration for bodily perfection which maintains itself perforce in military and aristocratic societies, but which in an age of business and mere brain competition may easily decline without the support of a special æsthetic cultivation. Darwinism has begun to awaken people's consciences about the responsibilities of breeding in the human race; and we fancy that, before long, nervous brides and bridegrooms without jaws or shoulders will be rarer to meet than they unhappily are now.

In the admirable practical chapter at the end of Dr. Maudsley's book he says that the hereditary element holds the first place in the production of insanity, and that the neurotic or overnervous type, which is often the type of genius too, may be the first step in the downward career. He adds that the tendency often is to an intensification of this type by marriage:

"In the first place, those who have it are prone, by a sort of elective affinity, to seek in marriage persons who have similar mental qualities, and with whom therefore they have a sympathy of tastes, feelings, and thoughts. Emotional susceptibilities, wild flights of imagination, and idealistic aspirations excite their admiration and sympathy; while common sense, subordination of feeling, sober reflection, and a calm and regulated activity are repugnant to their nature. In the second place, by a similar natural affinity, they select those external circumstances of life . . . which are grateful to them, and so intensify their peculiar tendencies until these perhaps undergo a pathological development. In the third place, they apply to their children the same mismanagement which they apply to themselves. These are twice cursed: cursed in the inheritance of a bad descent, and in the training which they get," and too often they become finished lunatics.

To those who think that no evil seems worthy of that name when compared with the evil of insanity we cordially recommend Dr. Maudsley's excellent little volume. In it they will learn that the evil is not wholly beyond human power to avert, and that right breeding is one of the most important means to this effect; although he is less hopeful than we are that the quality of "sexual selection" may be gradually improved by enlightening public opinion on the subject. It is in the minority of cases that marriages are due to the blind and frenzied extremity of love. Once expose certain kinds of matches to public reprobation, and the parties will attract each other less. The current ideal of character for each sex is, like other æsthetic ideals, always in part a matter of fashion, and, like our beliefs, is largely obedient to the reflective consciousness we entertain of the excellence of cultivating them. We encourage a taste or passion or intellectual tendency by justifying and adopting it. We shake its power by doubting its dignity. And so if reflection, public fashion, the newspapers, and novels all begin to decry sensibility and refinement when they form the all-in-all of character, and to reinstate manliness and bodily soundness on the one hand, and simple loveliness on the other, into the rank they held in the fiction of old, why, it will be strange if some individuals do not fall in love accordingly, and the succeeding generations acquire a tinge more of burliness than would otherwise be the case.

Dr. Carpenter's book deals more with the individual than the race. It is a treatise of descriptive psychology, written with that polish of style and copiousness of illustration which have so distinguished the other writings of the author. Holding firmly the doctrine that all mental action is correlated with brain function, and equally firmly the doctrine that in volition we have a change of thought not fully predetermined by its cerebral antecedent, his main thesis is to work out the interaction of these two principles, and to show the way in which modes of action originally due to separate volitional impulse grow, by virtue of the great law of habit, automatic, and matters, so to speak, of second nature. So that a persistent will really moulds the organism to its purposes, and, in so far as the tendency to habits thus organized may be inherited, has a creative dignity.

"We have thus a definite physiological *rationale* for that 'government of the thoughts' which every moralist and religionist teaches to be the basis of the formation of right character, and therefore of right conduct. And the writer cannot but believe that there are many upon whom the essentiality of intellectual and moral *discipline* will be likely to impress itself with greater force when they are enabled thus to trace out its physical action, and to see that in the mental as in the bodily organism *the present is the resultant of the past;* so that whatever we learn, think, or do in our youth will come again in after-life, either as a nemesis or as an angel's visit."

We think that this good purpose has been carried out with admirable thoroughness and skill. Clergymen and teachers will find the book a well of valuable suggestions, and for youthful students it will prove a very fascinating introduction to mental science; the unusual breadth of its scope and abundance of anecdotes, and the full account of morbid mental phenomena, helping to atone for a certain want of analytic depth. We may say, too, now that "spiritualism" is again exciting public attention, that Dr. Carpenter has in this book taken the pains to prepare an elaborate and careful refutation of what he regards as its follies and delusions.

CHERBULIEZ'S SPAIN.*

IN four essays, originally published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. Cherbuliez discusses the Spanish Character and the Constitutional Monarchy; King Amadeus and the Democratic Monarchy; the Commencement of the Spanish Republic; the Crisis of the Spanish Republic; the Constitutional and Alphonsist Parties; and in an Appendix, which bears date of the 8th of February of the present year, the long series of insurrections and pronunciamientos since the revolution of 1868 is continued to its latest chapter—the *coup d'état* of the 3d of January, 1874.

M. Cherbuliez approaches his subject with the keen sympathy of a Frenchman for a country as unfortunate as his own, and yet containing, "in spite of Carlists and pétroleurs, of bloodshed and unpaid coupons, more real happiness than Prussia, the most governed of all countries, or than industrious and opulent England." In explanation of so peculiar a phenomenon, he draws on his intimate acquaintance with Spanish life and politics in all their varied aspects, as well as on the resources of his cultivated and brilliant style. M. Cherbuliez not only explains and defends but evidently shares the enviable hopefulness of the Spaniards under their trials, and professes his faith that "whatever may be the future destinies of Spain, her government can only be a free one." Curiously enough, the ardent admirer of Castelar, "whose

* 'An Essay on the Principles of Mental Hygiene. By D. A. Gorton, M.D.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1873.
'The International Scientific Series. Responsibility in Mental Disease. By Henry Maudsley, M.D.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.
'Principles of Mental Physiology, with their Applications to the Training and Discipline of the Mind and the Study of its Morbid Conditions. By Wm. B. Carpenter, M.D., LL.D.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

* 'L'Espagne Politique, 1868-1873. Par Victor Cherbuliez.' Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

heart and talents grow with his responsibilities," accords to Isabella II., in spite of her faults and temptations, the glory of linking her name to a decisive epoch in the history of Spain. . . . During her reign the very genius of the nation was transformed. . . . Spain, throwing off the yoke of her traditions, became the home of free discussion, and applied to the study of her past and present that critical spirit which distinguishes modern peoples." And yet the downfall of Isabella was the consequence of a purely military rising, in which monarchists of all shades joined hands, and the direct fruits of which were reaped by Marshal Serrano and General Prim. When, on the 18th of June, 1869, the Cortes proclaimed the former Regent of the kingdom and the latter President of the Ministry, "the Republicans could only complain, protest, and wait."

The conspicuous part played by Prim during the time when Spain vainly offered to the princes of Europe her vacant throne, is depicted with great force and vividness, and the pages devoted to the intrigues which led to the ephemeral reign of Amadeus form, perhaps, the most interesting portion of M. Cherbuliez's book. The example of Amadeus, to whose many good qualities ample justice is done, "and who had only one unpardonable fault—that of being *impossible*"—proves "that the election of a sovereign by an assembly which seeks to escape at any price the dangers of a republic is sometimes the most hazardous of ventures." And yet that unfortunate reign, the first day of which witnessed the assassination of Prim, the author of its existence, was terminated, not by the unanimous decision of a free people, but by the intrigues of a Republican faction culminating in the famous Hidalgo affair.

"The Spanish Republic was born under distressing circumstances. Everything appeared to be against it; the fairies who attended its birth seemed to have laid a curse on its cradle, . . . and all their predictions were fulfilled. The poor daughter has seen two fathers claiming her as their offspring, and she nearly fell a victim to their quarrels. She has not wanted inveterate enemies, nor—what is worse—vexatious friends, and, with the exception of a little republic, all the countries of Europe have refused to admit her into their society. And on the strength of these auspices people fond of prophesying have predicted that twenty days would be the limit of her existence. She exists nevertheless, whatever the future may have in store for her, and her constitution, which has withstood such cruel attacks, seems to have gained strength in the strife. If she gains her cause, she will owe thanks to herself only, and she may then boast that her desire to live has accomplished all, and that neither fortune nor men have lent her aid."

In the same spirit of subdued optimism M. Cherbuliez predicts the final triumph of liberal ideas in Spain, even while tracing her struggles with Carlists and Intransigentes and the vain efforts of the Republican leaders to give stability to her institutions.

In the last pages of this attractive volume, which were written after the *coup d'état* of General Pavia, and added in the form of an appendix, M. Cherbuliez proposes for Spain the Presidency for a long term, like MacMahon's, as perhaps the best temporary expedient. But with the fall of Castelar his hopefulness seems to have given way, and he impressively and almost mournfully concludes:

"However excusable or useful may have been the abrupt issue brought about by General Pavia, it has for ever destroyed the illusions of those who imagined that the character of Spain had been modified, and that the era of military insurrections had passed away. It is now evident that nothing has changed in the Peninsula—that there is only one pronunciamiento more. It has been the misfortune of Spain for the past fifty years to have allowed her army to become the universal tool of politics; but it has been her good fortune, as well as her privilege, that the soldiers who have ruled her destinies have not practised the politics of the barracks (*ne font pas de la politique de caserne*). The Spanish people have lived, and will for a long time continue to live, under a régime of Pretorians who have parliamentary spirit, enjoy free discussion, and allow it to take its share in the government of human affairs. It is to be hoped that these Pretorians will never renounce their liberalism. May they establish in Spain a government that shall reconcile liberty and security, allow her to restore her finances, to develop her industries, to work and to think—in short, to emerge from the precarious state in which a nation, unfit for any enterprise, is compelled to devote all its energies to a humble and painful struggle for existence!"

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR JULY.

THE article entitled the "Hanlin Yuan," with which the *North American* opens, is an account of a learned body among the Chinese which in its general character resembles the French Institute. The differences are important; but, speaking compendiously, the two bodies are alike in being composed of selected men of learning, who work under the encouragement of state honors and patronage. The first few pages of the article are confusing, the author apparently not being a very lucid writer at the best nor on any occasion, and apparently on this occasion not having put himself into the place of the Western reader to a sufficient extent to know that to the Western ear the terms Ming, for instance, and Mingwang, and Kienlung, and Tsing are not full of meaning, chronological or otherwise. But of the nature and duties of the Hanlin Yuan a definite notion may be got from what he tells us, and he promises to tell more in a future article, which may possibly have the effect of making this one clearer. The society was founded in the seventh century by Kaotsu, a monarch who for a score of years afterwards was embroiled in civil war. His son, Shemin, by-and-by coming into undisputed possession of the throne, and recollecting the poets and philosophers whom he had read by the camp-fire, at once addressed himself to the promotion of learning, but without confining himself to the beaten paths of tradition. He not only issued his decree, as his predecessors had done, summoning from their retreats able men and distinguished scholars and commanding their attendance at court, but he installed them in his palace and organized them into a body which he regularly and frequently consulted. This council he called the Wen-hio-Kuan, and it was the germ of the Hanlin Yuan, or Forest of Pencils. This name the society acquired because of Shemin's resolution to form a library which should surpass in magnificence anything that had yet been seen. To effect this result, transcription on a great scale was necessary, and the king accordingly ordered a fresh levy of scholars, who should be elegant scribes as well as able men, and who should use a perfect forest of pencils. The name given these transcribers eventually came to be given to the whole membership of the academy, and this though the peculiar occupation of the scribes themselves almost immediately passed away. For not very long after the establishment of the institution the art of printing was discovered, or at least far more widely applied than ever before, and the art of the copyist was superseded. The scribes, relieved from the drudgery of copying, were at liberty to turn their attention to composition, "and in China in the eighth century, as in Europe in the fifteenth, the art of printing imparted a powerful stimulus to the intellectual activity of the age." So far as Mr. Martin's chronological backing and filling makes it possible to know what he is driving at, we should say that it was this period which saw the beginning of that study of "style" which has enabled the most flowery Chinese men of letters so far to excel the outside barbarian, and so vastly to improve upon the writings of their ancestors, who, as the native critics allow, were more studious of matter than of manner and minded too little about "art for art's sake."

From that day to this, now twelve centuries, the Hanlin Yuan has been maintained in honor and its constitution has undergone no marked change. Mr. Martin gives a somewhat paraphrastic translation of the constitution, but still finds it necessary to make full marginal explanations, to which we refer the interested reader. He also explains in detail the character of an academician's scientific attainments. These are of a quality to afford proof sufficient that it is not by his acquirements in science that it would be fair to try him: comets and eclipses are to him portents of calamity; the stars are characters in the book of fate; the earth is so far from being globular that in fact on the contrary it is flat and in shape it is square, the heavens being round; it is however the centre of the universe, just as China is the centre of the habitable earth, and for this conviction he can not only plead his own books, but quote the teaching of those astronomical Jesuit fathers who, three hundred years after the death of Copernicus, continued to instruct his ancestors in the system of Ptolemy. Zoölogy he knows to the extent of being aware that when a tiger plunges into the sea he becomes a shark, while sparrows using the same means are transformed into oysters—that is to say, he has for the second of these metamorphoses the authority of the canonical books, and for the first he has the warrant of a general belief which it is little worth while to question. Arithmetic is an affair of shopkeepers, and mechanics he disdains because of its relations to handicrafts and machinery. Of general physics he has an ill-defined theory, but of the five elements upon which this theory is based he can give a luminous exposition—namely, that it is the nature of fire to ascend; the nature of water to run down hill; the nature of metals to be pliable and subject to change; the nature of wood to be either crooked or straight; and the nature of earth to serve the purposes of agriculture. These propositions are the bed-rock of human knowledge, and such they are more clearly seen to be as one examines this frame of things and observes the correspondences which run throughout it all. There are five elements, and are there not five fingers on the human hand? the elements are five, and so are the musical tones, the great mountain ranges of the world, the senses, the planets, and the colors—a cosmos to please Humboldt himself, to say nothing of Swedenborg or a mystical interpreter of Scripture. This system is not only beautiful and beautifully simple, but it is a practical system, fitted to all the needs of human life. Thus, is the academician ill of a fever, which he contracted on shipboard or in a wooden house? As he knows at once, or as his physician tells him, wood produces fire, and what is wanted to restore the balance of the patient is earth—*i.e.*, life on shore or exercise on the ground in the open air. And yet, very properly observes Mr. Martin, it would be a great error to judge of the intel-

lectual power of this person by the correctness of his knowledge of such things as go to make up a modern education in the West. In such knowledge he is a child, but in mental force he may at the same time be a giant. Certain readers, wishing to emphasize this remark to their imaginations, might recall the impression made upon them by seeing in the flesh or in photography a man like the late Mr. Burlingame surrounded by educated Chinese, with their well-bred, well-trained air; or one of our White House assemblages surrounding the Japanese ambassadors recently in this country.

The second article in the *Review* ("The Platform of the New Party") is by Mr. Brooks Adams. Its facts and reasonings are sound rather than new. They have in fact been gone over very often within the last few years, but it may probably be found useful to have them all gathered as here within a moderate compass. The writer's views are not rosy; rather, he judicially but firmly excludes rosiness of view. After following down the main lines of our political history from the days of Hamilton and Jefferson to these present days, he sums up by saying that, General Grant having let slip his great opportunity of restraining the usurpations of the legislative body, the dominant party is now fairly a corrupt consolidation, centralization party, which has definitely acquired the habit of using the central Government as its chief support in all State politics: "Custom, each day deeper rooted, has developed an unwritten law stronger than any statute or bill of rights; and the law which has been declared is that the will of the majority shall be supreme, the Constitution to the contrary notwithstanding." In proof of this proposition, the cases of Louisiana and Massachusetts are cited, and we have over again the familiar story of the "capture" of the one State and the attempted capture of the other by politicians, behind whom was all the power and influence—without which these politicians could have done nothing—of the central Government. It is no pleasanter a story than ever, and the lesson taught by it needs to be insisted upon; but too absolute and naked insistance upon it leaves it with less effect on the Massachusetts freeman than it should have, and in so far forth prevents his paying proper attention to his brethren down beside the Mississippi. As for the platform of the new party, what must be proclaimed in it is hostility to demagogues, for the activity of demagogues is really the complaint of which we are likely to die, and to die at once unless we can choose a strong President who will curb the Senate, confine Congress to its proper functions, and who will be able to conceive and to execute a broad constitutional policy—one who above all else will do battle for the courts. The necessity of electing a President of this description is to be made the first plank in the platform; the second is to be the reform of the civil service so as to abolish rotation in office, make the tenure a good-behavior tenure, and forbid placemen from meddling with politics; the third thing is "to free minorities from their thraldom." Unless these things be done, and unless the press and the people rise to the level of the emergency, "the tale is well-nigh told. . . . A little longer, and it will be too late." As we have said, our writer does not take a sanguine view of our affairs; on the contrary, *venienti occurrit morbo;* whereas we may be permitted to hope that whoever will go slower may escape with life.

"Darwinism and Language," by Professor W. D. Whitney, is concerned with one of the subsidiary questions which surround the main evolutionary controversy carried on by the biologists. This subsidiary question is as regards the bearing of language on the controversy. So many wonderful things, says Professor Whitney, have been brought to light by the aid of language during the past fifty years in reference to the prehistoric history (so to call it) of the human race, that it cannot but have occurred to many to ask whether linguistic science may not also have a competent judgment to pronounce as regards at least the last asserted step in the infinite series of transmutations—namely, the development of man out of a lower, a simoid animal. And it so happens that in the opinion of two linguistic scholars of eminence, both of them Germans, linguistic science has this competent judgment to pronounce. One of the two is Professor August Schleicher of Jena, the other Professor Max Müller of Oxford. But, unfortunately for the general public, these two eminent professors have reached two conclusions which are diametrically opposed each to the other. Schleicher is sure that Darwinism is true and that the invincible proof of its truth may be found in evidence furnished by language. Müller, on the other hand, relies upon language to show that Darwinism is not and cannot be true. Professor Whitney, for his part, with that coolness and reasonableness possessed by him in a degree which we may be pardoned for saying is rare among workers in language, thinks that we may all for some time yet fairly wait before making up our minds until the biologists have brought their warfare more nearly to an end, and till victory has more certainly declared herself on a particular side. He proceeds to show that at all events we need not feel debarred from doing this because of any arguments brought forward by Professors Schleicher and Müller. He takes up their theories one after the other, dealing thus with Schleicher: Schleicher's argument has made the substance of several pamphlets; but, says Professor Whitney, it lies in a nutshell. It is as follows: Languages are living organisms, with their own laws of development, and are not dependent on the beings by whom they are used. Now, since it is beyond question that languages develop and become transmuted; since a single-stock language ramifies into a variety of tongues exhibiting differences as marked as those which distinguish the genera and species of animals and plants, why, it cannot be denied that living organisms do vary, and vary as rapidly and widely as the most ardent Darwinist could desire. And if organic beings of one class, then of course those of others. *Quod erat*, etc. Unluckily, the answer to this argument lies in a still smaller nutshell than the one which contains the argument itself. Languages are organisms, says Schleicher; but languages are not organisms except by a figure of speech, and a moment's attention to this fact would have saved the professor all his labor. With Professor Müller—a writer who, by the tone of his writings and their matter also, often inevitably calls it to the mind of his observers that he is a German professor *in partibus*—Professor Whitney deals with equal effect but necessarily at greater length. He remarks, on beginning, that "it is never entirely easy to reduce to a skeleton of logical sequence and statement a discussion as carried on by Müller, because he is careless of logical sequence and connection, preferring to pour himself out, as it were, over his subject in a gush of genial assertion and interesting illustration." The reader will find this essay worth studying, as much for its method of handling as for what is said.

The other principal literary matter of the *Review* is the essay by Mr. T. S. Perry on Julian Schmidt's critical history of French literature since 1774. Schmidt's standard, and his way of applying it, the essay illustrates by giving us judicious extracts, and by comments which also seem to us judicious and sound. Mr. Perry is, on the whole, inclined to agree with Schmidt that the French tact of style is purchased at the expense of more important matters; is too much sought for and too much admired by such foreigners as profess admiration for it. But, he adds, Mr. Schmidt might have indicated its merits more clearly. The fact seems to be that Mr. Schmidt is morally angry with it, and does not well see why a good style should be, nor indeed how a style truly good can be, dissociated from excellence of matter. Probably it will always be inevitable that the Teutonic critic, when he gets at work on authors of the magnitude of the Victor Hugos and the Châteaubriands and Lamartines, shall think of them not so much as writers with a style, but as men who stand for certain thoughts, feelings, and faiths, by the righteousness and truth of which, and not by deftness or beauty of verbiage and method, they must stand or fall. This sort of incapacity of his, if that is the name to give it, after all only points once more to the old quarrel between that temperament and cast of mind which longs for the origin and meaning of things and the sources of life and that other turn of mind which delights in the beauty of existence. This seems to be, in a way, a true distinction between the genius of the two races; but the intensely practical side of the character of the Teutonic race in its various families frequently blinds us to the lofty side of its character.

We need not say more of the article by Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., than that after a dozen introductory pages it displays to the reader, with a very brief running comment, a collection of gems from the speeches of the inflationists in House and Senate during the session just closed. It is almost incredible the figure made by the speakers on the majority side—Bogy, Kelley, Cameron, Boutwell, Merriam of New York, Ferry of Michigan, Butler of Massachusetts, Gordon of Georgia, Holman and Bright of Indiana, Sprague of Rhode Island, Logan, Oglesby, Morton, Bundy of Ohio, and a score or two of others. However, the reader's respect for the honesty of most of the speakers will be increased, so obviously are they as innocent as field-hands of the first idea of the subject on which they are talking. Not so in every case, however. Mr. Morton is shown here as having been repeatedly driven to the wall by the use of extracts from old speeches of his which were all that could be desired. When driven there, his stock reply seems to have been that he knew now where it was that his opponents got their arguments; or that it was only dead men who did not change their opinions. He has evidently played an entirely unprincipled part, with an eye single towards his own personal aggrandizement, and much good he will probably find that he has done himself.

The book-notices are largely reviews of historical works, but all are very good, and some of remarkable excellence.

Geschichte der deutschen Kaiserzeit. Von Wilhelm v. Giesebrecht Vierter Band. Staufer und Welfen. Erste Abtheilung. (Braunschweig:

C. A. Schwetschke und Sohn. New York: L. W. Schmidt.)—No historical publication of the past year is of more intrinsic value and importance than the continuation of Von Giesebrecht's great history of the Imperial period of Germany—a period which is explained to extend from the foundation of the German monarchy by the rulers of the Saxon house to the death of Frederick II. in 1250, after which the title of emperor was practically suspended for nearly a century. It was in the hope and expectation of a new and more glorious career for united Germany than that which came to so disastrous a close in the Great Interregnum, that the historian began his work twenty years ago. Now, in the full enjoyment of a union and glory of his native country which he can hardly have dared hope to live to behold, he enters upon the most varied and romantic, and, at the same time, the saddest portion of his task. The present instalment covers in general the interval between the Franconian and Swabian lines of emperors—the reign of Lothair II. with the early years of Conrad III. This is a period of less exciting interest than either that of Henry IV., which came before, or of Frederic Barbarossa, which came after; and yet it is not without its marked character and special importance as the period in which were shaped the great interests and rivalries which racked Germany with internal convulsions for more than a hundred years. The great contest of Staufer and Welf was foreshadowed even earlier than this time; it received its decisive settlement—so far as the two houses were themselves concerned—in the downfall of Henry the Lion, 1180, pronounced by Sohm a decisive event in the constitutional history of Germany. But the family rivalry still lived on in Philip of Swabia and Otto IV., in Alfonso of Castile and William of Holland; and the family names lived on long after in the party-cries of Ghibelin and Guelf.

One famous stage of this great contest is narrated in these pages—that of Henry the Proud, the most powerful prince who aspired to the Imperial throne between Charles the Great and Charles V., who boasted, hardly with an exaggeration, that his personal dominions extended from the Baltic to the Tyrrhenian Sea. With this enormous dynastic power and his unquestioned abilities and unbounded ambition, it seems that, if he had gained the royalty besides, he might have knit together again the loosened bonds of the empire, and resisted the disintegrating tendencies which were hurrying it to its ruin. Even without this, it was only his untimely death, at the age of thirty-five, that secured the succession of Conrad, and made the third great German dynasty to be Hohenstaufen rather than Welf. It is of the siege of Weinberg, in 1140, in this contest (after the death of Henry), that two romantic stories are told. The one is that the women of the town being permitted, on its surrender, to carry away each some one precious possession, all appeared at the gates with husbands, sons, and fathers upon their backs; the authenticity of this the historian leaves undecided, as not improbable, but still not sufficiently vouched. The other, that the war-cries of *Waibling* and *Welf* were first heard on this occasion, he rejects.

The Emperor Lothair is the hero of this volume, and he is evidently a favorite character with the historian, who relates with enthusiasm his military exploits and sagacious statesmanship, even if he somewhat exaggerates the latter. It is customary to look upon Lothair as an ally of the church, and his reign as a period of reaction between the two great contests of popes and emperors. Herr von Giesebrecht shows that this was not the case. There was a lull in the great struggle, and Lothair cannot be fully identified with either party. It is true he was elected by the influence of the church, and was the main support of Innocent II. in the Papal schism; but this was simply a transaction between two parties in the church, not depending upon relations towards the church. It cannot be denied, however, that Lothair did not make the most of this opportunity of strengthening the Imperial power. On the other hand, it is shown that Conrad, from the weakness of his position and the doubtfulness of his election, was far more disposed to buy the support of the church by a submissive demeanor. This is no more than might be expected from the nature of things, and from our knowledge of the remarkable vacillations in the policy of the church two generations later—in the contests between the Welf Otto IV. and the Staufer Philip and Frederic II. The Staufer as a family (except the free-thinking Frederic II.) were no more anti-church in sentiment than the Welf; but whichever occupied the throne was by the force of circumstances brought into hostile relations with the Papacy, which aimed to use the rival house as its tool.

Herr von Giesebrecht's qualities as an historian are of the highest order. He possesses in full measure the characteristic German erudition, but without a touch of what is sometimes regarded as the equally characteristic German dulness. The narrative is marked by vigor, animation, and a peculiarly vivid individualization of the characters introduced, while the comments upon events are equally calm, impartial, and sagacious. Perhaps the reader who is not familiar with the wealth of materials in the shape of epistolary correspondence and other documents of this nature, is most struck with the distinctness with which the men and women of this far-distant epoch are brought before him as living persons, not the mere counters of chroniclers or of historical speculation. King Lothair himself, his son-in-law, Henry the Proud, the two brothers, Conrad and Frederic of Hohenstaufen, Pope Innocent II., King Roger of Sicily, St. Bernard, and a host of less prominent characters, are delineated with as much reality as if they were now living.

The notes and authorities are, according to the practice of the author, separated from the text, and will be given at the end of the next "Abtheilung," which may be expected shortly.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

United States Commission of Fish and Fisheries. Part I. Report on the Condition of the Sea Fisheries of the South Coast of New England in 1871 and 1872. By Spencer F. Baird, Commissioner. With Supplementary Papers. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1873. Pp. iv.-852, with 40 plates and one map.

In view of an alleged decrease of the food-fishes on the coast and in the lakes of the United States, and of the importance of knowing what steps should be taken to remedy the evil if the facts prove to be as stated, Congress, in the winter of 1871, passed a law providing for the appointment by the President of a commissioner, to serve without salary, whose duty it should be to take up the subject and report upon it in due season. Professor Baird, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, was chosen for this service, and entered upon the work in the summer of 1871, selecting Wood's Hole, Mass., a point between Buzzard's Bay and Vineyard Sound, as the centre of operations, in consequence of the assertion that the greatest decrease was to be found in Buzzard's Bay, Vineyard Sound, and Narragansett Bay. With a corps of competent assistants and the necessary apparatus and equipment, furnished by a Congressional appropriation, and by the assistance of the Secretaries of the Navy and the Treasury, the labor was carried on; and we have the result in a volume the title of which we have given above.

According to this Report, the facts of the alleged decrease were substantiated, and measures were suggested for remedying it. It was found that the most important fishes on the coast come in to the shores from the deep sea in the spring for the purpose of spawning, and that if this function be allowed to go on undisturbed there would probably be no decrease. The principal measure of protection recommended was the establishment of a close time of one or two days in each week during the spawning season, if not an absolute prohibition of capture during the critical two or three weeks. The researches of the commission involved a careful enquiry into the general character of the ocean, its temperature, currents, the sea-bed, the distribution of animal life on the bottom and throughout the water, and all other questions connected with the physical and natural history of the deep seas and their inhabitants. With the assistance of eminent specialists, and particularly of Prof. A. E. Verrill of New Haven, these points were carefully considered and very large collections made. Of these, we are informed that full series have been preserved for the National Museum at Washington, and that the duplicates have been or will be made up into sets for distribution to various scientific institutions throughout the country.

In addition to the Report of the Commissioner, we have in the present volume a large body of testimony taken in reference to the general subject of the fisheries; arguments on both sides as to the question of protection or non-protection; citations of European authorities on the same general subject; notices in regard to the abundance of fish in former times on the New England coast; statistics relating to the fisheries on the south shore of New England; the natural history of some of the more important food-fishes on the coast, such as the scup and the blue-fish; descriptions and figures of the apparatus used in the capture of fishes on the sea-coast and lakes of the United States; a list of the patents granted in the United States, up to 1872, in reference to the capture and utilization of fish; a report on the invertebrate animals of Vineyard Sound, by Prof. Verrill; a list of the sea-weeds of the south coast of New England, by Dr. Farlow; a catalogue of the fishes of the east coast of North America, by Prof. Gill; a list of the fishes collected at Wood's Hole; and other articles. The most important among the titles just enumerated is the paper by Prof. Verrill, which alone occupies nearly 500 pages of the volume. The list of fishes by Prof. Gill includes all the species of the east coast of North America, with both their scientific and common names, and an indication of their geographical distribution. The illustrations consist of the many devices for the capture of fish, such as pounds, traps, nets, etc., and 287 figures of marine invertebrates, most of them from original drawings. There is also a large map of the region explored, upon which are plotted the positions of the fish pounds and traps, the lines traversed by the dredges and trawls, the temperatures at the surface and bottom of the water, and many other interesting facts.

Forty-third Congress; First Session; House of Representatives; Miscellaneous Document No. 235; Appropriation for Preservation of Food Fishes; Letter of the United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, asking a Deficiency Appropriation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1874. April 1, 1874, referred to the Committee on Appropriations, and ordered to be printed.

In this pamphlet of eight pages the United States Commissioner gives an account of the work accomplished by him in introducing young shad and salmon into the rivers and lakes of the United States in 1873; the number of the former, according to his account, amounting to over a million and a half, and of the latter to about a million three hundred thousand. The Commissioner appears sanguine of ultimate success in the measures he has undertaken, and thinks that, with a moderate expense, the numbers of the valuable food-fishes referred to can be very greatly increased in the United States, not only multiplying their numbers in the waters which they have hitherto inhabited, but making them abundant in streams where they have never before been known.

Topographical Atlas, projected to illustrate Exp'orations and Survey West of the One Hundredth Meridian, and prosecuted in accordance with the Act of Congress under the direction of Hon. W. W. Belknap, Secretary of War, by the Corps of Engineers; projected by General A. A. Humphreys, Chief Engineer; embracing the result of the different Expeditions under Lieutenant George M. Wheeler, Corps of Engineers.

Some time ago, Lieut. Wheeler presented to the Chief of Engineers the plan of a systematic survey west of the hundredth meridian, dividing it into sections of sixteen to eighteen thousand square miles, such of them, however, as were on the borders of the United States being fractional and of less dimensions. The whole number of proposed sections amounts to ninety-five, of which the longest line consists of thirteen, along the one hundredth meridian; nine, again, occupy the width of the area in question, on the forty-ninth parallel from the one hundredth meridian to the Pacific Ocean. The amount of work actually accomplished in the several sections is indicated by Lieut. Wheeler; the object being a systematic survey of the region, each section to be represented by a special map, and the whole intended to constitute a complete topographical atlas of Western North America. In the present work we have the first number of the proposed atlas, embracing six sheets; the first reproducing the sketch-map, with its ninety-five subdivisions already referred to, and showing the routes of exploration on the part of the expeditions of the War Department; the second being a map of the areas of drainage to the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and of the interior basins of the United States; while, in the remainder of the atlas, we have the details of sections 50, 58, 59, and 66, given on the scale of one inch to eight miles, each covering a little more than a degree and a half of latitude, and nearly three degrees in longitude. It is on a sufficiently large scale to exhibit most of the physical features in considerable detail, although not equal in this respect to Mr. King's maps, which have four inches to the mile. As embracing the result of the surveys on the part of Lieutenant Wheeler, the work, when finished, cannot fail to add much to our knowledge of the physical geography of the country. We notice a considerable want of clearness in the details of execution of the maps, especially in the lettering, but this is probably inseparable from the method of their execution, which is apparently from photolithographic reductions from the manuscript sheets. A more important defect is the small number of mountain elevations laid down from which to form an idea of the comparative elevations. Both shortcomings will doubtless be remedied when the maps are actually engraved and additional explorations prosecuted; if, indeed, the missing data be not already in the note-books of the office.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Allen (J. H. and W. F.) and Greenough (J. B.), Poems of Virgil, Vol. I.	(Ginn Bros.) $1 75
Alcestis: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Baker (G. M.), The Reading Club and Handy Speaker	(Lee & Shepard) 0 50
Campbell (L. J.) and Root (O., jr.), The Columbian Speaker	" " 0 75
King's Cope: a Tale, swd	(A. K. Loring) 0 50
Lippincott's Magazine, Vol. XIII	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Littell's Living Age, Vol. 6, April-June, 1874	(Littell & Gay)
Marlitt (E.), The Second Wife	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Martin (Mrs. C. B.), Mount Desert Guide-Book	(Loring, Short & Harmon)
Masson (G.), Compendious Dictionary of the French Language	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 50
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, July 13.

THE money market has remained very easy, with the rates ranging between 2 and 3 per cent. Commercial paper stands quoted at 6 to 7 per cent. for first-class names, while extra double-name paper having over four months to run has been placed at 5 per cent.

The bank statement on Saturday last showed important changes, and was a favorable one—the net surplus reserve having increased $2,595,675 during the week. The large gain in specie is accounted for by the disbursements of the Treasury on account of the July interest on the public debt. The loss in legal tenders is in part accounted for by the recent shipments to Washington by the banks, for the purpose of complying with the requirements of the recently-passed currency law, but there are some indications that an attempt at "locking up" has been made by parties interested in depressing the stock market. The following is a comparison of the averages of the past two weeks:

	July 3	July 11.		Differences.
Loans	$287,422,200	$287,088,400	Dec..	$333,800
Specie	21,934,300	27,375,400	Inc...	5,441,100
Legal tenders	63,660,500	61,335,100	Dec..	2,325,400
Deposits	241,445,500	243,525,600	Inc...	2,080,100
Circulation	25,863,900	25 923,700	Inc...	59,800

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 3.	July 11.		Differences.
Specie	$21,934,300	$27,375,400	Inc..	$5,441.100
Legal tenders	63,660,500	61,335,100	Dec..	2,325,400
Total reserve	$85,594,800	$88 710.500	Inc..	$3,115,700
Reserve required against deposits	60 361,375	60,881,400		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem'ts.	25,233 425	27,829,100	Inc...	2,595,675

Gold has drooped since the large disbursements of July interest, and has been very steady for the past two or three days at 109¾ to 110. Large amounts of exchange making against shipments of produce, with lighter purchases in foreign markets, account for the estimate put upon the gold premium by international traders.

Nothing positive has transpired in regard to the offers which are supposed to have called out the circular invitation of Secretary Bristow for the remainder of the five per cents. Government bonds have been firm at the lower prices; the five per cents being fully one per cent. above their par, in gold, here and in London.

The following are the latest quotations:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881	115¼	116	Coupons 5-20, new, 1865	116	116¼
Coupons "	117⅛	117¼	Registered 5-20, 1867	115⅝	115¾
Registered 5-20, 1862	112¾	113	Coupons "	117	117¼
Coupons " "	112¾	113	Registered 5-20, 1868	116	116
Registered 5-20, 1864	115	115	Coupons " "	116¾	117
Coupons " "	115¼	116	Registered 10-40's	112¾	112⅝
Registered 5-20, 1865	115	115	Coupons "	112¾	112¾
Coupons " "	116¼	116¼	Registered 5's, 1881	112⅜	112⅞
Regi-tered 5-20, new, 1865	115	115¼	U. S. Currency 6's	116½	117

Railroad bonds have been quiet, at prices generally up to last week. The Pacific issues, as well as some other large mortgages, have suffered a trifling decline. The amount of this class of investments offering is in excess of the saving power of our people to absorb; but as little new paper of the kind is making, a gradual improvement may be looked for.

Railroad shares have been up and down during the week, the Western stocks being among the sufferers. Although the action of the courts in regard to the hostile legislation contains no new or sudden departure from the well-settled proceedings in like cases, the slightest circumstance is used in Wall Street to depress prices. Rock Island, Northwestern, St. Paul, even Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, have been disturbed. Erie is reported stronger on the knowledge of what took place at the election to-day. The new board of direction is said to foreshadow a unity of purpose between the Pennsylvania and Erie interests, and, if so, will be a gain of strength to both.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, July 11, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	99¼ 100	99 99⅜	99⅜ 99½	99½ 99⅜	97⅞ 99⅝	99 99¼	19,100
Lake Shore	75 75⅜	74⅜ 75	73⅞ 74⅜	71⅝ 73⅞	70⅝ 74	72⅜ 73½	2 6,800
Erie	31⅜ 32½	30 31⅜	30⅜ 31	30¼ 30⅝	30 31⅜	31⅜ 32⅛	63,100
Union Pacific	26⅜ 27⅜	26¼ 27	26⅝ 27⅛	25⅝ 26½	25¼ 26½	25⅞ 26⅛	54,800
Chi. & N. W.	40⅜ 41⅜	39¼ 40⅜	39½ 40⅜	36⅜ 39½	35 38	37 37⅜	80,500
Do. pfd.	58½ 59	56 57½	55¾ 56½	53 55	53 54¾	53⅜ 54¾	5,100
N. J. Central	....	.... 105½	 106	.... 105¾	 105	....	200
Rock Island	99¼ 100⅝	98¾ 99¾	98½ 98¾	96½ 98	95¼ 98	97 97¾	5,400
Mil. & St. Paul	36½ 38	35¾ 36¾	35½ 36⅝	32¾ 35¾	32½ 34⅜	33½ 34⅝	87,300
Do. pfd.	56½ 57	55 55½	54 54¾	51¾ 53¼	51¼ 53½	....	4,000
Wabash	36⅝ 37½	35¾ 36½	35⅜ 36⅝	33¾ 35¾	33⅜ 35½	34⅜ 35	55,400
D., L. & W.	.... 107½	.... 107½	.... 107½	106 106⅜	105 105⅜	....	3,400
O. & M.	25¾ 26⅜	25¼ 25⅝	24⅝ 25¾	23⅞ 24½	23½ 24	23¾ 24	8,100
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 23, 1874.

The Week.

CHICAGO has had another fire of the first order. The last time she is supposed to have lost $200,000,000; this time she is supposed to have got off for less than $5,000,000, and the insurance companies have suffered very slightly, the burnt quarter having consisted mainly of small wooden houses. But few valuable buildings were destroyed. Among these were the Post-office, a large hotel, and some churches. Mr. White of the Chicago *Tribune*, we are sorry to say, lost his house; in the first fire he lost his office also. Mr. Scammon of the *Inter-Ocean* also lost his house, and with it one of the most valuable libraries in the West, which has caused genuine regret; though, judging from the articles in his paper on the currency, his books do not seem to do him much good. The origin of the fire as usual is obscure, but this much is certain, that it originated in a wooden shanty, and through wooden shanties it was spread. The stupendous folly of allowing wooden buildings to be put up in close contact with stone in a large city would seem to be self-evident, and yet it has taken two big fires to convince the Chicago public of the fact. Happily, nearly all of those burnt on the present occasion were what are called rookeries, that is, squalid nests of dirt and disease, the destruction of which by the "devouring element" is a sanitary gain. As usual, the Fire Department comes in for a fair share of abuse, but we are unable to say with what justice. The accounts seem to agree, however, that a great deal of time was lost in trying to save the "rookeries" in which the flames first broke out which would have been better spent in isolating them, and that there was too great hesitation in bringing up the whole force of the Fire Department. It seems to be one axiom of the art of fire extinction that too much water cannot be poured upon the very first blaze, and that it cannot be poured too quickly, and another that no fire can safely be called small.

The Beecher-Tilton investigation is going on steadily, closely watched from the streets by the reporters, who, however, really have nothing to tell, and refrain, with somewhat remarkable self-denial, from rumors and conjectures. They have got Tilton, however, under a surveillance which no detective force could surpass, and which the secret police of the European despots would envy. His door seems to be watched with lynx-eyed vigilance. The departure of some trunks from it last week excited suspicions that he was about to attempt to fly to Europe or some island of the sea, but results must have shown him its hopelessness. On Monday evening the Committee sat at the house of one of the members in Brooklyn, and the door was guarded by representatives of the press until far on into the night in torrents of rain, but they had to acknowledge sorrowfully that they learned nothing. The basis of the few speculations in which they indulged was exceedingly slender, consisting simply of Tilton's appearance when he entered the house and when he left it, and one little peep into the room before the shades were pulled down. Going in, he seemed bowed down with care, while coming out he seemed light-hearted and joyous. Being asked his opinion of his own statement before the Committee, he modestly pronounced it "unanswerable." It has since been published, and although it is, pending Mr. Beecher's reply, hardly a fit subject for comment, it will have to be met with the utmost candor and straightforwardness.

The Indiana Democratic Convention, much waited for as being Mr. Hendricks's, begins its platform with a long black-list of Republican misdemeanors and crimes, among which we observe, for a new one, the latest topic of all, namely, the Poland-Harrington press "gag-law," a matter which still calls on Mr. Poland for an explanation of his bad faith or of his simple facility in the hands of the District Government. Another matter of interest was not so fresh: this was the cheap-transportation question. But it was spoken of rather vaguely, and no definite policy was laid down:

"*Resolved*, That railroads and all other corporations created for gain or profit should be rendered subservient to the public good, and that we demand such legislation on this subject, both State and National, as will effectually secure the industrial and producing interests of the country against all forms of corporate monopoly and exaction."

On the currency question the voice was twofold, and Governor Hendricks, in one important part of his address, devoted himself to showing that paper-money is not "the currency of the world," thus contradicting the Hon. Mr. Bundy of Ohio, who said in the House last winter that he saw some a year ago as far off as Vienna, an Austrian city. Mr. Hendricks deprecates, rather gently, the existence side by side at the same moment of two mediums of exchange; but the remedy he deems it advisable to propose just at the present time is that, as we shall by-and-by increase our products, and make our paper dollars worth as much as gold, we perhaps had best wait.

Most of the rest of the platform is Indianian rather than national, and appears to be well planned for effect within the State. One plank, however, is more general. It roundly denounces the Civil Rights Bill; and, while wishing all manner of educational and other good to the negro, it wants to know what the voters of Indiana think of an attempt to force negro equality upon the whites by giving to the Federal Government an abhorrent power of interference in the management of graveyards, schools, churches, hotels, theatres, and so forth. The condemnation of Senators Morton and Pratt for their action on the bill is demanded, and doubtless this is by no means so empty a call in Indiana as it would be in many other States. Then follow impeachments of the Republicans for raising the State taxes from five cents on the hundred dollars to fifteen; for allowing their officials to embezzle by using public money as their own; and for supporting an extravagance which keeps county, State, and National taxes higher than they should be by at least fifty per cent. Another issue is the liquor question, the Democrats promising a repeal of the Baxter Prohibition Law and a return to a license system—the license money to be turned over to the school fund. That every weapon is to be used in this contest and no resource neglected is further evident from the fact that two of the candidates are taken from the Independent or Farmers' ticket, of whom one is a Liberal Republican of some influence. The Convention was enthusiastic and disorderly, and the candidates for nominations eager, which is thought to shed light on the probability of their getting their elections when once they have made sure of their nominations. But this many journals will not believe.

The Indiana Democrats appear on the surface to have given displeasure to many outside Democrats and to have correspondingly pleased the infidel and the alien. They avowed, for instance, that they thought paying the bonds in greenbacks to be no more than what justice requires, and thus revived the Pendletonism of six years ago—a proceeding which nobody at the East approves, no matter of what party. But with that squint to leeward which all Western conventions now give when these financial breakers come in sight, the convention in the same breath resolved that it was in favor of a return to specie payments as soon as possible; though, still, it thought that meantime there should be a judicious, not too hasty, regulation of the volume of the currency, and that the demands of business should always be regarded. The manner of all this portion of the platform, as well as the manner and substance of all the rest of it, seems to show that both the pleasure and the displeasure of which we have spoken have probably been indulged with-

out necessity. Indiana is the home of Senator Morton, who has certain relations to the Presidency, and also of Governor Hendricks, whom the Democrats may probably push forward as a candidate for that position. Often has the State been the scene of the contests of these two capable leaders. Only two years ago no stone was left unturned by either party, the one seeking to return Morton to the Senate, the other to secure the governorship as a *pou sto* for Mr. Hendricks. It may be said that both succeeded, for Morton secured his legislature, and Hendricks the governorship. It therefore happens this year, as we understand matters, that national questions are dealt with by the Democrats much as the Republicans dealt with them the other day—that is, everything said in platform and speech is said with a view to this autumn's State campaign (when only minor officers are to be elected), and, of course, with a view also to Morton's prestige and to Hendricks's in 1876. It is mainly a State affair; and we suspect much of the current comment is wasted on a platform the inexpedient features of which may well be withdrawn by the year after next, if such be the will of the National Convention; and to this end Governor Hendricks's careful speech seems to point with sufficient distinctness. We may add that, considering the Morton Convention's financial utterances, the Republican press has some impudence to fling mud at those of Governor Hendricks's Convention.

The willingness of the Southern people to accept leaders and obey them has been a fact much lost sight of, probably because the outside world knew the South better by its leaders than by its population in general, and, indeed, this population was hardly known to the outside world at all, and is not yet. What the Northerner or European was accustomed to see in the Southerner as he showed in Washington was a naturally high-spirited man, accustomed to the independent expression of his opinions, free in act as well as speech, and in general well equipped with all that important class of the gentlemanly qualities which are related to courage and self-assertion. As a rule, he was badly off as regards some of the other indispensable qualities, but of these a certain number of Southerners had a full supply. But leaders of this sort argue a submissive rank and file, and it is no wonder that, since the war, the Southerner should have often surprised the Northerner by indications of a fondness for personal rule, and, as many officials can testify, for Federal protection and government—provided, of course, that the Federal arm was not to be too much extended for the advantage of the negro. And the habit of leadership, no less than the habit of obedience, has made it natural for these old-time commanders, as well as for their followers, to look for relief above them rather than around them—to a society organized on a different plan than that underlying our Northern communities. Dislike of the successful side in the late war, and dislike of the patronage accorded to the negro, have come in to modify and repress this feeling, but it has an existence, and it is not surprising that, of the really serious talk about a third term for General Grant, pretty much all has come from the South. We have no doubt that both the officious Colonel Mosby and his correspondent, Governor Kemper, will in good time get their quietus from their fellow-Virginians; but there is not a Northern community where anybody but night-editors would waste so much ink on such a subject as these two politicians have shed. The last man out on the same side is a Louisianian—an ex-Governor—Mr. Hebert, who also is strong for a third term, but the newspaper men have discovered that he has recently been made a Commissioner of Levees at five thousand a year, and they suspect his motives to be of what is called a mixed character. We may safely make the general supposition that the subject has now no longer a breath of life in it.

We have intelligence from an exceedingly trustworthy source as to the state of affairs in Arkansas, and it is in substance this, the first part of which our readers already know: Baxter was in 1872 the nominee of the Clayton-Dorsey Ring, and was "counted in" by them fraudulently, while Brooks, the anti-ring candidate, really had a majority of votes. Baxter, however, soon showed that he would not serve the ring, and in other words, to use their own slang, "went back on them." They then turned about and took up Brooks, and instigated him to oust Baxter by armed force, but the people of the State and the Legislature, who promptly recognized the real state of the case, sided with Baxter. The Legislature, as soon as Brooks was disposed of, then made arrangements to enable the people to get rid of the infamous constitution fastened on them by the ring at the close of the war, and ordered a vote to be taken both for and against a constitutional convention, and, if the result was affirmative, provided for the election of delegates. The Brooksites opposed this vehemently, both because, if carried, it would be a recognition of the legality of the Legislature which recognized Baxter, and because it would finally take the State out of their hands. The election has taken place, however, has been unprecedentedly fair, and has resulted in a vote of 88,886, out of a voting population of 100,000, for the convention, and the delegates elected are, our correspondent says, "the most substantial citizens of the State. To-day," he adds (July 14), "the convention has met. I have mingled with them as they have been coming in for the past few days. I find them to be extremely conservative, and to be of one mind to try and adopt a constitution for the whole people. They seek no proscription of any man on account of his previous political associations. The great desire seems to be to build up the State."

The "Universal Alliance" is the name of a body made up of representatives of various nations, which is intended to promote international humanity by means of diplomatic and other action, and especially to mitigate the horrors of war, by providing for the better treatment of prisoners and wounded, and the restriction of military power over non-combatants. It has succeeded in obtaining the recognition and patronage of the Emperor of Russia, and is going to hold a Conference at Brussels under his auspices, to which all the governments have agreed to send delegates. The programme of the proceedings on that occasion includes 147 articles or propositions which the delegates are to debate, and, if approved, propose for the adoption of the various governments. Some of these articles, which involve very important modifications in international law, have, it is said, been already approved if not suggested by Prince Gortchakoff. The Earl of Denbigh has called attention to two of them in particular in the House of Lords, and, apropos of them, has obtained from the Earl of Derby an announcement that the British Government will send a delegate to the Conference to report simply, and without power to agree to anything, and will refuse to enter into any discussion of the rules of international law, and will protest against any extension of the scope of the Conference so as to include matters relative to maritime operations or to naval warfare. The articles which have led to this disavowal call for the establishment of "the principle that the armed force of one state only fights against the armed force of another state, and does not consider as an enemy the peaceable citizen who is not equipped as a soldier," and "of the principle that in territories occupied by the enemy the army of occupation alone is to be considered as possessing legal authority." The objections to these "principles" are too numerous to be even hinted at in a paragraph, and at any rate it is hardly worth while discussing them as yet.

The only incident of note in English politics is the formal introduction of the "Home Rule" movement by Mr. Butt, an elderly gentleman, who has been for thirty years a prominent member of the Irish bar, but has been devoting himself of late years to politics, in which his success is considerably impeded by the defects in his personal character. "Home Rule" is a kind of modification of "Repeal," and means simply the relegation of purely Irish questions to an Irish legislature sitting in Dublin, leaving the legislative union still intact as regards Imperial, or, as we should say, Federal questions. Mr. Butt is about the only man of any mark, however, who advocates the scheme, and he is a Protestant and a "Saxon." Even The O'Donoghue spoke and voted against it on the present occasion, and it only got 61 votes against 458, Mr. Disraeli closing

the debate in a speech of considerable power, in which, replying to Mr. Butt's charge that Irishmen were unfairly treated in the distribution of high offices, he said he had known three prime ministers and three viceroys of India who were Irishmen, and that the present Lord Chancellor was an Irishman. He might have added that the present Governor-General of Canada is an Irishman, and that the latest recipient of high military honors, Sir Garnet Wolseley, is an Irishman, and that only a very few years since five out of the twelve English judges were Irishmen. In fact, if there be any unfairness in the matter, it is Englishmen and Scotchmen who have a right to complain of it. Considerable laughter was caused in the course of the debate by Mr. Butt's statement that the Irish press was not free, and there are probably few readers of the Irish papers of the "Home Rule" party who could if present have refrained from joining in it. The real difficulty in the way of Home Rule is that hardly anybody in Ireland who has anything to lose would contemplate it without a shudder. As the "national party" in our day is entirely wanting in the elements of intelligence and respectability which gave a certain dignity and promise to the "United Irishmen" organization at the close of the last century, and even gave some elevation to the Repeal agitation, the triumph of the present movement would probably result in the production of a legislature in Dublin of which the New York Common Council of late years might furnish a fair idea, and whose main occupation would be the "striking" of property-holders. The leader of the lower House, at least, would certainly not be a gentleman, like Grattan or Flood, or even like O'Connell or Smith O'Brien, with self-respect enough to refrain from the grosser kinds of peculation, but probably a common "boss," like Tweed or Shepherd, armed with a "rake" and a "slate," fond of good living and fine furniture, and indifferent to reputation.

Russia and Austria have just come together in a curious way, by a visit from the Archduke Constantine to Vienna to bestow on the Emperor the military Order of St. George, in remembrance, the letter of announcement said, of the alliance between the Austrian and Russian armies in 1849. As the one military result of this alliance was the battle of Raab, which crushed the Hungarian insurrection after it had effectually overthrown the Austrian armies, and brought about the subjugation of the country during the ensuing fifteen years, it was at first feared that this performance would be taken as insulting by the revived Hungarian kingdom, and place Francis Joseph in an unfortunate position. But the Hungarians, who are among the most practical politicians of the world, and never groan over the past, took the affair in perfect good humor, feeling perhaps, and quite correctly, that whatever humiliation there was in the battle of Raab fell to the lot of Austria herself, and that those may laugh who win. Moreover, Count Andrássy, who had to fly after 1849, was present at the banquet in the Hónved uniform, in which he fought against the allied armies in that year, which well marked the triumph of the national cause and showed what time had done to remove bitterness. About the same time Count Beust, as Austrian Ambassador in London, presided at the annual dinner of the Hungarian Society of that city, founded years ago for the relief of Hungarian refugees driven from home by political troubles. It is not so very long since the Austrian Minister looked on the society as a collection of criminals, on whom he would have been glad to lay hands. A little more significance was attached to the Russian visit at first than it would otherwise have had, owing to its coincidence with changes in the administration of the army. Since the adoption of the constitutional system, the army has been in the hands of the Minister of War, and the crown has had only formal connection with it through an Inspector-General, the Archduke Albert, who, however, had really no duties. The late Minister of War, Baron Kuhn, has now resigned, and his successor, Holler, finds himself outranked by Baron John, his senior in the service, who has been appointed to the revived office of "Chief of the Staff," answering to that held by General Von Moltke in Germany, and will probably now exercise the active control of the army under the direct orders of the Emperor. This was at first treated by the press as a political move, but it is now plain that it has no political significance, and is simply due to a desire to carry out a new scheme of army reorganization on the French model.

The French Ministry, in spite of its Prussian character, has been passing through a crisis. M. Magne's proposal to increase the salt tax was defeated on Wednesday week by a majority of 106. Then a reluctance, real or supposed, on the part of M. Fourtou, the Minister of the Interior, to permit the prosecution of M. Rouher (against whom there is all but proof positive that he had allowed his house to be used as the headquarters of a Bonapartist organization, of which he was the principal member), and differences regarding the organization of the Government, led to his resignation, and plainly, although the Cable makes no mention of it, to that of M. Magne, the Minister of Finance also, thus leaving the Cabinet without Bonapartists. The Duc de Broglie is said to have then endeavored to recast it altogether, but failed, and the two vacant places were filled by M. Chabaud-Latour and M. Mathieu Bodet, both, we believe, Orleanists. General de Cissey, the Minister of War, then announced that he had nothing new to say, inasmuch as the Cabinet as reconstituted had not had time to agree on anything. The debate on the Constitutional Bill was postponed until to-day, but it is thought probable that Périer's plan will be rejected, and that, after voting the appropriations, the Assembly will adjourn for the summer. The only progress made towards anything permanent or definite has been derived from the Marshal's declaration that for seven years he will not allow himself to be ousted. But he is performing an invaluable service to France in keeping the peace while the rival factions get used to the work of parliamentary government. Paul de Cassagnac has been acquitted on the charge of exciting citizens to hatred and contempt of each other. In reply to his own blackguard abuse of the Radicals, he read at the trial some of their blackguard abuse of the Bonapartists, and it would be hard to choose between them. But anything duller or more stupid it would be difficult to find. The fights between our own *Times* and Murtagh or Hugh Hastings are lively in comparison. The articles on both sides consist mainly of exhortations to the police to look after the other fellows for various specified reasons.

The Indian famine, from which so much was feared, has apparently proved not to be so very terrible after all, and though some of its consequences are likely to prove very important, they are not the consequences that were looked for. The *Economist*, brushing aside the sentimentalist accounts of it, goes boldly to the revenue returns as likely to furnish the surest indication of what it has amounted to, and finds that the yield of the various taxes has diminished very slightly—the land tax, for instance, only 1·6 per cent. It finds, moreover, that the estimates for the coming year, which are drawn by men who know what they are talking about, not only do not calculate on a farther decline, but look for a positive increase. More remarkable still, the decrease in several important items is attributable to agencies which have no connection with the famine. In short, it is plain that, although $52,500,000 have been spent in relief, the extent and intensity of the famine have been greatly exaggerated. In fact, under the old native *régime* it would probably not have been called a famine at all. But then it has brought to light, the *Economist* thinks, two other things of considerable importance. One is that the pressure of population on subsistence under the security of British rule is becoming very great, and is alarmingly great when we consider that the means of subsistence lies in a single crop which may any year fail, and that the population is already in Bengal very dense. Another is that the measures of relief resorted to in the present instance, and which are unparalleled in Indian history, will probably satisfy the people that the Government is sure to take care of them under all circumstances, and thus throw down the last and most powerful obstacle to improvident multiplication and improvident modes of life.

THE REPUBLICAN CHURCH.

THE full text of the address to the people of the Republican Congressional Committee has been published. The signers are mostly politicians of a not very high order, starting with Mr. John A. Logan, but the document is ingenious and perhaps effective, and is intended to influence the coming Congressional elections, and will doubtless do so. The most telling part of it is the opening, in which it compares the career of the Republican party with the preceding period of Democratic rule, and in which, as in all such comparisons, there is a great variety of curious evasions and omissions. These, however, are hardly worth notice; nor is the portion of the paper which is devoted to an enumeration of the Republican services to the nation since 1861, as it is very familiar to the public ear.

When the address proposes to the Republican voter an indefinite continuance of the confidence hitherto reposed in the party in power, it brings up again a point of a good deal of importance, which we have more than once discussed in these columns, and that is, the length to which this confidence ought to be carried. As the managers state their case, there is really no reason why the party should not continue in power for ever. What they say is, in substance, that it is quite true that there are many abuses still needing correction, but that the Republican party is sure to correct them if we give it time. But the party has now been so long in power, and has effected such sweeping changes in the Government, that a large majority of the abuses which now call for rectification are really of its own creation, or have grown up under its rule. The moiety system, the Sanborn contracts, and the "salary grab," for instance, to enumerate those of latest date, which the last Congress has swept away, were the direct result of Republican legislation. The condition of the civil service, though not Republican in its origin, has reached its present pitch of badness in Republican hands, under the enormous multiplication of the duties of the Government which has taken place under Republican rule; but the party as such gives itself no concern about it, and is apparently hostile to any change in it, and yet this abuse may be said to be the fountain of all others, and the one which most distinctly imperils the Government. The condition of the South, and its relations to the General Government, constitute another abuse of the most dangerous magnitude, and yet the Congressional Committee pass it over, as the majority in the last Congress passed it over, almost without notice. The condition of the currency is another most alarming abuse, and all the Committee have to say about it is that if the Republicans do not know how to deal with it, neither do the Democrats—which is very much as if Jones, whom you had taken to pilot you along a dangerous coast, were to confess that he knew no more about the coast than a babe unborn, but could assure you for your consolation that his rival Smith, who wanted the job, knew nothing about it either, and were to advise you to get out your lines and go codfishing. A party in power which calmly confesses in a period of suspended specie payments that it has nothing to say about the currency, and yet proposes that it shall continue in power as long as it may be necessary for it to make up its mind, really claims the status and privileges of a church. The church is a permanent institution—created for the regeneration and salvation of men—which cannot be overthrown or dispensed with, and which, though it may become corrupt or time-serving or lukewarm, nevertheless contains within itself the means of its reformation and is the one channel of grace. This is virtually the kind of position the Committee claim for the Republican party. Under their definition of it, no valid reason for putting it out of office can ever arise, because, no matter of what faults or follies it may be guilty, it can always abandon or reform them. It may, for instance, create the moiety system and breed Jaynes and Sanborns, but then, as soon as the people get angry, it can sweep the system away and dismiss Jayne and Sanborn. It may pass a salary bill, but if it finds the country is displeased it can repeal it at the next session. It might propose a measure of repudiation, as some of its leaders did in 1868, but then if it found the country was not ready for it, it might drop it.

Now, this is a delightful theory for the politicians, because it means perpetual office for them and their friends; but is it a theory which voters are really ready to sanction or adopt in a country ruled by party? Would there be under such a system any means whatever of enforcing any responsibility or of infusing any seriousness or care into legislation? If a party need never fear dismissal from power as long as it is ready to undo the mischief it has done, what check is there on its wrong-doing? Take the moiety system. It was in operation for five years; it demoralized the commercial world; it converted the custom-house into a den of fraud and extortion; it subjected the most respectable merchants to unheard-of penalties; it converted their confidential clerks into spies and informers, put their private correspondence into the hands of the lowest order of adventurers, and enabled a tribe of disreputable people to make fortunes by black-mail. Now, no party ought to dare to create such a system. A party is bound to foresee the consequences of such a system; but what party will ever take the trouble to examine such legislation carefully, and follow out its probable working, if it knows that it can get rid of the burden and odium of it by simply repealing it after the knaves have filled their pockets under it? Take again the Sanborn case. The three most important officers of the Treasury were convicted—we do not think this is too strong a word—either of the grossest negligence or of connivance at fraud. They were armed with the power they abused by a careless act of Congress. When the abuses which occurred under it were exposed, but not sooner, the Secretary of the Treasury retired; but he was forthwith put on the judicial bench for life by the appointment of the head of the party, and with the confirmation of the majority in the Senate. Now, was this a proper way to deal with such a matter? Is this a proper example to set to the servants of the Government and to the young men of the country? And are we really to have no remedy for such things except prayer that the managers may undergo a change of heart?

The validity of the claims of a party to continuance in office can only, as it seems to us, be tested by the spirit in which it deals with the real questions of the day—by which we mean not only the topics which occupy men's minds, but the prevailing tendencies of the time. Strong convictions about slavery and the national unity were valuable during and at the close of the war, but the "burning questions" since the war have been the disorder in the finances and the enormous force of civil servants created by the war. With these the Republican party has shown no disposition whatever to deal. A curious illustration of the limitation of its powers and aims exhibited in the settlement of the *Alabama* dispute with England. After that had been arranged by the Executive, and the money handed over to the majority in Congress, there was neither wisdom nor grace enough found in the body to order the distribution of even this small sum upon any recognized and established principles of law or commercial usage. The total collapse of both Houses in the presence of the currency problem was another example of the same helplessness; and indeed it would be hard to say in what question now before the people the party takes more than a perfunctory interest. It might, in spite of many errors and shortcomings, establish solid claims to popular confidence in the future if it showed any disposition to bring forward able men, and put them in the front. But more determined discouragement of talent was probably never witnessed in our history. Every new election sees the number of its ignorant brawlers increase, and also the number of its able men who retire into private life.

CITY AND COUNTRY AT THE OAR.

BEFORE every boat-race the newspapers are naturally full of comments on the crews and of speculations as to the result, and what they say in many cases furnishes a somewhat curious illustration of the way in which even the most sceptical keep little corners of their minds for faith, into which they will on no account allow positivism to enter. Every one must have observed how large a pro-

portion of the members of what is called the Radical school are very Gradgrinds on the subject of religion. They believe what they see, and see what they believe, and nothing more, and call out for "facts" in the middle of a prayer, and are full of measureless scorn for people who hold on to a creed for the sake of its consolations or associations. They have no patience with a man who believes or tries to believe because it is pleasant, or who refuses to examine the ground of his belief lest he should find it hollow. When you tell them of the support which millions have drawn from the stories and theories which men of the positivist turn denounce as myths, they ask you contemptuously whether there is any legitimate support but truth, and whether anybody but a savage ought to draw comfort from things which science shows to be the creations of poetry or thaumaturgy. Whenever we turn aside from religion to politics, however, we find the same men converted into humble, wondering, credulous worshippers, who stand with open mouths, ready for any legend, tradition, or theory, however wild or however opposed to observed facts, which seems likely to exalt any object of their admiration or to further any cause they have deeply at heart. You meet a scoffer coming away from a church-door full of sneers for the preacher or of contempt for the congregation, and evidently a sceptic of the sceptics with whom it is useless to argue, and if you are of a devout or poetic turn, you thank your stars that you are not likely to be brought much in contact with such a dry, cold, and unsympathetic and unimaginative mind. But begin to talk to him of Humanity or Woman, or the Poor Man or the Poor Boy, and the chances are ninety-nine to one that you find yourself dealing with an intellect that might have been trained by St. Francis d'Assisi or Cardinal Cullen. He is ready for almost any proposition, however monstrous; in fact, the more monstrous it is, the better he likes it. When you produce something very wonderful about the powers of ordinary human nature he swallows it calmly, and asks if you have not something a little stronger. His Garden of Eden is very much the same as that in which the Fall took place, but instead of placing it 4000 B.C. he puts it A.D. 2500, and calls it the "Golden Age." The life led by the inhabitants he makes much the same as that of Adam and Eve. There will be no work done in it except for exercise. Tillage and manufactures will be attended to by machinery, directed by pure and cultivated men and women in their hours of leisure. There will be neither poor nor rich; or rather, all will be rich, or possess the enjoyments now monopolized by the rich. There will be no judges or lawyers, or armies or navies. Nobody will be cleverer or more learned, or wiser or stronger, than anybody else. There will be banks in which everybody will have an account which cannot be overdrawn, and where he can have his note cashed without discount. Interest on money will be unknown, and stocks, instead of being bought or sold, will pass by gift. Everybody will have a university education, and will get his degree by whatever occupation best pleases him; some by hoeing potatoes, others by reading magazines, and others by running to fires and playing hockey in the streets. Corn will be carried to tide-water at five cents a bushel, and any dirty work there may be, such as cleaning sidewalks or repairing roads after freshets, will be done by fatigue parties of would-be despots and middlemen and monopolists, superintended by brilliant women.

If you venture to point out any difficulties in the way of the realization of these visions which you either draw from human experience or from observation of the working of natural laws, he incontinently denounces you as a heartless reactionary, who would shut the gates of mercy on mankind, and who has no sympathy with his fellows or faith in them; and tells you with a burst of triumph that these beliefs which you reject he means, for his part, to cherish to his last hour; that they are his support and consolation under all the sufferings and calamities of his life; that without them the world would be to him a howling waste, and the future a dark and dismal void. He treats you, in short, very much as the old lady in Providence treated the gentleman who tried to excuse the inhabitants for not going to church, by showing her that while the number was so much, there was not church accommodation for a tenth of them: "Sir," said she, "I want none of your infidel arguments."

The bearing of all this on some of the newspaper critics of the boat races is this—that they always try, in the true religious spirit, to make it appear that victory will, somehow, go to the crews least favored by worldly fortune; that is, that it is the honest country boys who had to work on the farm before they went to college, like the "Aggies" last year, or the honest mechanics who went from the workshop to college, like the Cornells this year, who will carry the day against the pampered or favored town boys of Yale and Harvard or Columbia. Nature, they think, must have a tenderness for the poor, and a desire to promote the respectability of manual labor and country life; just as the friends of woman think that Nature cannot have been so grossly unjust as to disqualify woman for any office of dignity or emolument. And yet this illusion about Nature and the country boy has been again and again dissipated by actual experience, and this experience is found to be in accordance with the soundest deductions of physiological science. The reports of our Medical Department on the late war showed, what the reports of all medical departments have shown everywhere, that the country boys are the very softest material that goes into the field; that no military contingents are sooner knocked up on the march or sooner broken down by fatigue; and that none suffers such serious diminution under the terrible process of sifting by which veterans are made. In fighting, marching, or bivouacking, or any other severe and prolonged test of the bodily powers, the city man, or man of the desk, other things being equal, comes off best, and this for a reason which, so far from being depressing, is, as regards the future of the race, in the highest degree encouraging. It is the reason which gives the civilized man his advantage over the savage, makes the officer more enduring than the soldier, and ensures the dominion of the world always to that portion of the race which makes most use of its brains. Country life, with all its advantages, has the very great disadvantage of being, intellectually considered, a sluggish life. It seldom calls for a rapid use of the faculties, and does not offer any great variety of objects for the exercise of them; so that, all else being the same, a totally illiterate street-boy will have great advantage in any trial of mingled skill and endurance over a totally illiterate country boy. The city boy who leads a tolerably healthy life is, therefore, better armed at the outset for any struggle which requires a very nice adjustment of nervous power to the overcoming of a given set of difficulties. Any marked difference in intellectual training is likely to increase this advantage. One of the most valuable results of this training is the increase it makes in a man's capacity for working for remote results, without diminution of ardor or vigor—a capacity on which civilization may be said to rest; and there is, perhaps, no point of both the moral and physical constitution which is more thoroughly tested by a boat race than this. The more of it a man has, the better military officer, or student, or business man, or rower he is likely to make. To be able to see things far off as if they were near, and act as if a year hence were to-morrow, is the very essence of what is called "bottom," or staying-power in a man. The process of training for a boat race is constantly talked of as if it were simply an affair of muscle, and, therefore, as if the man who had cut down most trees or pitched most hay was sure to stand it best, and win the race. But it is in reality only an affair of muscle in a minor degree; it is mainly a trial of nervous force. The man who can on the appointed day, after two or three months of hard work, worry, and excitement, bring his bodily powers most completely within the control of his brain, will win the race, supposing his muscles to be as tough as those of his competitors; and the chances are that this man will be the best-fed, best-taught man, and the man who has, on the whole, had most practice in the rapid concentration of his faculties on a given piece of exertion; so that all reliance on anterior hod-carrying, or hoeing, or mowing, or lumbering, though it is sometimes sweet, is apt to be delusive.

It is sincerely to be hoped, however, in the interest of genuine culture, that the victory each year at the university boat

races will not be confined to any one college, but that newcomers will, as this year, get a fair share of it. It is in the power of every college which has a good piece of water near it to make up a good crew by applying the right tests; and the better the chance of winning seems to be, the more colleges will try, and the more widely diffused through the country will be the really valuable tastes and habits which boat-racing tends to cultivate.

THE LAST REVIEW IN PARIS.

PARIS, July 3.

MILITARY reviews have always been a favorite spectacle for all Frenchmen. I remember, as if it were yesterday, the first I witnessed. I still feel my hand in my father's hand when he took me to the Place Kleber for my first review; I was only twelve years old, and was living under the mild and happy reign of Louis Philippe, the Napoleon of peace, as he was sometimes called. I had hardly ever allowed my mind to think of the horrors of war. The statue of the gigantic Kleber in his uniform of general of the Republic appeared to me like the figure of a good-natured man, who, I thought to myself with some envy, must have been very strong. In those golden days, the soldiers of Baden and those of France who mounted guard on the two opposite ends of the bridge of Kehl often fraternized, and did not look upon each other as enemies. How bright and gay this first review seemed to me when the batteries went round the Place, the horses at full gallop! I enjoyed the brilliant uniforms, the invigorating sounds of the military bands, even the awful sound of the drums. One poor fellow was thrown off his horse; I trembled for him, but he got up and remounted his horse immediately, looking only a little flushed and defiant. We had in Strasbourg our favorite, our crack regiment, made up almost entirely of Alsatians; a regiment of *pontonniers* was constantly quartered there, as the Rhine was an admirable field for its exercise. The Alsatians have always preferred the artillery to all other arms; they all ride well, they are generally taller than the common infantry-men, and there is a mysterious affinity between them and a battery of clean and solid guns. No review will ever be to me what these reviews of my childhood were: I trembled with excitement, with a mixture of awe and pleasure, when I saw the great waves of horses and men roll before me with a splendid regularity. All the arguments of the philosophers and the philanthropists have never destroyed my instinctive admiration for the army; have we anything more precious than our life? The man who is always willing, always ready to give away his life for his country, is, after all, the man by excellence; and there was good reason in our old régime why the profession of arms should have been deemed the natural profession of a gentleman. But the devotion of a Condé or a Turenne to his country seems less sublime than the obscure devotion of the young peasant who expects no promotion, who has left his family and his fields, and who gives a few years of his life to what he calls his country, to a half-ideal, half-material idol. He knows he is but an atom, but he is willing to be crushed; he mingles with thousands of other atoms, without any other will than the will of obedience. Can even your non-resistants in America think without pride of the men who fought at Gettysburg? Can anybody read the words of Lincoln on the soldiers who fell on that eventful day without feeling some heroic appetite?

After the reviews of Strasbourg, I remember well those of the first years of the Empire. My feelings were no longer those of a child; I was not a friend of the Empire, I did not approve its system of perpetual war; but I could not deny myself the pleasure of seeing the return to Paris of the army of the Crimea. I was in a small café on the Boulevard des Italiens, and from a window I saw the famous zouaves who had entered Malakoff arrive in their ragged uniforms and with their tattered flags. They were not guilty of any selfish or ambitious schemes; they had simply done their duty. They marched quietly, still laden with all the utensils of the camp, and on both sides the boulevard was lined with an exultant people. There was something more pompous and theatrical in the return of the army of Italy. The rugged warriors of the Crimea had suffered so many hardships that they cared not much on their return for appearances; the Italian campaign had been short; Napoleon III. stood before the Vendôme Column, having his son, then almost a child, by him; and the army marched in perfect order before three generations, as it were, of Cæsars. The mind was transported forcibly to the times of the great triumphs in Rome illustrated by Mantegna and many others.

I saw none of the ordinary reviews held under the Empire at the Bois de Boulogne; they were mere military pageants, they formed a part of the programme "panem et circenses"; and for all the foreign kings and emperors who came to pay their court to Napoleon III. they formed, so to speak, the *revers de la médaille* of the splendid hospitality offered to them by the French Emperor. A royal visit was a drama which began with court balls, gala representations at the opera, hunting and shooting days at Compiègne and Fontainebleau, and which invariably terminated with the show of an army which was then thought invincible. It may be that the keen eye of Moltke perceived already in its brilliant regiments the first symptoms of disorder and of disorganization; the old King of Prussia was used himself to the counting of men in battalions and of horses in squadrons. They were both with the Emperor of Russia on the famous day when Berezowski attempted the life of the Czar as he was returning from Longchamps to Paris. Shall I speak of other reviews held in that place? The King of Prussia passed in review there the troops who entered Paris after the capitulation. Is there a Frenchman who witnessed this review? Saxons, Würtembergers, the Prussian Guard, fractions of all the corps, marched before the Emperor; Prince Bismarck in uniform joined the army as far as the Arc de Triomphe, he merely gave a look at the Champs Elysées, he saw them lined with Germans, and galloped back to Versailles.

Then came the second siege of Paris; our prisoners, coming from Germany, learned on their arrival that it was for them to attack the capital. They did not hesitate; after months of captivity, they re-entered the ranks of a completely disorganized army, and they began the terrible war against the Commune—a war of ambuscades, of patience. They conquered Paris quarter by quarter, street by street, sometimes house by house. Eight thousand French soldiers lost their lives in this conflict, as many almost as at Gravelotte or at Wörth. They were commanded by MacMahon; he had come from Germany, thinking that all was over with him, and Thiers had told him that he must take Paris from the insurgents, who had been left in possession of all the forts. The soldiers believed in MacMahon, and he believed in them; he accepted the terrible task; he witnessed the conflagration of Paris from the hills of Montretout during that dreadful night when it was feared that all the monuments of the capital would become ruins. He reviewed his army a few days afterwards in the Bois de Boulogne, and though M. Thiers was still in power, a keen observer might have discovered even on that day that the chief of the army would soon become perforce the President of a Republic which, under a civilian, constantly threatened to become another Commune. It is certainly a curious fact that an army which had suffered such crushing defeats during the war with Germany, which had almost ceased to exist as an army, should so soon become again the arbiter of the nation. It is owing to the Commune; and as the Terror may be said to have ruined the first Republic, and the insurrection of June the Republic of 1848, so the Commune, if it did not put an end to the existence of the Republic, at any rate gave the power to the army and its representatives.

Marshal MacMahon is a silent and enigmatic man; he has probably few political passions; he owes his title of Duke, his dignity of Marshal, to the Second Empire, but he has little affection for what remains of the fallen régime. The Emperor, much against his will, forced him to leave Châlons, where he wished to wait for the Germans, and to make the fatal march on Sedan. I reached the conviction that the Marshal would play a political rôle when I saw him, day after day, come to the Assembly. He always remained in a box (the Assembly sits in the old theatre of Louis XIV.) on the second tier, behind one of his aides-de-camp, but watched very eagerly all the debates. He probably formed then his opinions as to the divisions of the Assembly, and the difficulties of a political solution, and became slowly convinced that he should finally become the solution.

He was already in power when the Shah of Persia arrived; the Marshal offered him, among other pleasures, a great review in the Bois de Boulogne. It was a short time after the 24th May, and for the first time MacMahon appeared before the army not only as Marshal but as the President. He left, however, the Shah, with all his diamonds, among the ladies and the civilians, and placed himself as usual among his troops. The army of the Commune had already changed its character; the troops which had retaken Paris, when they were first reviewed, looked more like bands of armed men than like organized regiments. The policemen of Paris had all been organized in a regiment; they had to avenge their friends, taken as hostages and murdered in the prisons; even the custom-house officials formed small battalions. None of these improvised troops passed before the Shah; everything was already put in order; but the cavalry, mounted on small Arab horses, looked still disorderly, the batteries were not neatly equipped. It was very different last Sunday, when an army of 55,000 men were reviewed by the President in the plain of Longchamps. Prince Hohenlohe, who was in the box of the President of the Assembly, was probably surprised to see how rapidly the French army has been reorganized. The object of the review, however, was less military than political. The Marshal had grown tired of all the intrigues of the Bonapartists and the ultra-Legitimists; the Assembly was discussing whether the Septennat should be personal or impersonal, whether there should be a Septennial Republic or a Republican Septennat. The Duc de

Larochefoucault-Bisaccia, French Ambassador at the Court of St. James's, had come home and proposed to proclaimat once Henri V.; M. Casimir—Périer, an ex-Monarchist who has gone over to the Republic, had proposed to proclaim the definitive Republic. The Assembly, the Committee of Thirty, seemed completely helpless. The Marshal might have sent a message to the House, and said on what terms he was willing to remain in power. He preferred to speak to the army and to the people: "The National Assembly," says he in his order of the day to the troops after the review, "having confided to me for seven years the executive power, has placed in my hands, during this period, the guardianship of order and of the public peace. This part of the mission entrusted to me belongs also to you. We will fulfil it together to the end, and maintain everywhere the authority of the law and the respect which is due to it."

This is very plain language; and, would you believe it? the Republican papers speak of it in terms of eulogy! One Republican paper actually remarks that there were more Republican deputies at the review than Monarchical deputies. The most devoted senators of the First Empire were the old Jacobins. It would be a great mistake, however, to imagine that the Marshal—who says now as he did at Malakoff, "J'y suis, j'y reste"—thinks of preparing the Empire. If he does pave the way for the Empire, he is unconscious of it; he will remain President for seven years, and then France must judge for herself. The country will then probably do what the Assembly did on the 24th of May—place the most energetic man in power.

THE COLLEGE RACES.

SARATOGA, July 20.

OF the thousands of persons present on Saturday last at Saratoga Lake, very few indeed but must have seen a great portion of the race; the air was beautifully clear and bright, the water was smooth, and consequently the starting-line was visible from the finish-line even without a glass. But at the same time, to see the whole race from end to end with anything like the accuracy which alone could give the observer a right to speak about details, must have fallen to the lot of a still smaller number of persons and an extremely small number. One would not think so to read the newspapers; but the writings of the correspondents, both as done before the race and since, show very plainly that among us the business of training men for a race, of rowing it, and of discoursing on the subject meantime and afterwards, is still to a great degree in its experimental, tentative, formative stages. So far as this remark refers to the oarsmen it applies fully only to collegians; as for our professional oars, some of them have given a perfectly good account of themselves when pitted against competitors of the first order coming from countries where boat-racing has long had its home; and they hold themselves ready to do the same thing again. But in general our regattas and their management are marked by inexperience and rawness; and this is true of them from the choice of a timekeeper at the last moment before the start, and his performance of his duties as the boats go over the line, away back to the selection by a college club of its captain; the captain's selection of a stroke, English or American, and his trip across the water to learn it; the crew's controversy as to the value of the arm muscles in comparison with other muscles; the newspaper correspondents' flamboyant reports about the amount of logging and wood-sawing done in earlier life by this and that member of this and that crew, and the terrible stroke or the mighty stroke thus acquired by the young countryman. For a great deal of this crudeness and lack of knowledge there is no one much to be blamed; we must go before we run and creep before we walk, and college crews and captains and city committees are as yet to be taught. But the failure to recognize this truth and to see that it is as relevant to boating as to other things, tends among its numerous other results to the production of newspaper letters which not only must cause some amusement and some exasperation to an expert, but which moreover are apt to mislead the public and do some injustice, perhaps great injustice, to the men and things written about, and this is for all reasons to be regretted. For example, it must be anything but pleasant for a captain of a boat to be denounced in print for certainly and obviously fouling an antagonist, his critic being a writer who is as competent to speak on peaceful practice-rowing, let alone the technicalities of semi-hostile struggling for victory, as he is to speak of the hydrophobic cases which were his last topic before going up to Saratoga. So fearless and so discursive, comprehensive, dogmatic, and also uninformed and inexpert were many of the correspondents, that one fellow-worker of theirs, endowed with the *vis comica*, unexpectedly set himself to satirizing the effusions of some of them, and he did it with as much truth as drollery. Some of the others were not open to his attacks, as, for example, the correspondents of the *World*, who, shunning with due reticence the technicalities of detail, gave sensible accounts of the crews and their movements, and at the end described the race with abundance of spirit and not a little pictorial power. Here is what our satirizing gentleman saw at the quarters of the Princeton university crew:

"Addick does credit to the Quaker City. He spends his spare time on the front piazza with the beautiful daughters of Mr. Riley. His devotion to the classics is as marked as is his liking for the society of the fair sex. He has been known on examination, after making a mistake, to go up and convince the teacher that he was right. He is a good starboard stroke.

"Hall is a good-looking blonde, with a pure Dublin accent. He is from New York City, and occupies his spare moments in making a part in his back hair and making comparative mathematical calculations of the time it will take his moustache to sprout.

"Taylor is a handsome blonde from the Quaker City; is in the port-waist, and about the heaviest man in this crew of light-weights. He is the Crichton of the crew.

"Smith, of Paterson, New Jersey, the bow oar and captain, is a smooth-faced, tawny blonde, with an innocent countenance, close-cropped hair, and, though the shortest man of the crew, is well put together. He thinks that early rising may be good for other people."

This is not particularly dignified, but it is as good as half columns about "the English stroke" of a certain crew; and about the loins and the reach and the determined mouth of somebody in the port-waist of the boat of another crew, who perhaps does, and perhaps does not, pull his own weight.

To take another instance, and a more general one, of the haste and carelessness in which our writers for the press may indulge themselves in doing their work: One of our New York morning papers, and one which in some respects is conservatively edited, sent out a correspondent a month ago to visit the various colleges and send back some report of the plans and hopes of the crews. Yale College and Harvard College are not obscure institutions of learning; and the early history of neither is inaccessible; but when this correspondent reached New Haven, he wrote home in an easy way that Harvard, as he understood the matter, was originally based on Unitarian ideas, while Yale's first foundation rested upon that sturdy Presbyterianism which prevails in Western and Central New York—a view of the annals which would surprise Dr. Abraham Pierson or Dr. Dunster.

All this might need no mention, but the regatta has already given rise to a great many disputes and much hard feeling between two of the colleges interested, and of this we have probably not heard the last; nor is it probable that there will be wanting on the one side and the other, from writers for the press and from persons unconnected with it, a number of witnesses to whose testimony it would be a mistake to attach any weight. The race, as seen by me, was seen from the press-boat *Commodore Brady*, which at half-past ten Saturday morning lay half a mile down the course waiting for the start, and when that had taken place steamed down the right-hand side of the course, keeping abreast of the crews as long as was practicable after they had overtaken us. Our boat did her duty well for nearly two miles, although we were gradually and slowly but surely falling behind, and at the finish were not within a short enough eye-shot of the boats to make out which was first, which second, and which third. I ought hardly to say, however, that we did not feel sure which was first, though I for one could not quite make out by looking; Columbia, which early put herself at the head of the fleet, and, despite great efforts on the part of three other crews, maintained it well, visibly had an advantage as she, Wesleyan, and Harvard passed on towards the end which left us in no real doubt about her victory. As at the finish, so at the start, we were a trifle too far off to see exactly which crew caught the water first, and precisely in what order they came down the first quarter of a mile. We could see plainly enough that as the smoke of the starter's pistol rose against the background of Snake Hill, they were every one off almost before the report of the pistol reached us, and that it was a good start; but stretched out as the nine boats were over so long a line, it was difficult for us, looking at them end on, to perceive how they stood relatively to each other. Here again, however, an exception may be made in the case of the Columbias, for being placed out at the western end of the line they gave us a partly lateral view of them, and apparently they were almost at once foremost. The sight was at this time very fine. The water under our gunwales was black and clear, but the general surface of the lake was of a silver-grey in the sun; the nine boats—soon to absorb all our attention—were coming down over it at a great rate, the oars flashing at their regular intervals; and the whole scene was set in a framework of green banks, behind which at a little distance was the range of blue hills which greatly help to make Saratoga Lake the beautiful sheet of water that it is.

Some little time before the leading boats came up on a level with us we could see that the race had begun to lie among four crews. Of these one was the Columbias, pulling without much of what used to be called style, but pulling all together, and making it apparent to the most uninstructed eye that their boat was going very fast and apparently without

trouble to the men. In the same company were the Harvards, the Wesleyans, and the Yales, the latter being as yet the hindmost, and apparently rowing as well within themselves as Columbia, but not more so, and with a slower stroke. Behind came the rest of the contestants, the Williams men indeed almost deserving at this point of the course, and still later also, to be named with the other four, so strongly and steadily did this crew, to which everybody wished good luck, lay themselves down to the oars. Close at hand were the Dartmouth and Cornell boats, and, last, Trinity and Princeton, already pretty well tailed out from the others. A little further on, also, the sight was remarkable and worthy of enthusiasm not only by reason of its beauty, but for something else. Columbia, Harvard, Wesleyan, and Yale were so close together—so too close together, it was feared—that, as the horse-racers say, the four of them might have been covered with a blanket. The light-blue head-handkerchief of the Columbias, the showy and eye-striking red of the Harvards, the deep-blue of the Yales, and the lavender of the Wesleyans, together with the bright glitter of the oars, gave the picture great vivacity, and the swaying motion of course emphasized everything. The general forward motion it is not easy to describe. Some readers may recollect a child's toy made like the machine called "a lazy-tongs" (of which a specimen is the trellis-like gate with movable slats which is used by the Hoboken Ferry Company). The toy used to be composed further of wooden soldiers painted of various dyes, and the play with it consisted in placing these images on pegs and moving the lattice-work so that at one moment the regiment was longer, at another shorter and more compact. The boats went in something of the same see-saw fashion. Now the lavender would creep forward, now the blue, now there would be a little relative change between the red handkerchiefs and the dark-blue, or the red and the pale-blue. But they were all close companions, and the little raft of boats went down the course in a way to remind one, partly by similarity, of Wordsworth's cloud, that

"Moveth altogether if it move at all,"

and partly to remind one of it by contrast, so constant in energy and activity were the individual elements composing the mass. This, if I may say so with due reserve, was the best part of the race, both considered as rowing and as a spectacle, and was a sight which any one seeing it would have wished should last longer. But at the utmost seventeen or eighteen minutes could be the term of its existence.

About as the mile-and-a-quarter flag was reached by the foremost contestants, we suddenly saw a dash of spray fling itself up between the Yale boat and the Harvard, and all of a sudden the Harvard crew stopped rowing. This delay seemed to me to last while the boat might have been taking three strokes—a period, as I guess, of about five seconds. Some might contend that the delay lasted no longer than the time required for two strokes. However that may be, the cause of it, such as it was, long or short, is alleged to have been the misconduct or the misfortune of the Yale captain in causing a collision of oars which locked oar-blades, or in some other way for a moment or two prevented pulling. As I understand it, this collision is one of the two passages of arms between these crews upon which Captain Goodwin of the Cambridge boat based the claim of a foul. As for the mention of a possible misfortune's having brought about the trouble, it is not the Harvard complainants who put the matter so mildly as that. They assert wantonness of misconduct; and so in turn do their antagonists.

But to leave that matter until later. Before Harvard was under way again the three boats of which she had thus far been a consort had drawn entirely clear of her, and she now began rowing hard to regain her place. While she was thus employed her immediate rival, which had kept on without stopping, and was rowing strongly, was working for the lead, and, as was afterwards stated, this she succeeded in getting; for at the mile-and-a-half flag Yale was reported by the signal-man as being first, with Columbia in the second place. This was not a lead with clear water between the boats, but a forcing of the bow of the one boat ahead of that of the other—if indeed the report of the signal-men be trustworthy, which there is reason to doubt; for the signal-man at the finish—the most important place—was unfit for his task, and I trust none of them. Harvard was at this time spurting, the stroke being nearly, if not quite, thirty-seven to the minute; and, so far as we could make out from where we were, she had in a brief time made good her old place, that is to say, so far as getting back into the society of Columbia, Wesleyan, and Yale; the positions of the crews relatively to each other I could not tell, except that the Columbias seemed to be doing well at the front, and to be assuredly rowing a three-mile race and not the two-mile race which some had been predicting for them. But hardly had the Harvard boat made her reappearance when we observed much more of a splashing of spray than had occurred before, a longer stop, an evident hasty wrangle, and then Harvard went on again, going at a great pace—I do not know how fast, but I should think about as fast as she went a little later when, as she was nearing the Grand Stand, I counted her at forty and a fraction to the minute. In fact, if I am not mistaken, a rough but sufficiently accurate description of the last half of the race, so far as concerns this crew, would be that the men were called on for pretty steady spurting, with the expectation of making up some of their lost ground, and with the hope or half-hope of overhauling Wesleyan and perhaps Columbia. As for Yale, after the second clash had come she did not attempt to go on, but stopped racing for good and all. The reason was by-and-by apparent, for she paddled in to the judges' boat with a demolished rudder and an oar broken off close beside the rowlock-leather. Arriving, Captain Cook preferred a claim of foul against Harvard, and Harvard preferred hers against Yale. Thus was one of these fine crews wholly out of the race while as yet the contest was only half over and everything might still be gained; and the other was to a serious extent impeded in its efforts for victory.

To decide which of them was most in fault would be next to impossible were one to give ear to every story that has been excitedly told by themselves or their respective friends, both orally and in print. In fact, one or two of the stories which have been told with deliberation, and which might easily be taken for true by many people, are nevertheless such as at once arouse an incredulity which will hardly vanish no matter how directly and circumstantially attacked. Thus it is averred that one of the antagonistic captains felt compelled, some days before the race, to notify the authorities that he had been informed of the other captain's open assertion that if his crew did not win, the rival crew at all events should not. But are we in reason to believe this? A captain may be less polished, and more violently in earnest in his racing, and more profane in his anger, than is consistent with decorum or with the breeding of a gentlemanly person; but to believe him so foolishly imprudent as this is not easy. It is, on the whole, best to leave the comments on the affair to the referee, though it is proper, too, to say that clearly the old feeling of rivalship between Harvard and Yale, and of something harsher than rivalship, has this year seemed to be intensified, and that an outbreak of it came very readily. Neither party was at any time careful to conceal its dislike of the other; but Yale had the ill-luck to give to hers a far freer, noiser, and also more quotable expression, and she has suffered accordingly. The language which the referee has used in regard to the case is as follows:

"Both crews had shown a bad spirit in the race; had either had a disposition to give way, there would have been no accident. His own careful observation showed Yale to be the more blamable of the two. The disposition of Yale to encroach upon Harvard was shown early in the race. At seven-eighths of a mile out, the latter was leading and keeping to her course pretty well. Yale coming on behind appeared as if she meant to cross Harvard's course and take a position to the west of her, but suddenly the Yale boat was turned with a sharp sheer to the westward, and it narrowly missed Harvard's rudder. It really appeared as if Yale had tried to carry away the rudder but had missed it. It had that look. The final accident or collision took place about the mile-and-a-half point."

And so forth, and so forth—all a bad business. It did not end on the water. On land there was much crimination and recrimination, much swearing; and in one instance, if I am not misinformed, a challenge to fight. It is this and similar things which are referred to in the brief but pointed correspondence between the two captains which occurred early in the afternoon, and in which Yale offered to row Harvard again over the same course, and Captain Goodwin, "in view of the conduct of the Yale University crew, not only during the race just completed but also at its conclusion, declines to entertain any challenge whatever from the Yale University crew."

Much pleasanter scenes were going on in the town, or village, as they call this very pretty, wide-streeted, well-fountained town, abounding in trees and in spacious hotels. The students were in full possession, and were marching up and down with music, leading their columns through the hotel offices amid inexhaustible hurrahs from their own throats and the waving of handkerchiefs and college colors by the ladies. Columbia—which by the bye cheers itself in an ingenious manner by spelling out the letters of its name in a very staccato fashion—fraternized with the Cambridge men, who waved magenta flags beside the light-blue-and-white, while Yale and Wesleyan paraded together with nearly equal noise, but with rather less spirit. One of the agreeable incidents of this celebration was the arrival of one of the winning crew at Congress Hall. He was in a triumphal wagon—one of the earliest vehicles in from the lake—which, like old Van Tromp's or De Ruyter's flag-ship, bore a broom as an emblem that a clean sweep had been made by the blue-and-white. As he got down, his fellow-students shouldered him and ran him with great shouting up the hotel steps, at the top of which, as I was told, were his father and mother in much delight.

In many ways the regatta was a great success. The members of the committees were attentive, kind, and much more than usually efficient. The

course is an admirable one in several respects, though it seems probable that the delegation of townsmen—at whose head by the bye was a fluent real-estate agent—were somewhat too loud and too absolute in their protestations to the College Rowing Association about the smoothness of the course. Yet there seems little doubt that the wind, which as it happened was allowed to delay the race two days, need not have been allowed to delay it more than one day, if so long. The true plan would seem to be to set an early hour in the morning, irrespective of the late breakfasts of hotel guests, and then leave it in the referee's power to order the race when the water may be fit. This secures the whole day for leeway, and appears far preferable to fixing a hard and fast line at five or six o'clock for a race on a lake said to be liable to afternoon winds. If this difficulty can be got over, the other disadvantages of Saratoga are more than balanced by the advantages—the healthy air; the great hotels capable of receiving vast and sudden crowds; the width and straightness of a course capable of accommodating nine crews abreast, or twice nine even. Some certainty about the winds and some better means of getting out to the lake shore are the great desiderata, and careful observations should do a good deal towards giving us the one, and the Saratoga and Rensselaer Railway Company may perhaps some time see fit to give us the other.

Notes.

TWO Arctic navigators appear as authors in the Harpers' list of forthcoming publications: Captain Tyson in 'Arctic Adventures,' including those of the *Polaris;* and Captain W. M. Davis in 'The Nimrod of the Sea; or, The American Whaleman.'——Butler's 'Wild North Land' will be reprinted by Porter & Coates.——The Appletons are to publish by subscription Schenck's 'Life and Public Services of S. P. Chase' (authorized).

—J. R. Osgood & Co.'s 'Middle States: a Hand-book for Travellers' is the most notable of the guide-books of the present season. It is, like their 'New England Guide,' patterned after Baedeker, and has all the many excellences of the former work. The ground covered from north to south embraces Canada as far as Montreal, and part of Northern Virginia. Foreign visitors to this country will find pretty much all that is worth seeing set down in this hand-book, with clearness and sufficient detail, and, in certain particulars, with something of the self-satisfaction with which Dr. von Holst reproaches the Americans with viewing themselves and their productions. This genial trait is perhaps carried as far as it is safe to carry it in the compiler's remark, that "the heating and ventilating arrangements of the House and Senate [at Washington] are worthy of notice." There is a plentiful number of maps and plans, and the historical and descriptive notes are entertainingly written. Deserving of praise also is Mrs. Clara Barnes Martin's unpretentious 'Guide-book to Mount Desert' (Portland: Loring, Short & Harmon). The style of this writer is much above that of the ordinary *cicerone*, and her observations of natural scenery are tasteful and well expressed. For example, in speaking of one of the most striking formations on the island, she says:

"The 'Ovens' have been renamed variously the 'Cloisters,' the 'Via Mala,' the 'Cathedral,' etc.; but if one must have an architectural simile, they are really more like the bold arches with zigzag mouldings in the depths of which the old Romanesque builders placed their doorways. . . . . It is worth while to suggest that the shadows from the west increase the effect both of height and depth."

With a view to making this book a souvenir as well as a guide, the publishers have embellished it with five very delicate photographic vignettes. There are also two good maps, from Coast-Survey data; but we miss a third showing the entire shape of the island and its position with regard to the coast of Maine. The pocket volume published by Estes & Lauriat, 'Our Vacations: Where to go, how to go, and how to enjoy them,' by Frank E. Clark, is addressed principally to the Bostonian, though New Englanders generally and New Yorkers may profit by its suggestions, with only a slight variation from its very moderate estimates of the cost of travel. Three routes are described—to the White Mountains, to Upper and Lower Canada, and to the Provinces; and the "great middle class" whom Mr. Clark aims to serve will find his account of the places visited truthful and trustworthy. His estimates speak for themselves.

—The question of how a community shall select a good work of art to be set up for public adornment and use has always been a difficult one, and has never yet, so far as we have heard, been settled. Princes and magnates of taste or of magnificence have patronized artists whose capacity they appreciated, or in whom they for one reason and another believed as men of talents or genius; and this good understanding and patronage have had noble effects. But when once this personal relation (so to call it) between artist and patron fails, it appears to be very difficult so to arrange matters that any community taken at large shall be able to lay its hands upon the right man to produce for it at a given moment its public works of art. This at all events is true of our American communities, and the fact has long been confessed, the only difficulty being that the portion of the community which makes the confession is small in number and comparatively blameless, while the major portion makes no confession at all and goes on in its sins without remorse. Mr. Sumner, who had a taste for art—the taste, perhaps, of a collector rather than of a person endowed with true taste—plainly told the Senate, when Miss Vinnie Ream wanted a commission to make a statue of Lincoln, that senators might as well place Miss Ream on the staff of General Grant; or put General Grant aside and set her on horseback instead. "She cannót do it," he said, "she might as well contract to furnish an epic poem or the draft of a bankrupt bill." But many of the senators represented constituencies such as the Western one which a year ago was admiring a fancy bust sculptured in lard or butter by a lady who exhibited it at a State fair. It was beautifully done, according to the accounts. Others were from a part of the Union where, some years since, a young artist, Mr. L. G. Mead, did a statue or statues in snow, to the admiration of all beholders. And the question as to skilful hands like these and many more (which actually can make a figure exactly like a human figure, and one which actually looks like So-and-so) whether, that is, they have behind them any of the qualities which make of a man an artist as distinguished from a practitioner of elegant stone-cutting and a statue-maker for "M. or N.," as the catechism says, is a question which few if any legislators, and few other persons, ask themselves. Indeed, there is no reason why they should. They do not know that the question exists. Mr. Sumner spoke in vain, and Miss Ream got her commission, and her Lincoln is now among the monuments of the Capital. It is understood that the same woman has succeeded in getting the commission for the colossal Farragut statue, and this although her design was rejected by the proper Congressional committee; she afterwards secured her contract by the vote of a board of commissioners, of whom a majority were committed in advance to vote for Miss Ream.

—How commissions for public works of art shall be given out is made the subject of a letter from Mr. Richard S. Greenough to the Boston *Advertiser*, and it contains suggestions worth pondering. One especially has so much obvious common sense in it, and is so likely to be disregarded, that particular attention should be called to it: At the end of his communication, Mr. Greenough says that he wishes to declare his belief that statues should rarely be erected to an individual within fifty years of his decease. There will, of course, be exceptions to this rule, but we imagine they would be of rarer occurrence than might be supposed. And it should be remembered that the modern public statue, as we in this country know it, is in every case a tribute to men who have in one way and another actively served the state. There was no reason why an Antinous should not be commemorated in marble on the day of his death, nor why any Serene Highness who, by ruling over his principality, had *ex officio* a right to a monument perennial in its bronze, should not have his effigies at once set up in the town square. But with us it is different, and time should be allowed the devil's advocate to show the needlessness of statues to General Worths and Stephen A. Douglases and Elias Howes. Mr. Greenough's other suggestions stated briefly are these: To begin with, the excellence of a work of art may be referred to several qualities, as, first, Design; second, Composition; third, Execution; fourth, Material. Absence of excellence in any one of these qualities may unfit a work for public usefulness. As regards works in sculpture, their merit in respect of the first three qualities may be secured by reference to study-models, and, in respect of the fourth, material may be secured by contract. As to conferring public commissions, there are two methods of doing so—first, by direct commission; second, by competition. For the first, time is not as yet ripe; for the second, artists dislike it as hitherto employed, but improvement may be possible. Mr. Greenough would have the commissioners send a special invitation to certain artists of reputation, and the designs thus secured he would have paid for at a fixed and sufficient rate, the honor of the solicitation counting for something. At the same time, a public notice should be given inviting all artists whatsoever to compete at their own expense and risk, and this invitation should not bar out foreign artists. We do not know if the first and special invitation is to be sent to our American artists to the exclusion of foreigners. The designs being all in, the commission should vote on them, and then its functions, so far as design goes, should cease. Next, artists of a certain grade should be allowed to vote, the qualification for casting an artist's vote being a thing to be determined by the commissioners. These two ballotings being recorded, the public might be called in and vote without distinction of sex, but with this distinction of age: If the statue is for a city, the voter should

be above the age of twenty-five; if for a State, above thirty-five; and if for the country at large, forty-five. It will be seen that a trial in practice would have important bearings on this theory, as indeed Mr. Greenough himself remarks.

—Persons friendly to the better education of women will be interested in hearing about such measure of success as now, in the day of small things, has attended the Harvard Examinations for Women. The examiners have not made their report, and we must as yet admit it to be within the possibilities that they may report unfavorably; but it is not within the probabilities, and the promoters of the movement speak of it with a hopeful satisfaction. They announce that the number of candidates for examination was eleven; but of these one was too young, being less than seventeen years old; three others "were prevented by circumstances beyond their control from carrying out their purpose"; and the number actually present was seven. It should be remembered that the notice had been out barely a year, so that the number of candidates is said to have been a surprise to the friends of the enterprise, especially when it was considered that both the age and work required of candidates made it probable that for the first year the candidates must come from persons employed in teaching and having at their disposal but little time for study. While awaiting the examiners' report, the committee of the Boston Education Society allows itself some inferences in good part drawn from its wide correspondence. In the first place, the committee thinks that while the applicants this year were but seven, the number preparing themselves for two and three years hence is not less than seventy. Secondly, it is evident to the committee that the desire for a definite plan of study at which to work has not been overrated. Thirdly, it seems to be quite possible, even for teachers in charge of primary schools containing fifty or sixty pupils, to find time for work in the line of the examination papers. And surely, we may say in passing, such students deserve success and sympathy. Judging by the committee's communication to the public, it is to a very great extent from the various classes of teachers that they have drawn, and that they expect in future to draw, their recruits. They say: "Some plan must be devised by which study can be carried on parallel with work, and the result made of value in obtaining higher positions and more pay." And, again, for the teacher constantly comes to view: "We, here in the United States, must employ women as teachers in numbers and proportions wholly unknown anywhere else, and while they remain in the work not more than five years on the average—the average for Massachusetts; in other States it is less—it is hopeless to talk of training them as men are trained for life-work." Then follows the remark quoted above, about the need of a plan for enabling school teachers to carry on work in school side by side with work done for the examiners. We hope these latter, in making their report, may give us some information as to the relative numbers of teachers and of young ladies without occupation who presented themselves at the examination, and also as to English experience in this respect. The committee close by reminding the public that "the examinations are by no means limited to Boston and its vicinity. The university is ready to do its part of furnishing papers, examiners, and certificates wherever an association will take in hand the rest of the work." For information and for specimen papers and so forth, application may be made to Mrs. C. G. Loring, No. 1 Mt. Vernon Place. The specimen papers and the pamphlet containing lists of books are forwarded for the nominal price of twenty-five cents.

—The London *Spectator* is a journal of such ability and such goodness that not to accord it respect is impossible; but once in so often it suffers from hysteria, and in its fits it not only enunciates strange ideas, which it insists upon in a hectic way, but it discovers also facts of a character to be called paroxysmal. In its last number it informs its readers that General Grant in his candidacy for the Presidential chair lost hardly a vote in spite of the strong suspicion that he is a Roman Catholic. The *Spectator*, with its interest in American affairs and its frequently wise conclusions about them, intermixed with its frequent errors, should give up one department of its omniscience and take counsel now and then with some terrene American creature resident in London.

—Gen. Schenck's customary announcement in the London *Times* that he would be glad to meet his countrymen on the Fourth of July excited in the breast of one American resident at least feelings the very opposite of those intended. "To be notified," he writes us hotly on that date, "that we are expected to come and congratulate Gen. Schenck on an official relation that is a public and national humiliation, is a renewal of mortification to which I for one will not submit tamely. There is an additional reason for sensitiveness to Gen. Schenck's disgrace in the shamefaced festivities connected with the opening of Leicester Square (the gift of Albert Grant, the General's confederate in the Emma-Mine swindle), to which I was two days ago a chance witness. As everybody in America knows, doubtless, this Grant made enormous sums of money in Emma-Mine and other stock-swindling operations, and, in order to buy a patent of respectability, purchased and has made a present to the public of the shabbily-kept Leicester Square, changed to a public garden. The festivities reminded me very much of one of Gen. Schenck's receptions. There were many flags, amongst which (as was appropriate) the American was conspicuous; there was a band, and a great effort to appear respectable and select, but of unofficial English respectability nothing to speak of. Meanwhile, in another part of London, a procession was making the rounds with huge placards announcing that Albert Grant, having swindled the English public out of £4,000,000, had returned a trifling per cent. of it in the purchase of Leicester Square; and then other placards gave the names of the stock operations by which Grant had made himself a millionaire; amongst these the Emma was chief. Naturally, the newspapers congratulate the generous donor, as the proper officials did at the presentation, and the rabble of Leicester Square cheered him as he drove off, but respectability still holds aloof, and he has not fared much otherwise than as Gen. Schenck. Comment is satirical and incredulous. I happened that day to dine out with Englishmen, amongst whom at table the day's celebration was subject of conversation, and connected therewith the Emma and its associations, and I heard for the first time (so remote am I from stock conversations) that Gen. Grant is, in England, believed to have made a large sum by the Emma swindle, and therefore retains Schenck in the post he soiled! That the Minister has been for a long time the object of contempt to respectable Englishmen I have always known. Is it any wonder that I am disposed to keep my Fourth of July in the private and silence of my own household, with a sense of shame and irritation quite inconsistent with my presenting myself at the Legation?" Albert Grant, we will add, is the English equivalent of Jay Gould, and is believed to have been the conceiver and executor of the happy stroke by which Schenck's name was secured for the Emma directory.

—The death of Fritz Reuter is a real loss to German literature; his reputation as a novelist is widespread, and although in this country more are familiar with his name than with his writings in the original form, there are many who know the simple charm of 'The Year '13,' and will be ready to lament his death. He was born, November 7, 1810, at Stavenhagen, a small town in Mecklenburg-Schwerin; he studied at Rostock and at Jena, or rather he was connected with that university, but his father having refused to let him cultivate his taste for painting he was averse to devoting much of his time to his books. The German students at that time were thinking of nothing but the possible grandeur of their country, when the Government began its persecution of would-be reformers. Reuter was arrested after the outbreak at Frankfort and condemned to death, but the king commuted his sentence to thirty years' imprisonment, and it was not for seven years, until the death of King Frederick William III., in 1840, that Reuter was set free. An account of his imprisonment is to be found in one of his best works, 'Ut mine Festungstid." The next ten years of his life he passed in restless endeavors to make up for the time he had lost and secure a position in life. He tried in vain studying, painting, and farming. In 1850, he became a teacher in Treptow, being tempted by the meagre salary, on which he married. It was not until 1853 that he began to write. From that date his books appeared rapidly. They have already appeared in an American edition, published by Steiger, of this city, in seven volumes. The unfamiliar appearance of the "Platt-deutsch" is likely to deter many readers familiar with High-German, but who only need two or three hours' practice to read the other. They will find in his stories real humor, much pathos, some charming scenes, and a freshness and vividness that manage to escape most of his translators. He was an ill hand at the careful construction of a story, but he knew how to draw lifelike characters, and, what is more, to make the reader pleased with them.

—The announcement of the first volume of W. Chappell's 'History of Music' reminds us to call the attention of students of Greek music and Greek authors to a letter sent to *Dwight's Journal of Music* for May 30, by A. W. Thayer, from Trieste. The letter relates to Paul Marquard and his edition of the Greek writers on music. Studemund, the editor of Gaius, and the transcriber of the palimpsest of Plautus in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, had projected a similar undertaking, but gave his collection and co-operation to Marquard when the latter commenced his work. All the extant writers were to be included in this series, the Greek text to be accompanied by a German translation and notes. Dr. Deiters, one of the collaborators, was at work upon Aristides Quintilianus, and had this author nearly ready for the press, when the work was interrupted in December, 1872, by Marquard's death at the age of 36. The work upon which Marquard had concentrated his studies was the 'Harmonic Fragments of Aris-

toxenus,' and he had brought out an edition of this author through Weidmann of Berlin in 1868. The interrupted series was to be published by Teubner of Leipzig, and in this Marquard's book was to have appeared in a second edition. It is now very uncertain whether the work will be continued, with, perhaps, Studemund as chief-editor. Mr. Thayer's letter is interesting for its story of Marquard and its mention of the difficulties and characteristics of his undertaking.

—Another work on names (see the *Nation*, No. 469) is Karl Gustaf Andresen's 'Die altdeutschen Personennamen in ihrer Entwickelung und Erscheinung als heutige Geschlechtsnamen' (Mainz, 1873). An earlier essay on names by Andresen, to which he refers in this pamphlet, was published in Kuhn's *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung*, N. F., Vol. I., pp. 465 ff.; and another, very brief, in the *Jahrbücher für Philologie*, 1863 (2), 'Ueber eine Art zusammengesetzter Familiennamen.' His method in the present pamphlet is, after about twenty pages of introduction, to arrange under a number of root-names, for which he does not claim exhaustiveness, their modern derivatives, giving a large place among these derivatives to diminutives and contractions expressive for the most part of familiarity and endearment. He mentions, as especially important authorities in treating these latter forms, Franz Stark's 'Die Kosenamen der Germanen' (Wien. 1868), and K. Strackerjan's 'Die jeverländischen Personennamen' (Jever, 1864). A number of other German authorities on names are referred to in his book, and some of them—the Programms, for instance—are not apt to find their way into the commoner catalogues. A comparison with Miss Yonge's 'History of Christian Names,' which goes over a good deal of ground in common with Andresen, shows some differences between the two authors. Miss Yonge tells us that "Behr and Behring are surnames for the bear in Germany, and the last very appropriately named Behring's Straits." Neither of these names appears in Andresen under Ber, Bär. But while Miss Yonge says truly that Behr is a German surname, the discoverer of the Straits was a Dane. Gustav, Miss Yonge says, means either the divine staff or the staff of the Goths. Andresen puts Gustav under 'Gund, *Krieg*,' after a "plausible conjecture by J. Grimm," and speaks of the word as analogous with Gundastap and Kriegesstab. We doubt whether in this case this kind of analogy is decisive. The reference to 'God, *Gott*' seems to us, in view of well-known Hebrew compounds, to be as plausible a conjecture as Grimm's, and we are disposed, considering the feebleness of vowels in the history of the changes of words, to question whether Gustav and perhaps other surnames with first syllable in Gu should not be included under this head.

—The sixth annual meeting of the American Philological Association was held at Hartford last week (July 14-17). It was one of the largest and most successful meetings of the series, especially noticeable for the number of new members (about forty) and for the general excellence of the papers presented. It is, we think, the first meeting which has not been seriously annoyed and interrupted by wild and unsubstantial theories. The address of the President, Prof. March, delivered on the evening of July 14, was marked by a peculiar grace and humor, and was in the main devoted to a discussion of the future work of philology. It is significant that, like other eminent philologists (as Prof. Whitney, a few years ago in our columns), he takes decided ground in favor of a reform in English spelling. Of the papers read, the most important were two by Prof. Whitney upon the elements of speech; Prof. Short's, upon the Latin of the Vulgate; and two upon Indian philology by Dr. Trumbull. The most animated discussions were called out by papers upon the Greek subjunctive (that never-failing theme) by Prof. Sewall of Bowdoin, and upon the formation of the Latin perfect by Prof. Harkness of Boston. The citizens of Hartford received the Association with great hospitality, and did everything in their power to make the occasion an agreeable one. The next meeting is appointed for Newport. The new president is Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull of Hartford, one of the members to whom the success of the Association is largely due.

FROUDE'S ENGLISH IN IRELAND.*

I.

MR. FROUDE has good gifts. Remarkable literary power, a vivid imagination, skill in discovering and industry in exploring new fields of information, go far to qualify him for historical investigations. Some knowledge of Ireland, a keen eye for the dramatic side of annals filled with tragic incidents, freedom from prejudices which hamper most Englishmen in dealing with the history of a people unlike their own, seem to mark him out for the historian of Ireland. In spite of these, Mr. Froude has failed in the performance of his self-imposed task. His so-called history turns out a political pamphlet, written by an advocate who can hardly even affect judicial impartiality. His apology for the rule of the English in Ireland condemns those whom it is meant to defend, and his political teaching is certain to irritate and insult the Liberals and Catholics whom it is meant to instruct. Calm and sagacious students may learn important lessons from Mr. Froude's pages, though hardly the lessons which he means to enforce. But most readers will refuse to learn from an instructor who exhibits in every line of his work that curious perversity of judgment and want of a sense of justice which more than counterbalance the literary merits of Mr. Froude's writings.

To criticise, within the limits of an article, the spirit of a long book is always a task of difficulty. A critic cannot, for example, within the space at our disposal, examine Mr. Froude's eccentric eulogy of George III., who is treated as "a genius" because he wrote or signed a letter filled with good sentiments which he never attempted to put into practice. It is impossible to enumerate or even give instances of the insulting expressions applied by Mr. Froude to the Irish people and to every leader whom the Irish people have honored. It is impossible to weigh the value or the worthlessness of statements based on letters (many of them from informers) which are not accessible to the general public. It is, in fact, necessary in most cases to assume that Mr. Froude has drawn correct inferences of fact from the evidence before him, though this assumption must be made with fear and trembling by any one who remembers our author's implicit faith in preambles to statutes, or who notices the obliquity of moral view displayed in the statement that "if the Irish Catholics were not guilty in 1641 their estates ought to be restored to the nation from which they were violently taken"—an assertion which virtually amounts to making the tenure of land in Ireland depend for its moral justification on the hypothetical accuracy of Mr. Froude's version of the events of 1641.

The fairest mode of justifying the assertion that Mr. Froude lacks a sense of justice is to direct attention to one or two cases in which this deficiency becomes markedly apparent. Take as a first instance his account of the death of Sheehy. Of the whole matter we know nothing except the facts which Mr. Froude himself narrates, having told the "story at some length on account of the prominence given to it by Irish historians." Father Sheehy was the centre of a Whiteboy conspiracy, and the instigator or abettor of a system of terrorism kept up by assassination. Supposing Sheehy's guilt to be now conclusively brought home to him, he indubitably was "as deep a criminal as ever swung from cross-beam"; but he none the less undoubtedly was, on Mr. Froude's own version of the facts, judicially murdered. He was by a breach of faith entrapped into surrendering to take his trial. This, however, is a trifle compared to what took place at the trial itself. The transaction is thus narrated by Mr. Froude: "The body of Bridges had not been found. Witnesses came forward to swear that he had left the country. It was proved, however, that there had been a conspiracy to murder him. A Mr. Keating, described as a gentleman of property in the county, offered to prove that Father Nicholas [Sheehy] was at his house on the night when the murder was committed, but Mr. Hewetson, a clergyman and an active magistrate, rose in court and said that he had a charge against Keating for having been present at the killing of the soldiers. Keating's evidence was refused, and he was committed to the jail at Kilkenny. The Sheehies were found guilty, and were both hanged." In other words, Sheehy was convicted by the simple process of refusing to hear evidence in his favor. Of the proceeding itself it is unnecessary to say anything. The man may have been a double-dyed villain, but he was murdered. Now for Mr. Froude's comment: "It was an extreme measure: the breach of faith in returning him to Tipperary; the military occupation of the town; the non-discovery of the body, led to an impression, even with moderate persons, that he had been unfairly dealt with." The "impression" is one which will be shared by every one acquainted with the nature either of law or of justice. Mr. Froude, however, asserts that "the Government was essentially right," and appears not to perceive that no subsequent proof of Sheehy's guilt can wipe out the more heinous guilt of his sham trial.

Turn now to a case in which Mr. Froude deals with the treatment not of a man but of a class. If there be one course of procedure which is more opposed than another, not only to common humanity and to the most ordinary sense of justice, but also to the narrow and not always humane rules of English law, it is the use of torture to extort confession. This abuse has never at the darkest periods of English history been countenanced by the law. It has for centuries been in England, at least, absolutely unknown. But the Orangemen of 1798, knowing nothing of justice and having no reason to fear the law, established a system of torture. Picketing, pitch-caps, the lash were the weapons by which they extorted confessions, true or false, from suspected rebels. That men maddened at once by the insolence of domination and by the fear of massacre should act with brutal cruelty, can surprise no one who remembers English feeling during the Indian mutiny. That Lord Clare should defend horrors which shocked trained

* 'The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century. By J. A. Froude, M.A.' Vols. II. and III. London: Longmans & Co.; New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

soldiers sent to put down rebellion, causes little surprise to any one who has studied his lordship's career, even in the pages of his admirer. But it is allowable to feel something more than surprise at the language in which an historian, in the calmness of his study, writes of crimes which have earned for the party by whom they were committed a hatred which the lapse of more than half a century has not appeased.

"The United Irishmen had affected the fashion of short hair. The loyalists called them Croppies, and if a Croppy prisoner stood silent when it was certain that he could confess with effect, paper or linen caps smeared with pitch were forced upon his head to bring him to his senses. Such things ought not to have been, and such things would not have been had General Clare been supplied with English troops; but assassins will not always be delicately handled by those whose lives they have threatened." Mr. Froude further adds, that "occasionally, not often, men suffered who were innocent so far as no definite guilt could be proved against them," and concludes a passage too long for entire quotation with this reflection: "Society demands the active aid of all its members to prevent or discover crimes; and men who leave these duties unfulfilled are confounded naturally with the actively guilty, when society thus falls in pieces and military severity is compulsorily substituted for law." These sentences do not require comment, though it may be well to explain (which Mr. Froude, as far as we have remarked, never does) that the "pitch" used by his loyalists was hot pitch. Our readers will without our aid perceive that to confound the innocent with the guilty is the natural result of a system of torture, and is to ordinary minds the height of injustice, and will find no difficulty in distinguishing between the use of the lash and the pitch-cap and what Mr. Froude confounds with it, "military severity." That he and his admirers would probably make light of the distinction, may be admitted; it is exactly this inability to distinguish outrage from severity which shows their want of a sense of justice.

Take as a last example of our historian's spirit his account of one of those cases in which "occasionally men suffered who were innocent":

"This gentleman [Mr. Fitzgerald] did by decisive measures effectually break the insurgent organization in Tipperary, so that when the rebellion came the most dangerous county in Ireland lay motionless. They were not gentle measures. He used the whip freely, and he made one mistake which was not forgotten. A man named Wright, at Clonmel, was suspected of connection with the United Irishmen. The suspicion in all likelihood was well founded. On searching him a letter was found in his pocket in French. Fitzgerald did not understand the language, but his mind, like that of any one else, was full of the expected French invasion. The letter, though utterly innocent, was treated as an evidence of guilt, and Wright was severely flogged. He prosecuted the High Sheriff afterwards, and recovered £500 as damages."

"Fitzgerald has been rewarded with a black name in Irish legend, and with the scorn of foolish historians; he was rewarded also by the knowledge that by his general nerve and bravery he had probably saved at least ten thousand lives, and the English Government, though generally too proud to remember good service in Ireland, yet so far acknowledged Fitzgerald's merits that they paid his fine and created him a baronet."

Turn now from Mr. Froude's pages to the 'State Trials,'* which throw a good deal of additional light on Fitzgerald's character and services. His conduct to Wright reads like that of a maniac. Wright came himself to surrender. The sheriff addressed him in these words: "Fall on your knees and receive your sentence, for you are a rebel and have been a principal in the rebellion. You are to receive five hundred lashes and then be shot." The trial which Wright demanded was refused him. When Wright was brought to the ladder Fitzgerald pulled off his hat, stamped on it, dragged him by the hair, struck him with his sword, and kicked him. A hundred lashes were actually inflicted, and if the victim escaped being hanged or shot he apparently owed his life to the scruples of an officer who had greater respect for the law than had the sheriff. Wright, Mr. Froude will urge, was probably guilty. A jury presided over by two Protestant judges thought otherwise. Fitzgerald, he insinuates, was a relative of the murdered Uniackes. Of the truth of this assertion neither the trial nor the subsequent debate in the Irish Parliament affords the least proof. Fitzgerald's friends were, as the event proved, willing enough to protect him; but they felt that his conduct needed palliation, and would, it may be conjectured, have gladly brought forward any circumstance which might provide some apology for a course of action which even Orangemen of 1799 felt required to be excused. The important fact, however, is that Fitzgerald's assault on Wright was not a solitary outrage. He entered on his office determined to wring out information of treason by means of the lash. The following description of his conduct is given in the *Edinburgh Review*, on the authority of Sir John Moore: "[Moore] entered the town of Clogheen, where in the street he saw a man tied up and under the lash, while the street itself was lined with country people on their knees, with their hats off. He was informed that the High Sheriff, Mr. Fitzgerald, was making great discoveries, and that he had already flogged the truth out of many respectable persons." His rule was, "to flog each person till he told the truth"—that is, until he confessed himself "a rebel and gave the names of other rebels, and then the persons so accused were sent for and flogged until they also confessed, and also swelled the list of the proscribed!"

There were even in 1799 members of the Irish Parliament who told of at least one case in which the attempt to "flog out" truth ended in flogging out falsehood, and who denounced Fitzgerald's system of legal investigation. He stands, however, condemned rather by the conduct of his friends than the assertions of his enemies. His offences had exceeded the limits of a wide act of indemnity. He was threatened with endless actions, brought by persons whom he had injured or insulted. Judges and juries alike were against him. The law would have crushed him, but a Protestant Parliament passed a special act to protect him from the law. In the 'State Trials' is to be found the following note: "Mr. Fitzgerald afterwards received a considerable pension for his active services in quelling the rebellion; he was also created a baronet of the United Kingdom." If this statement be correct, the English Government can hardly be charged with ingratitude for his good service, and Mr. Fitzgerald obtained a more solid reward than the consciousness of that kind of "nerve and bravery" which is shown in flogging helpless wretches till they tell any lie which pleases their tormentors. There may be those who regret that the English Government was not "too proud" to remember good services which deserve nothing but punishment, and there must be some among Mr. Froude's admirers who marvel that a man who, except when he has pen in hand, is no doubt as humane as any other English gentleman, should think it his duty to exculpate a ruffian whom "history has been," most righteously, "pleased to gibbet for his share" in "transactions" which will generally excite the condemnation of all who detest injustice.

* See 27 Howell's 'State Trials,' p. 759.

PIKE'S HISTORY OF CRIME IN ENGLAND.*

ADMIRABLE as it is in some respects, this book is yet a disappointment. The author has been fortunate in his choice of a subject. He has spared no labor in gathering his materials from all authentic sources, published and unpublished, and in these days of book-making he deserves unstinted praise for the rigorous honesty with which he confines himself to original investigation from contemporary authorities, and avoids the short and easy method of compilation from other men's researches. He has thus amassed a large amount of curious information, much of it now for the first time in print, and nearly all of the highest importance, as shedding fresh light upon the institutions, the history, and the social condition of England from the time of the Romans to the accession of the Tudors. To all future students of English history the book will be indispensable, and it would leave little to be desired if the author had illustrated his subject from a somewhat wider range of reading, and had possessed the ability to marshal his facts to the best advantage. As it is, the work is rather the materials for a history than a history. It is a mine from which succeeding writers will draw abundantly and safely, for it has the impress of the conscientious student who takes nothing for granted, and who states no fact without solid proof; but unfortunately it lacks the logical arrangement by which its mass of information would form a continuous story of the progress of human development in England, and for the most part we miss the illustrations from the jurisprudence of other races which would lend fresh interest and a clearer understanding to many subjects of which the author gives but a limited and imperfect view.

Thus, scattered throughout the volume are ample materials for tracing the rise of the jury system from its rude beginnings in compurgation, through the time in which jurors were witnesses as well as judges; but the author leaves the reader to pick these out and co-ordinate them for himself. So, too, this very subject of compurgation, or the wager of law, is treated as though it were an institution peculiar to England, and the vast amount of instructive illustration which it might receive from the canon law and contemporary customs throughout Europe is utterly neglected, no reference even being made to the "raith" of the Welsh codes. In fact, though Mr. Pike laboriously presents the evidence deducible from Tacitus and Cæsar to show the institutions which the Saxons imported into England, he seems to think it altogether unnecessary to follow up the sources thus indicated, and trace the influence which undoubtedly was exercised upon English customs by the Continental races, and especially by the Normans. No one, indeed, can properly understand the sources of the English common law without careful

* 'A History of Crime in England, illustrating the Changes of the Laws in the Progress of Civilization. Written from the Public Records, and other Contemporary Evidence. By Luke Owen Pike, M.A., Barrister-at-Law.' Vol. I., from the Roman Invasion to the Accession of Henry VII. 8vo. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1873.

study of the coutumier of Normandy, for which the activity of Continental scholars has furnished abundant materials, yet to this Mr. Pike makes not a single reference. He of course is obliged to make use of the code promulgated for England by Canute, and it seems incredible that this should not have directed his attention to the invaluable material contained in the legislation of Scandinavia and Iceland. That curious anomaly of English law, the benefit of clergy, affords to Mr. Pike the subject of reasonable animadversion, yet no one could gather from his pages its origin in the canon law common to all Christendom, or suppose that England only differed from the rest of Europe in adopting the reading test as a proof of "clergy," and in retaining it after other races had succeeded in practically abolishing it. The same narrowness of view has prevented his recognizing and pointing out the profound influence exercised by the revival of the Roman law in breaking down the feudal system. Though this is less apparent in England than in France, and though the English refused to allow the Imperial jurisprudence a formal foothold within the island, nevertheless its principles interpenetrated and largely aided in moulding the common law and modified the relations between the suzerain and his vassals. A similar lack of comprehensiveness is noticeable in the treatment of the commercial development to which the author assigns its proper share in the progress of England. His constant reference to the mercantile shortcomings of English merchants renders it surprising that he should have overlooked the illustrations to be found in the mercantile codes which England did so much to mould into shape—the Rôles d'Oléron, the Laws of Wisby, and the Consulat de la Mer.

It could be wished also that Mr. Pike had given, as he is abundantly able to do from the sources with which he is so familiar, a more detailed and connected statement of the introduction and development of the Eyres or circuits of the king's judges. It has always seemed to us that this was one of the most powerful influences at work in directing the course of English institutions into a channel so different from that adopted by the Continental nations, rendering rational liberty possible so much earlier than among other races. A somewhat similar system, devised by Charlemagne in his *missi dominici*, was the most efficient instrument of civilization throughout his vast and incongruous empire, and speedily disappeared in the first dawn of feudalism. Its reappearance in England and the results which it rendered possible would worthily have occupied the attention of one who has shown his ability to gather together all attainable details of trustworthy information.

Mr. Pike has done himself injustice in the selection of a title. His work is far more than a mere history of crime, for though the evil deeds of our ancestors form the staple of the text, it contains a vast amount of curious and novel information respecting their habits and modes of thought, their customs and social institutions, their pursuits and industries, which affords us a most welcome insight into the inner life of the Middle Ages. Nowhere could we point out a more instructive collection of facts on this subject than the chapter devoted to the condition of England in 1348, on the eve of the plague known as the Black Death. Moreover, despite his lack of constructive ability, Mr. Pike occasionally pauses in his recital to give a striking résumé of the leading characteristics of an epoch. Some of these are very effective, such as his description of British life under the Roman domination (pp. 25–30) and the condition of society in the reign of Henry II. (pp. 140–146). These are too long to quote, but a fair sample of his style may be found in the following from his picture of England in the fifteenth century:

"It mattered, perhaps, little that housewives thought as much of long bows and arrows, of cross-bows and bolts, of pole-axes and armor for the defence of their homes, as of furniture for their bed-chambers or fittings for their malt-houses. It mattered little that a letter could be sent from one part of England to another only by a trusty special messenger or by the uncertain hands of a pilgrim or a chapman travelling to a fair. It mattered little that money could not be safely carried in any way from any country town to London, because the roads or paths were infested by thieves. All this was but the ordinary condition of England in time of peace, as that time was called when there were no greater deeds of arms than riots, routs, and affrays, forcible entries, and murders by great gangs of robbers. It mattered not very much that pestilence infected the towns, as pestilence always infects them during wars, for they were so ill-drained and ill-built that they were rarely free from some kind of plague. But worse evils even than these befell the English people during the Wars of the Roses, if we may believe the petition of the Lords and Commons to Richard, Duke of Gloucester, immediately before he became Richard III., king of England. As usual, a contrast was drawn between the great 'prosperity, honor, and tranquillity' of a past time not definitely fixed and the miseries still fresh in the memories of living men. After that bygone period of happiness, always seen as in a mirage, the rulers of the land, it was declared in Parliament, delighted in adulation, were led astray by sensuality and concupiscence, and followed the counsel of persons who were insolent, vicious, and inordinately avaricious. Felicity was turned into wretchedness, prosperity into adversity; order and the law of God and of man were confounded. The kingdom was ruled by terror, justice was put away and despised, and murder, extortion, and oppression took its place. 'No man was sure of his life, his land, or his livelihood, of his wife, of his daughter, or of his servant; every good maiden and woman standing in dread to be ravished and defouled.'"

It may be judged from this that Mr. Pike is no *laudator temporis acti*. In fact, one of the defects of his book is the unconscious exaggeration to which his study of the festering sores of the past has led him. This is, perhaps, a natural reaction from the glamour which a certain school of historians, writing with half-knowledge, have thrown around the Ages of Faith; and their romantic rhapsodies can scarcely fail to provoke antagonism on the part of an accurate scholar like Mr. Pike, whose studies have led him to an intimate acquaintance with the weaknesses, the follies, and the vices of those days. Yet none the less is there error in the unredeemed blackness of the pictures which he paints of age after age, from the Saxon invasion to the close of the fifteenth century. In his pages, kings, nobles, prelates, and churls rival each other in shameless iniquity. The most chivalrous knight is a robber, the merchant is a smuggler, the trader is a swindler, the judge is a perverter of justice for bribes, the lawyer a trafficker in the interests of his client, the priest a compound of the sins of all other classes, the woman, whether a lady of high degree or a humble housewife, is a slave who seeks her liberty in turning harlot.

In fact, Mr. Pike appears to be incapable of the generalizations which would render his deductions from the facts which he has collected valuable as a contribution to the history of human development, while the generalization which consists in making sweeping assertions is easy to him. Sometimes this is done without any facts adduced in its support, as when (p. 319) in describing the terrors of the Black Death he says, "There was no knowledge of the laws of health to give courage in meeting the plague, *no sincere religion to give comfort in death or bereavement.*" Sometimes these general statements are based on manifestly insufficient premises, as when (p. 265) some instructions to investigate evasions of the revenue, in 22 Edward III., are expanded into the general denunciation that "the first thought of the exporter was how he could escape payment of the duty; the first thought of the importer, how he could introduce base money from abroad." Five centuries hence it will be easy for any writer who may industriously examine our statute-books and the dockets of our courts to produce ample evidence such as this that the present generation was utterly abandoned to lying and swindling, to crimes of violence, and to all manner of uncleanness; yet we, who are familiar with both sides of the shield, while we deprecate the evil that exists around us, and strive to diminish it, are fully aware of the coexisting good; and a more philosophical turn of mind on the part of Mr. Pike would have led him not only to admit that all men were not demons from the fifth century to the fifteenth, but to have seen in the very successive laws which he quotes the evidence not only of the evils they were designed to check, but also of the efforts ceaselessly making to aid the right in its sempiternal struggle with the wrong.

It is somewhat curious and, to an American not particularly gratifying, to observe that not a few of the evidences adduced by Mr. Pike to prove a condition of barbarism almost incredible to the modern Englishman, are evils of which we are daily making complaint. When he shows that criminals were habitually pardoned for the reason of state that their services might be secured in wars with France, he evidently is not aware that with us such pardons are frequent to serviceable warriors in the strife of election day When he instances the difficulty of obtaining impartial trials for defendants of rank and station, he evidently cannot imagine that with us, in the full glare of modern civilization, criminals of political influence can almost bid defiance to the laws; and when he alludes to the venality of the bench as an irrefragable proof of the debasement of our forefathers, he shows a lamentable ignorance of the existence of such judicial luminaries as Barnard and Cardozo. If in the mouldy records of the *Coram Rege* Roll he had found an instance, like that of Messrs. Gardner and Charlick, of the reappointment of persons while still under sentence for malfeasance in office, he would have felt himself justified in proclaiming that the people of England were so utterly lost to shame that they preferred criminals to honest men for the most responsible positions, and that they were all irredeemably bad. Low as is unfortunately the tone of our public morality, we know how false would be such conclusions from undeniable facts, and thus Mr. Pike's volume, while invaluable as a collection of historical material, is unphilosophical in its tone and unsafe as a guide.

We shall look forward with much interest to the appearance of the promised continuation of the work, while expressing the hope that the author will see fit to modify the arrangement of his notes and references. He has gathered these together at the end of the volume as an Appendix, without any marks of reference in the text, on the plea that the reader should not have his attention distracted. Had Mr. Pike been writing an historical romance,

this would have been very convenient, as it has proved to be in the Waverley Novels, but his book is eminently one which should have been arranged for the student rather than for the superficial reader, and the distractions caused by continually turning from one end of the volume to the other, not only to ascertain references to authorities, but in hopes of finding additional interesting information upon the subject of the text, is far more damaging to the continuity of the narrative and distracting to the attention of the reader, than merely glancing to the bottom of the page.

Souvenirs de Bourgogne. Par Emile Montégut. (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 1874.)—Among the French writers of the past twenty years, M. Emile Montégut is not the most conspicuous. The *rôle effacé*, as the French say, which he has been willing to play, has indeed in a measure helped to characterize his gifts. His articles, extremely numerous and various, and treating often of English themes, must be sought out in the back volumes of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, for he has never thought it worth his while to republish them. We have often wondered why, and have finally concluded that this inflexible modesty is but another form of the subtle fastidiousness which is the most striking quality in his writings. His only large literary enterprise has been a prose translation of Shakspere, but it must be confessed that this is a task of handsome proportions. He has also published French versions of Macaulay's History and of Emerson's earlier essays. His philosophy as a critic and commentator is rather of the pessimistic sort; it is at least a philosophy in which resignation, appreciation, and a kind of mellow stoicism, finding its *point d'appui* in culture for culture's sake, stand instead of certain more boisterous forms of hope and faith. It is difficult to define so peculiar a literary temperament as that of M. Montégut, but the attempt would be worth making for the sake of enlarging our conception of intellectual delicacy. To succeed in it, one would really need our author's own faculty of super-subtle analysis. We most rapidly hit the mark, perhaps, in saying that he is, to our sense, a fruit of pure culture, refined to an intellectual mellowness beside which the inspiration proceeding from genius seems crude and cold. Whether M. Montégut is a man of genius or not is again a case for an æsthetic casuist like himself to deal with, and he lacks, certainly, the more aggressive attributes of talent. He has neither the weight and mass and emphasis of M. Taine, nor the bristling malice—the critical *scratch*, as one may call it—of Sainte-Beuve. Many readers, we imagine, find him tame and dull, and his best friends must be those contemplative minds who care more for the journey than for the goal—more to look out of the window than to arrrive. His characteristic fault is a tendency to prolixity, but this prolixity is so sincere, so suggestive, so charged with information and reflection, that we rarely desire to abridge it. Each of M. Montégut's essays, indeed, reads like a series of excursions from the broad highway; his main idea has generally the lightness and *finesse* of those butterflies of thought which flit across the path of more dogmatic minds, but rarely tempt them so far afield in pursuit. Little by little our author's slow-moving, wide-glancing manner diffuses itself over his subject like a soft autumnal atmosphere—an atmosphere in which the muffled melancholy which resounds through all deep science plays the part of the grey autumnal haze. In this atmosphere we have spent many an agreeable hour, and we have had pleasure in finding it, in the volume before us, as salutary and soothing as ever.

A few years since, M. Montégut published a volume of notes of travel in Belgium and Holland, and showed that he was as ingenious a critic of painting and architecture as of literature and morals. He now follows with a substantial record of a really exhaustive tour of contemplation, we should call it, rather than of inspection, through one of the rich provinces of France—the thrice-historic Burgundy. In a preface animated not altogether rationally by the petulance of wounded patriotism, he offers his fellow-countrymen a plea for their now broad land as a field for the tourist. It now behoves Frenchmen, he says, to shut themselves up from a world which has measured out such scanty sympathy to their disasters and look for consolations at home. "Let us make of Normandy our England; of Provence our Italy; of Béarn and Roussillon our Spain; and let us look for Germany only in those provinces which force has taken from us." If M. Montégut's countrymen in general possessed the admirable tourist-temperament with which he has been gifted, they might certainly discover a limitless source of entertainment and consolation; and if they possessed his singular faculty of suggestive and vivifying description, they would add at the same time to the entertainment of their neighbors. A tourist so redolent of varied culture as M. Montégut is in this indirect fashion, a most agreeable companion; and there is something really affecting in witnessing the contact of a mind infinitely refined, and exquisitely prepared by years of discriminating bookishness, with the material treasures of civilization. In fact, M. Montégut's impressions of landscapes and monuments strike us often like the response of a deep-toned musical instrument to the touch of authoritative fingers. His cultivated imagination gives out in the historic Burgundian atmosphere a kind of constant murmur of appreciation—a tremor of perception and reflection. The book reads like the record of an intellectual holiday; but such only are the holidays of those with whom knowledge is a passion which consents at most to shift its opportunities. Happy the observer who passes on his way with a mind at once so fertilized and so unfatigued by the gathered lore of things, and happy the cities and sites that receive the tribute of so much patient ingenuity, of such a genial passion for reviving and interpreting, cross-questioning ghosts and shadows and echoes, healing and repairing the general injury of time! M. Montégut's volume has suggested to us more reflections than we have space for. Several of these have touched upon the charm of the sort of writing to which his book belongs. We have always been fond of the record of spontaneous personal impressions of the objects which share with ourselves the privilege of dotting the earth's surface, and which differ from us mainly in being but a trifle more passive than we; and these pages confirm our partiality by proving that such a record may be a perfectly graceful vehicle for the most general and most comprehensive reflections. It is true that to manage it well we should possess that combination of qualities which in their high development make the rare originality of M. Montégut—the sense of the artist, the joy in material forms, and the conscience of the moralist, the care for spiritual meanings. Both as connoisseur and as moralist, M. Montégut is equally ingenious and penetrating, equally conjectural, fanciful, adventurous, incapable of remaining inert and irresponsive before *any* manifestation of what was once a living force. Painters will not care for his criticisms on pictures—they will call them too fantastic and far-fetched and literary; and moralists of the sterner sort will not care for his meditations—they will call them too æsthetic, too disinterested, too much tainted with that spirit to which the nature of a creed differs only in degree from that of the ornamental stonework of the church which commemorates it; but we are safe in saying that the "general reader" will find in the 'Souvenirs de Bourgogne' a fund of serious and yet not oppressive diversion.

William Carstares. A Character and Career of the Revolutionary Epoch (1649–1715). By Robert Herbert Story, minister of Rosneath. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 385.)—William Carstares is called by Lord Macaulay "one of the most remarkable men of that age"; and Mr. Burton says of him that "except Bentinck, it would be difficult to point out any one whom William [the Third] so entirely esteemed and trusted." Expressions of opinion like these fully justify an attempt to make him better known to this generation; and Mr. Story's own judgment seems borne out by the facts. "That the 'Revolution Settlement' was firmly established in Scotland; that the Union was peaceably effected; that the church, instead of splitting into a number of hostile and fanatical sects, gradually accommodated itself to that relation with the state which at once guaranteed its constitutional freedom and equipped it most efficiently for its sacred work, was mainly owing to Carstares" (p. 368). He goes on in vindication of his task: "For one Scotsman who has heard the name of Carstares thousands are familiar with that of Dundee, though the actual life's work of the one is woven into the very framework of our national being and political constitution, and that of the other has been long since cast into the limbo of unremembered vanities." To remedy this injustice is a praiseworthy aim. Still, Mr. Story is ready to do justice to Dundee. "Among the many false, time-serving, and mediocre politicians of the Convention, his character stands out in a fine light of military genius, personal daring, quick insight, and single-hearted loyalty which almost persuade us to overlook for the time his cruelty as the persecutor of the Covenanters and the harsh instrument of the tyranny of the Privy Council" (p. 169).

Of course the life of a man like Carstares—a clergyman by profession, but a king's chosen counsellor in perplexing relations of state—gives little occasion for the romantic or picturesque features of history. The real subject of the book is the ecclesiastical settlement of Scotland, which had been wavering between Episcopacy and Presbytery for more than a century, and received its permanent organization at this time. Perhaps the most interesting special point brought out here is in the nature of the Episcopacy which was at issue. It was not the liturgy but the prelacy which was resisted by the Scotch. Even the Presbyterians had clung to forms of worship until long after the time of John Knox; while the Episcopal Church of Scotland "was episcopal in government, but no more. It had no liturgy." Further, the resistance to it was quite as much political as religious. Thus Carstares was, like his king, at heart tolerant, and labored earnestly for that policy *in the Church* of Scotland which should "include in the church all who could be comprehended in an orthodox and loyal communion"; but

when it came to Toleration, as a political issue, under Queen Anne's Tory ministry, he could not hesitate as to his position. Toleration was "advocated for the sole purpose of regaining their lost ascendancy to the Episcopalians and Jacobites of Scotland [and the Scotch Episcopalians were almost to a man Jacobite]. A strong and united Presbyterian Church was the foe which they most dreaded; and their efforts were therefore bent to such measures as they hoped would weaken it and split it into factions. . . . The Toleration . . . was in itself an equitable redress of an undoubted grievance; but as the true Liberals of 1687 had resisted King James's toleration then, because they knew that it was advanced for the behoof of the enemies of rational liberty and religion, so now the true Liberals in the Scottish Church withstood a kindred measure proposed with a kindred aim" (p. 328).

A characteristic incident is related of Carstares (p. 108). When passing through London on his way to exile in Holland, in 1635, after having been put to torture in Edinburgh, Lord Melfort advised him to call upon the King as a matter of courtesy. "He told Melfort that, if he were to wait upon King James, he should feel constrained to say several things to him which would reflect but little credit on His Majesty's servants and administration in Scotland, and that the interview could be agreeable to neither. Melfort, on reflection, 'thought it more advisable to dispense with that ceremony.' The less the King heard or saw of Carstares, he said, the better." Mr. Freeman, who somewhere regrets the old English name Aken (Aachen) for Aix-la-Chapelle, would be pleased to see that Mr. Carstares, who spent some time there, always calls it *Aiken*.

History of French Literature. Adapted from the French of M. Demogeot by Christiana Bridge. (London: Rivingtons; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.)—The manual of Demogeot upon the history of French literature was published twenty-three years ago. It still retains its value as a work not too elementary, for it presupposes a certain knowledge of the subject and abounds in allusions, not always happily introduced, which render it difficult to be well understood by young minds and lessen its utility as a schoolbook. We have it now adapted and somewhat shortened, but not improved. It is questionable whether such a handbook in English is really of use. Those interested in French literature know, or ought to know, French enough to read the original. Allowing that they do not, the work they need is one that will explain to them the unknown literature by some comparison with what they do know. The pleasant little volumes of 'Ancient Classics for English Readers' do this, and are almost all of them good books. But why, as in this "adaptation," quote scraps of untranslated old French (as in pp. 26, 27, 30, 48), why speak of *trouvères, jongleurs, chansons de geste*, without explaining clearly what these words mean as words?

But this "adaptation" has other sins besides those of omission. The first few pages abound in errors. Some are due to the original work, which, published long ago, is not up to recent researches; as when it accepts th spurious Celtic and Iberian fragments of poems which ought long ago to have disappeared from works of instruction; or the now exploded theory about the courts of love; or the fancies of Génin in regard to the authorship and constitution of the Song of Roland. Other statements, too numerous to mention, are the additions of the "adapter." Thus on p. 31 we are told that Gregory of Tours (who lived in the sixth century) described the principal events of the First Crusade in a long Provençal poem. On p. 5 we find the unaccountable statement that "Provençal had been the general language of France until the ninth century, when it made way for the dialect of the North, which we call French." As a specimen of the style, we may quote the following paragraph on the "Influence of Germany" (p. 4):

"From the far North, from the frozen shores of the Arctic seas, from firclad mountains and boundless steppes, came the vast hordes which were destined to put an end to the Empire of Rome. We trace their onward sweep from utmost Asia. Each halting-place became the cradle of a new people. From the scorching plains of India to the snow-covered hills of Norway, a cordon was stretched round imperial Rome; and as she grew weaker and more shrunken, the hardy and vigorous warriors pressed on."

The Physiology of the Circulation in Plants, in the Lower Animals, and in Man. By J. Bell Pettigrew, M.D., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.)—Dr. Pettigrew is an anatomist of considerable experience, and the student will find in his book a good many facts of original observation rather chaotically strung together. He will also find a good many original views lamely presented and poorly supported. Thus the author thinks that muscular relaxation is as active as its contraction, and thus explains the suction of the heart. But he omits the crucial experimental proof that a muscle will perform work when stretching. He has also original and vague morphological ideas, and his book cannot be recommended to the beginner, although those who are already expert in biology may find it suggestive.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of J. Q. Adams, Vol. II.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Arnould (Sir J.), Life of Lord Chief-Justice Denman, Vol. I.	(Estes & Lauriat) $3 50
Art-Journal, No. CLI., swd.	(Virtue & Yorston)
Barnard (C.), Money and Music.	(Henry L. Shepard & Co.) 1 00
Bagby (Dr. G. W.), What I Did with my Fifty Millions, swd.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Clark (F. E.), Our Vacations.	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 00
Campbell (Lord), Lives of the Chief-Justices of England, Vol. IV.	(Estes & Lauriat) 3 50
Dwight (B. W.), History of the Descendants of John Dwight, of Dedham, Mass.	(New York)
Foss (E.), Memories of Westminster Hall, Vol. I.	(Estes & Lauriat) 3 50
Goodwin (Rev. T. A.), Mode of Man's Immortality	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 1 25
Hugo (V.), The Rhine: a Tour.	(Estes & Lauriat) 1 75
Marvin (Dr. F. R.), Treatment of Mediomania.	(A. K. Butts & Co.) 1 00
Verne (J.), From the Clouds to the Mountains.	(W. F. Gill & Co.) 1 50
Medina Pomar (Count de), The Honeymoon: a Romance, 2 vols.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Raymond (R. W.), Mining Industry of the Rocky Mountains.	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 4 50
Ritter's Geographisch-statistisches Lexicon, Ceil-Ferentino, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Schmidt (Dr. A.), Shakspere Lexicon, Vol. I. A–L, swd.	(F. W. Christern) 5 00
Scammon (Capt. C. M.), Marine Mammals of N. W. Coast of North America	(J. H. Carmany & Co.)
Tribune Popular Science	(Henry L. Shepard & Co.) 1 50
The Workshop, No. 7, swd.	(E. Steiger) 0 50
Wallace (A. R.), A Defence of Modern Spiritualism, swd.	(Colby & Rich)
Walker (F. A.), Statistical Atlas of the U. S., Part III., Vital Statistics, swd.	(Washington)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, July 20.

THE week has been an unusually quiet one in Wall Street. The report of a second large fire in Chicago caused only a temporary decline and excitement in the stock market, and seemed to establish the fact that stocks were well held. The attractions at Saratoga drew away a large number of operators, and at times during the last four days of the week business was almost entirely suspended at the Stock Exchange, and the Long Room was turned into a "pool room."

Money on call has been easy at the rates last quoted—2 to 3 per cent., with the larger number of loans making at 2½ per cent. Commercial paper is in good demand at 6 and 7 per cent. for good names having three to four months to run, and extra choice names, running into November, have been placed as low as 5 per cent.

Cable advices report a continuance of easy money in London; the Bank of England rate of discount remaining at 2½ per cent. throughout the week ending Thursday. The Bank lost £209,000 in bullion.

The weekly statement of the New York banks on Saturday was favorable—showing a still further gain of $1,034,000 in the net surplus reserve as compared to that of the previous week. The following shows the changes in the different items going to make up the statement:

	July 11.	July 18.		Differences.
Loans	$287,088,400	$285,315,000	Dec..	$1,773,400
Specie	27,375,400	27,755,300	Inc...	379,900
Legal tenders	61,335,100	61,853,700	Inc...	518,600
Deposits	243,525,600	242,983,600	Dec..	542,000
Circulation	25,923,700	25,727,500	Dec..	196,000

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 11.	July 18.		Differences.
Specie	$27,375,400	$27,755,300	Inc..	$379,900
Legal tenders	61,335,100	61,853,700	Inc..	518,600
Total reserve	$88,710,500	$89,609,000	Inc..	$898,500
Reserve required against deposits	60,881,400	60,745,900		
Excess of reserve above legal requirements	27,829,100	28,863,100	Inc...	1,034,000

The stock market has undergone frequent fluctuations though quite unimportant, the market closing on Saturday at about the quotations current at the beginning of the week. The Northwestern and St. Paul stocks are rather feverish owing to the unsettled question of the right of the State of Wisconsin to interfere with railroad tariffs, which question, it is now said, will come up for argument before the U. S. Supreme Court in October; meanwhile an injunction has been applied for in the State Courts to prevent the railroad companies from violating the law. On Wednesday a very sudden decline was made in the market owing to the large fire in Chicago. The news, as first received, was well calculated to throw the market into a panic, but holders wisely concluded to hear more about the fire before selling, and subsequently, when it was known just what the extent of the damage was, a very sharp recovery was made. The leading subject of conversation has been the payment of an August dividend upon Lake Shore. The recent statement published by the Company was certainly not encouraging to those who hope for a dividend, as the net profits, after deducting interest, were not sufficient to pay 4 per cent. to the stockholders. The statement, however showed an increase in net earnings as compared with those of last year for a corresponding period.

There has been a better demand for some of the investment stocks today; Lackawanna sold at 107½, New Jersey Central at 106, and Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy at 105½.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, July 18, 1874:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R...	99¼	99½	99	99¾	98¼	99¼	....	99¼	99¼	99½	99⅝	100¼	17,600
Lake Shore.....	72½	73¼	72	73⅝	71	72⅝	72⅜	72⅝	72	73⅜	73⅛	73⅝	211,400
Erie.....	31⅝	3 ⅜	32	33¼	31	3 ¼	32⅜	33⅛	32¼	33	32½	33	93,500
Union Pacific	26⅛	26⅜	25⅝	26⅜	25	26	25⅝	25⅞	25⅞	26⅝	26½	26⅝	26,700
Chi. & N. W.....	37⅜	38	37	37½	34⅝	37¼	36⅜	37	3·⅜	38	38	39	32,500
Do. pfd....	54½	54⅝	....	54¼	....	55⅜	....	55	55	55⅜	55	55½	2,100
N. J. Central.....	105⅜	105½	....	106	....	106	....	10·¼	....	105⅜	....	106	400
Rock Island.....	97	97⅜	97	97½	95⅜	97	97	97⅜	97⅜	98	98¼	99	25,800
Mil. & St. Paul....	34⅛	34⅝	34	34⅜	33	34⅜	34	34⅜	34	34⅜	34½	35⅛	39,700
Do. pfd...	....	52½	....	53	....	52	....	52½	53	53¼	53⅜	54½	1,500
Wabash.....	34½	35½	34⅜	35	33¼	34⅜	34¼	34⅜	34¼	35⅜	35¼	35⅞	27,100
D., L. & W.....	....	106½	....	106½	....	106⅜	....	106⅜	....	106⅜	....	107	800
O. & M.....	....	24½	24⅜	24⅜	23½	24¼	25⅜	25¼	25¼	25⅜	25½	25⅜	5,800
C. C. & I. C.....	....	17⅜	17	17¼	16½	17¼	....	17	1 ⅛	17⅜	....	17⅜	2,800
W. U. Tel.....	72	72⅜	71½	72¼	70	71⅜	71⅜	71⅜	71⅜	72⅜	72⅜	72⅜	106,400
Pacific Mail	43	43½	43⅜	43⅝	42¼	44⅜	43⅝	44⅜	43⅝	44⅜	44½	45	70,800

Government bonds have been strong, and prices have improved. The *Financial Chronicle* says, in relation to the bids for the new 5's to be opened on the 23d inst.:

"It appears at present as if there would be quite a number of small bids from home purchasers, but what the heavy men will do—the foreign bankers—is not yet known. It is rumored that a combination has offered to take $25,000,000, or according to another report $50,000,000, on certain conditions as to an option for the balance, or with an agreement that no more of the bonds should be offered by the Secretary within a specified time. The details for bidding and completing the exchange of five-twenties for the new bonds seem to be imperfectly understood. Bidders will have 90 days from July 23 to pay for bonds, but if they take them up any time before the 90 days expire, 90 days' interest must be paid in addition to the interest accrued to July 23. The subscriber for an exchange of bonds will be charged the interest on the bonds for 90 days from July 23, whenever he takes them; but he will also be credited the interest on his five-twenties for the same time."

It is reported that the State of New York, having been unable to buy up a sufficient amount of its Bounty Loan bonds, will make a bid for a large amount of the new 5's for the purpose of investing the money which the Treasurer has on hand for the purchase and cancellation of its own debt.

The following are the closing quotations this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881. c.....	118	118⅛	Registered 5-20, 1867, c.....	117⅜	117⅝
Registered 5-20, 1862, c.....	112⅞	113⅛	Registered 5-20, 1868, c.....	117⅜	117¾
Registered 5-20, 1864, c.....	115¾	116¼	Registered 10-40's, c.....	112¾	113⅛
Registered 5-20, 1865, c.....	117	117⅜	Registered 5's, 1881.....	112⅞	113⅛
Registered 5-20, new, 1865, c....	116⅜	116½	U. S. Currency 6's.....	117	117¾

The gold market was quiet during the week with the following as the range of the quotations:

Monday, July 13...	109⅞	109⅞	109¾	109⅞
Tuesday, July 14...	109⅞	109⅞	109¾	109¾
Wednesday, July 15	109⅞	109⅞	109¾	109¾
Thursday, July 16.	109¾	109⅞	109¾	109⅞
Friday, July 17...	109⅞	110	109⅞	110
Saturday, July 18..	110	110¼	110	110⅛

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1874.

The Week.

MR. BRISTOW has kept the financial world during the past week in a state of irritating suspense about his loan. On the 2d of July he issued a circular calling for bids for the whole or any part of the loan up to the 23d in sealed proposals. As the object of the loan is to convert the six per cent. bonds into fives, it was of course not open to him to accept less than par, and the competition was therefore to determine what better than par could be attained. The plan is semi-popular in its character—that is, it put aside the Boutwell machinery of private contracts with syndicates and went into the general market. But the difficulty at once presented itself that the number of bids from investors who wished to hold the bonds could not be expected to be very large between the 2d and 23d of July. People who buy bonds for investment take some time to make up their minds, and need to have the process of getting them and the advantage of getting them explained to them by somebody in whom they have confidence. Moreover, they are not likely to take the trouble of sending in "sealed proposals" to the Treasury and security for execution of their engagements. This whole process looks formidable and complicated to the average investor. From this source, therefore, the Secretary was not likely to receive many bids under the proposed conditions. The only other source open to him was the bankers, home and foreign, who buy bonds wholesale for the purpose of retailing them at a profit. But these gentlemen do not like to take part of a $179,000,000 loan without having some guarantee as to the price and time at which the remainder will be sold; so that their bids, unless a syndicate took the whole, were almost certain to have tacked to them, as a condition, a right of "call" on the remainder of the loan. The result has been, in fact, that home bids for only about $10,000,000 have been positively accepted, and the Messrs. Rothschild of London and J. & W. Seligman & Co. of this city have taken $45,000,000 at par, minus ¼ per cent. commission, with a "call" on the remainder any time during six months, and they assume all expenses. There is little doubt that this will eventually dispose of the whole loan.

The National Board of Underwriters has caused a report to be made on the condition of the Fire Department of Chicago, by a special committee appointed for the purpose, and as usual it brings us at once to the canker-worm of all American institutions. The Department, it says, is under the control of a board of four persons called the "Commissioners of Police and Fire," three of whom are elected by "the people," and one appointed by the local authorities on the nomination of the local board of underwriters. But as police matters are deemed more important than fire matters, five-sixths of the time of the board is given to the former and only one to the latter. The direct management of the Fire Department is left to the Chief Marshal, who nominates for all vacancies, *subject to the confirmation of the Board*, and, as might be expected, "the appointments are mainly made for political services, the Chief is besieged by politicians in behalf of themselves and their friends, and prevented from giving the necessary attention to the details of the department which discipline requires." The fire wardens, too, have to report to him, and if they lodge a complaint against anybody, the politicians swarm up to prevent any action being taken. The discipline of the department is bad. The men lounge about the doors of the engine-houses, smoking and sleeping, without uniform. Officers are not distinguishable from privates by any outward sign, and no respect is paid them by their subordinates. They are not saluted, or obeyed with any alacrity. The street patrols are not obliged to give any account of their time. The fire wardens are mainly occupied with "politics." The telegraph wires are carried over the roofs of houses instead of on poles. But the supply of water is very good.

Upon receipt of this report, the Board of Underwriters acted promptly, by passing resolutions recommending the fire insurance companies to take no more risks in Chicago after the 1st of October next, (1) unless permanent fire limits are established conterminous with the corporate limits of the city, and suitable persons are appointed to enforce within these limits the laws relating to the erection of wooden buildings and the exclusion of dangerous manufacturing establishments; (2) unless a stringent building law is passed and enforced by a suitable bureau; and (3) unless there was at once a complete reorganization of the fire department under a board of commissioners or a competent head, specially charged with its care; the eradication of the political element from it, and the subjection of the men to military discipline; and the organization of a corps of sappers and miners. We thus see from the example of Chicago and Boston that it costs an American city from $100,000,000 to $200,000,000 to get the politicians out of one department of the municipal government, and this may serve to give us an idea of what it will probably cost to get them out of the Custom-house, the Post-office, and the Treasury, to say nothing of the State administration. These sums would erect a good building in a healthy situation in either city in which ten thousand politicians could be lodged in winter, or would take them to the seaside in summer, and the interest on the remainder would supply them, their friends and relatives, with wholesome food and tobacco and pure whiskey in reasonable quantities, besides two suits of black clothes apiece during the year, which is all they ask; and the decent people of the country would be thus left free to conduct the Government with efficiency and respectability.

The kidnapping of a child in Philadelphia, nearly a month ago, though it was at first received with more coolness by the public and police of that city than by the rest of the country, has at last led to the offer of $20,000 reward by the Mayor for the recovery and the detection of the kidnappers. A New York gentleman of "ample means," who says the story is making his invalid wife insane, also offers $20,000 for the recovery of the child and no questions asked, through the *Herald* of this city. Up to the present moment, however, nothing has been heard of the child in spite of the exertions of the police and the vigilance of the people. The fact that the father is a man of moderate means, in embarrassed circumstances, and that his wife since the child's disappearance has been passing some of her time at a watering-place, has supplied a correspondent of the *Herald* with the materials for a theory that the affair was probably what the police call "a put-up job"—that is, that the parents were privy to the theft, and even devised it as a means of extracting money from friends and the public to be used in extricating the father from his difficulties. It is certainly extraordinary that clever kidnappers, having their pick of children, should have selected the son of a poor and insolvent man for their first attempt. But there is not much comfort for the public on either horn of the dilemma, because it would be nearly as bad to have popular credulity practised on in this way as to have children successfully held to ransom, inasmuch as the success of an attempt at fraud would prevent vigilance or indignation when a *bona-fide* case occurred.

The success of kidnapping in some countries of Europe makes one wonder that, considering the growth of the Granger movement in America, it has not been practised more extensively here. There has been a revival of it of late in Italy and in Sicily, where it is turned to excellent account by the Grangers of those countries who farm on the *métayer* system, or as we say on shares. As the landlord has to go out to his

farm every fall in order to take account of the crop and collect his dues, the happy thought has occurred to the tenants of scaring him to such a degree that he won't come. This is done by capturing him, carrying him into the hills, and holding him for a ransom. In Sicily, according to the last accounts, land-owners now only visit their farms under a strong escort of cavalry, and some prefer surrendering their rents to running the risk. In the West, the same thing is accomplished by more decent means, as the Grangers have the law-making power. Instead, therefore, of putting a stockholder or bondholder in bodily terror, so that he shall not visit his road and collect fares or charges, they fix the charge to suit themselves, and denounce him as a law-breaker, and threaten him with fine and imprisonment if he murmurs or resists. The Governor of Wisconsin fired a salute of one hundred guns the other day on receiving the news that the victims of that State could get no redress in the courts, much as Sicilian brigands would let off their carbines with joy on hearing that the prisoners' friends had given up all hope from the police and that the ransom was on its way.

The Tilton-Beecher case has had added to it since our last issue a statement from Mr. Beecher, contradicting certain assertions of Tilton's and promising to explain his own letters in detail to the committee; also a statement from Mrs. Tilton, contradicting and severely denouncing her husband. The committee has likewise published an official report of the cross-examination of Mr. Tilton, filling three pages of the newspapers. None of these documents, let us say, throw any light on the question. Mr. Beecher's statement contributed nothing to a solution beyond his admission that the letters cited by Mr. Tilton were genuine. Mrs. Tilton's letter was a simple denial, rather incoherently expressed, accompanied by some sad revelations of domestic misery. The publication of Mr. Tilton's cross-examination by the committee was, we will not say inexcusable, but wholly unnecessary, for reasons we have given elsewhere, and it is too bad that it should be thrust on the public attention. We must remind the committee that Mr. Tilton is not on his trial. If the time devoted to cross-examining him had been spent in examining Mr. Beecher, we might ere now have reached the end of this unsavory affair. The libel suit brought against Mr. Tilton on Tuesday by a reporter employed on his semi-official organ, the Brooklyn *Argus*, only adds to the persistent mystification of which the public is beginning to be excessively weary.

Missouri political affairs are not now very attractive to outsiders, the Democrats seeming to have things much their own way, though the general public would be interested enough should it appear that the chops and changes of politics might bring round to Senator Schurz a chance to keep his place in the Senate. The State Democratic Committee have just issued an address, in which, among many things neither very instructive nor very entertaining, they make a curious calculation that Missouri is henceforth to be even overwhelmingly Democratic. They point out that in 1872 Missouri polled, in round numbers, no more than 277,000 votes, while Indiana, with a smaller population, polled a hundred thousand more—377,917. The committee therefore estimate the reserve vote of Missouri at 100,000, which in '72 was not put into the ballot-box because of the disgust inspired by recollections of the old registry law, but which they think will be sure to be brought out now. They think, therefore, that they may fairly count this autumn on about 135,000 majority for the Democratic State ticket. We should advise them, however, not only to bring out the disaffected on election-day, but previously to make a study of the operations of their brethren in Indiana along the southern tier of counties; and also of those of their Republican friends along the interior lines of railroad; and they will find that there are many ways of getting full returns out of a population no larger than that of Indiana in 1872, when for about every four and a half men, women, and children in the whole State, there was one voter either for Mr. Morton or for Mr. Hendricks. The committee have little to say besides these and similar words of encouragement to the faithful. To the "hard-money, home-rule, free-trade" Democracy they give as little comfort on the first point as most of the Western committees and conventions. They speak most plainly about the Grangers and the taxation of the bonds, declaring the party "opposed to the system by which a large portion of the wealth of the county is exempted from taxation." As for the Grangers, the party, they are told, approves of them, recognizes their principles as Democratic, and invites them to come under the friendly banner. The home-rule and free-trade planks of the Eastern Democracy the Missourians are gratifyingly clear for; but the other plank they draw back from. Two Democratic county conventions, by the way, in Ohio have just pronounced for inflation and easy business, and it looks as if there might be need of the best-instructed of the Eastern members to teach financial rudiments for one more winter.

It appears, in spite of the entire failure of the Republican Congressional Committee to "let on," as they say, that there ever was any such place as South Carolina, that the purification of the politics of that State is nevertheless to be done "within the party"—*i. e.*, the Republican party, which, as the St. Paul *Press* says, has become what we see it to-day by a process of historical evolution along a path of development marked at every step with the immortal witnesses of the high and noble purposes which have controlled it. Congressman R. B. Elliott, chairman of the State Central Committee, does not feel himself strong enough to call names, and probably there is no one member of the committee whose house is not mostly composed of glass, so that the address which they have just put forth is not so exciting as it might be. But to the officials who at present have the State in their hands it may mean a great deal more than its mealy-mouthed phrases convey to a Northerner; for, in brief, it conveys to these officials a threat or a warning that the Northern wing of the party is sick of them, and that the weight of Federal influence, and perhaps patronage, will henceforth be thrown against them. If so, something will be done, perhaps done too late, which two or three years ago might have been very effectual against the robbers. Now, it may suit Moses and his friends to be less tractable. Among the new reformers we observe one or perhaps two of the well-known name of Mackey, and we see that one of them recently took home the tidings from Washington that he had been significantly asked at the White House why Moses was not impeached and removed. This goes for corroborative evidence as to the disposal of the Federal power during the forthcoming contest, and it sharpens and brightens all eyes and ears in the reform camp. One of the Mackeys is a judge, and he is reported as thus addressing from the bench a negro convicted of petty larceny:

"I could send you to the penitentiary for several months; but were I to do so you would be in bad company, and besides, the Governor might possibly pardon you in a few weeks, and that would disgrace you. I will put you in better company than you would find in the penitentiary by sending you to the county jail for one day; and let this be a warning to you, for should you again be convicted of a similar offence you will go to the penitentiary and have to remain, as we will then have a governor who may not so freely exercise the pardoning power."

On the whole, it does not seem at this distance that there is much to choose between the eloquent Elliott and the less eloquent Cain, or that any but sanguine people need hope that a substitution of Mackey for Moses will effect any good for South Carolina. The evil lies too deep to be cured in a minute, and the State has probably a desperately hard political road before her.

Brady, the sailor, and sometime third mate of the lost steamer *Atlantic*, who was on board the *Pennsylvania* steamship when all her officers were swept overboard but one, and who then took the command and brought her into port, has been suing the Company for salvage, having declined a present of $1,000 which they offered him. The District Court, Judge Cadwallader, has awarded him $4,000; and in doing so decides a very nice point—whether a passenger who exerts himself both to save the ship and his own life can be safely and fairly admitted to the rights of a salvor. The objection to it on

grounds of expediency are obvious. If the rule were well established, it might convert passengers in times of great difficulty and danger into intriguers against the credit and authority of the officers who would make their exertions for the common safety a matter of bargain at the critical moment. Brady's case differed from that of the engineer who saved the *Great Eastern*, in that the latter was employed or requested to act by the captain, while Brady simply obeyed the necessity of the case in the absence of the captain. The decisions, however, all run against the passengers' right to salvage, and Brady's exploit was too peculiar to make his success of much consequence as a precedent.

The season has been noticeable for calamities by water, some due to human carelessness or ignorance, and some, if we may say so, to the visitation of Providence. The two disasters in Massachusetts, the lesser one in Connecticut, and the so-called waterspout at Eureka, Nevada, which destroyed several lives and much property, were followed on Sunday last at Allegheny City, a suburb of Pittsburg, Pa., by a flood second only to the flood at Mill River. It had one circumstance which heightened the fear and horror to a point above that of the Massachusetts calamity, for it occurred in the night without even a gaslight to assist the victims to escape, the gas-works being ruined, and it came without warning. Briefly described, what happened appears to have been this: Allegheny City has behind it high, amphitheatrical hills, down from which go toward the river some "runs," the waters of which have gradually eaten out the earth of the hills, till now the runs are precipitously banked. Into these from the sides flow similar streams, usually of petty size. As one of these runs, called Butcher's Run, approached the city, houses of the tenement order occupied its banks, and still further on its usually scanty stream was bricked over and confined to a sewer. For many years it has made no trouble except when it became fetid. But on Sunday night the storm, which visited the city in the day-time, became much heavier, though not so much so as to alarm people, and the inhabitants went to bed in security, the rain, indeed, preventing the sense of danger, for its noise blended with that of the waters. When these came down, which they soon did tremendously, they seem to have proceeded as far as they could freely, then built a dam of *débris*, then overcome this with a crash, then built another, and so gone on to the end. Many houses are swept away, and the loss of life is reported at nearly two hundred. Pittsburg is supplying the needs of the sufferers.

The International Congress of which we spoke last week has met at Brussels, and Baron Jomini has been elected president. Nothing new has been reached with regard to the programme, and nothing has occurred as yet to indicate the probable result. Any agreement that can be reached providing for the more humane treatment of prisoners and wounded will, doubtless, meet with general approval; or, in other words, the philanthropic part of the programme will probably be a success; as much cannot be said about the proposed modifications of international usage. Of these it may be said, in general terms, that they are favorable to non-maritime powers with large standing armies. It is for their interest, for instance, that persons not embodied in the regular military force should be forbidden to rise on an invader, and that private property should be respected at sea. The probabilities are, therefore, that while receiving strong support from Russia and Germany and Austria, and the smaller powers who have little interest either way, they will receive none from France or England.

Public opinion in England seems to cling to the right of capturing enemies' vessels at sea as necessary to secure the full advantage of English naval superiority, but now there is another side to this question, as is well shown by an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of July 1, by a captain in the French navy, M. Aube, in which he maintains that the true policy for France to pursue is to abandon the task of creating a great iron-clad navy, in which she cannot compete with England, and which in time of war would be of little use to her, and confine herself to equipping fast frigates for the destruction of the enemy's commerce. He says that England's enormous heavy navy secures her against invasion, but her life depends on her commerce. More damage can be done to her through her commerce than in any other way, and how much might be done by light cruisers the career of the *Alabama* shows. He cites in support of this view the fact that the United States with no navy did not hesitate to urge the *Alabama* claims in the strongest way, and Great Britain evidently felt all through the controversy that the United States had the advantage of her in case the dispute was not settled peaceably—a direct result of the *Alabama* depredations. He points out too that the French iron-clad fleet was of little or no use during the Franco-Prussian war, having been employed solely in blockade duty, which lighter ships would have performed just as well. From this point of view, it is clearly the interest of powers whose foreign commerce is large to have private property at sea declared inviolable, whatever the strength of their fleets may be.

The bill for the Regulation of Public Worship introduced in the House of Lords by the Archbishop of York has made its way down to the House of Commons, where it meets with vigorous opposition, led by Mr. Gladstone. His objections to it are that while it proposes to enforce uniformity of practice, it leaves discretionary power in the hands of the bishops, which would either be used to compel uniformity or it would not. If it were so used, it would in a few weeks plunge all England in excitement, because it would compel the Low Church clergy to revive practices which would be just as offensive as many of those which the Ritualists have revived, and it would disturb parishes in which worship has been peaceably and profitably conducted for generations, with harmless peculiarities of ceremonial not in use elsewhere. In short, the Liberals, both in church and state, seem unwilling to entrust the bishops with the proposed power, and demand that if there is to be any legislation on the subject, it shall define rigidly what the ritual of the Church of England is to be, and leave little or nothing to anybody's notions of propriety. One of the defects pointed out in the measure was that it left bishops free to conduct service in any manner they pleased if they were not incumbents of parishes. To the world outside the church the debate has been mainly interesting as indicating the increasing difficulty experienced by the state in regulating the church, and thus the consequently increasing strength of the tendency to separate them.

Mr. Forsyth, who is the father of the bill now before the English House of Commons giving the suffrage to unmarried female taxpayers, presided recently at the annual meeting of the National Society for Women's Suffrage in London, and reported progress. It appeared that 161 members of the last Parliament, who were previously favorable to the bill, have been returned in this one, and 72 recent converts. Of the opponents of the movement in the last Parliament, 117 have lost their seats, and so have 77 supporters. Mr. Stansfeld also spoke, and Miss Cobbe, who "castigated" Goldwin Smith, and Lord Talbot de Malahide, Mr. Arthur Arnold, and Mr. Jacob Bright. The meeting was mainly composed of ladies, but the gentlemen did most of the speaking, and, we need hardly say, spoke highly of women. Mr. Forsyth said "the argument of intellectual inferiority" had been abandoned, and Lord Talbot de Malahide, who is an Irishman, went further and said that women were the most intelligent portion of the community. Mr. Forsyth apologized for abandoning the effort to secure the suffrage for married women, and explained that he only did so because he saw it would imperil the bill, for which, however, there is no chance this session. There is nothing new about the movement in this country. The preponderance of opinion is against the probability of its success at the approaching election in Michigan, where it will doubtless be seriously injured by "The Brooklyn Scandal," in which so many of its ardent supporters are prominent actors, and are now all unbosoming themselves to the reporters.

DOES THE CURRENCY BILL CONTRACT OR INFLATE?

A WELL-KNOWN story tells us how an old man ascertained by various experiments the impossibility of pleasing anybody, even about so simple a matter as the driving of a donkey. But then he lived before the days of conference committees. Congress, in its last piece of legislation, appears to have found much better fortune. It passed a bill which suits, and which ought to satisfy, both the inflationists and their opponents. For the former discover in the measure an expansion of more than fifty million dollars; while the latter, according to an estimate printed in a leading newspaper of this city, are to be comforted by an indirect contraction at least twice as great.

Study of the act by which our law-makers have afforded us an exact gauge of their capacity and desires in monetary legislation, only strengthens our first impression that the final efforts of the inflationists were planned with ingenuity and rewarded by success. Whenever a section of the bill showed a tendency to produce contraction, it was balanced in another section by some provision of an opposite drift. Thus Section 4, which facilitates the withdrawal of national-bank notes, is offset by Section 2, which increases the profit upon circulation to the extent of nearly one-half per cent. per annum in the case of country banks, of seven-eighths per cent. in the cities of redemption, and of as much as one and three-quarters per cent. in New York. The gain is greatest where it was most needed—with the banks which placed the least value upon their circulation as it stood.

The direct inflation caused by the act is of course $26,000,000. This sum has been made a permanent addition to our legal-tender money. Nor does it affect the force of the expansion that the notes were already outstanding. But for the 6th Section of this act the condition of the Treasury would have warranted, and even compelled, the gradual withdrawal of every dollar of overissued greenbacks during the current fiscal year. The process would have caused little disturbance and less suffering. For the issue, until Congress endorsed it, was barely more than nominal. The notes emitted by authority of Mr. Richardson remained even to the end distrusted and unused. Some of them have been regained by the Government, and added to its currency reserve. The rest have gone back to the Treasury, where they are locked up in trust for the banks. The return made to the Comptroller of the Currency on May 1 exhibited an increase of $21,525,000 in the legal-tender notes represented by U. S. certificates compared with the amount deposited at the corresponding date in 1873.

The change which the act produced in the status of the "illegal tenders" will be realized by a moment's consideration of a single point. The motion to reduce the outstanding greenbacks to the lawful 356 millions found very little support either in the Senate or in the House. What would have been the fate of a proposition to contract the issue below that normal amount? Could it have expected the compliment of a vote? Hardly. The boldest advocate of honest money in Congress would have received the suggestion with a shudder. Yet now 382 millions stand where 356 millions stood then. The field of our next battle lies beyond them.

The indirect inflation caused by the abolition in Section 2 of every vestige of reserve upon circulation, is greater than the direct increase of currency established by Section 6, and is just as positive an expansion as the issue of so many additional notes. Its extent, calculated according to the latest report, and on the supposition of the withdrawal by the banks from their redeeming agents of an amount equal to the entire released reserve, will be as much as $36,170,242, distributed among the different classes as follows:

Gain of country banks	$35,457,350
Net gain in cities of redemption	3,020,831
	$38,478,181
Less net withdrawal from New York banks	2,307,939
Total expansion	$36,170,242

This, remember, is the minimum enlargement—the smallest increase contemplated by the authors of Section 2. But we can safely predict that the redeeming agents will not be called upon for the whole of the released reserve, or anything like it. So unprofitable a demand is scarcely imaginable, even as a possibility. If the distribution continues according to the present proportion, the indirect inflation will rise to $55,051,565, apportioned thus:

Gain of country banks	$35,457,350
Net gain in cities of redemption	14,232,479
Net gain of New York banks	5,361,736
Total expansion	$55,051,565

It has been said that the banks, remembering their experience last September, will decline to avail themselves of the permission so unwisely given to weaken their reserve. Whether they refuse the privilege or accept it, their decision cannot alter the character of the act. On what ground do men venture who expect self-denial from the banks? What was the lesson which the panic taught? Was it not that the strong banks will support the weaker ones at the expense of their depositors and the risk of their credit; that, when the pinch comes, the rash and the prudent occupy the same footing with "pooled" resources and a common fate?

While the expansion induced by the section we have considered is thus large and indisputable, the contraction of the currency which has been claimed as the indirect outcome of other provisions of the act cannot be considerable, and may prove imaginary. The estimate already mentioned, which was published in one of our city papers as having come to it from Washington, rates the amount of this contraction at $117,000,000. If the computation had not been widely copied, it would be unworthy of serious criticism. No financial statement more absurd than the figures which it gives emanated from the Capitol through all the recent Congressional discussion, and this it will be admitted is saying a great deal. The very first item of the estimate credits the 5 per cent. deposited against circulation with producing a contraction of $17,000,000, because, to use its own words, "that amount of legal-tenders will be irrevocably withdrawn, so long as the national banks keep their notes out." Now, whether these greenbacks are held by the Treasury or locked up in the vaults of the banks, cannot possibly make the slightest difference to anybody. In either position, they form the bottom of the reserve. We may note here, but rather as a curiosity than as a matter of importance, that the provisions for redeeming the circulation do really involve a slight expansion, instead of the contraction erroneously claimed for them. The Treasurer of the United States is required to redeem bank-notes on presentation. But he is not obliged to notify the issuing institutions before the first day of each month. Thus, to some extent, greenbacks will be released for a season, and national bills will take their place in the reserve to secure deposits.

The estimate assigns a further contraction of $20,000,000 to represent "additional balances which will be retired by the country banks." Yet should these institutions draw upon the cities of redemption for the 5 per cent. which must be kept in Washington, and should the cities of redemption in their turn take their entire provision for circulation out of New York, the act will still leave all the classes far better off than it found them—that is, with much more money to employ. The country banks will gain a little more than thirty-five millions, the cities of redemption a little less than ten millions, and the New York banks very nearly four millions. Among them all, the total increase of usable money will amount to quite forty-nine million dollars. Let us carry our illustration a step beyond this. Even in the extreme supposition that New York will be called upon to supply the cities of redemption with greenbacks, not only for their deposits in the Treasury, but to replace the legal-tenders required from them by country banks, its available funds will not be noticeably diminished, although the expansion in the cities of redemption will be materially increased. A calculation made upon this basis shows that the country banks will gain, as before, something over thirty-five millions; and the cities of re-

demption almost exactly nineteen millions. The decrease in New York, on the other hand, will be barely three millions; and the net increase of usable money, among all the classes, will rise to fifty-one million dollars.

The estimate proceeds by putting down $10,000,000 for "currency in transit to and from redemption centres." It might have guessed a hundred millions with as much reason, because the total amount of bills of other national banks held by all the banks in the United States, at the date of the last published return, was only $20,636,358. A further contraction of $20,000,000 is credited to the Treasury as an increase of its working balance, "necessarily made heavier because the reserve to be drawn upon in emergencies is abolished." We might reply that the reserve never existed outside the fancy of a foolish Secretary; for the last clause of the 6th Section of this act exposes the absurdity of the pretence that "retired and cancelled" greenbacks were intended to be a permanent resource. Congress, although it lacked bravery to blame a Cabinet officer, put its foot down very heavily upon Mr. Richardson's pet idea. We object, however, for a better reason. The "reserve" was never needed by legitimate fiscal demands. It was employed on one occasion to a small extent for political effect, and at another time more freely to relieve the money market, or rather to replace funds which had been used with that intention. But, as a provision exacted by the necessities of the Government, not a dollar of it did service—ever.

The currency now in the Treasury exceeds the sum held at the corresponding dates in 1871, 1872, and 1873, as well as the average amount on hand for either one, two, or three years back. Beyond dispute, the Secretary has the power to increase his balance materially. Such a course is unnecessary; it would be very unpopular with men whose clamor is quite certain to get a hearing, it would defy alike the spirit of the law and the policy of Congress, and that he will adopt it any one who chooses may contend.

To the items of contraction we have noticed the estimate adds $50,000,000 for "national-bank circulation likely to be retired in excess of the legalized new issue." This is explained by the statement that the profit has been so reduced through charges of redemption as to create "a strong tendency among the banks to abandon their circulation, while they can avail themselves of the present high prices for Government bonds." We have already shown how the abolition of the reserve offsets the cost of redemption, and leaves circulation at least as profitable as before; as to the second point, the current quotations for United States securities are not higher than usual. They rule indeed rather under than above the average. Besides, Government bonds move with the premium on gold. Their holders are justified in parting with them only when gold is a good short sale. We submit, therefore, in view of recent events, that the premium upon the precious metals will not be destroyed suddenly or even soon. The banks which retire circulation will only increase the income of institutions which retain it. The net withdrawal in excess of the additional notes taken up by new banks ought not to be large, even on the unnatural money market now existing. There is, however, fair ground about this point for an honest difference of opinion. We think that the contraction caused by this withdrawal will be inconsiderable and of brief duration. The reasons which we have given for holding this view appear strong enough to justify us in expecting that the future will confirm it.

MacMAHON AND THE ASSEMBLY.

THE situation in France has passed into a new stage, by the announcement of Marshal MacMahon that he will under no circumstances surrender his power until the end of his term of seven years. He has made this announcement distinctly in a message to the Assembly. He has made it no less distinctly, and in fact somewhat menacingly, in his general order to the army at the close of the late review. This shows a monarchical restoration to be impossible at present, and very unlikely in the future, so far as the Comte de Chambord is concerned. All delay tells against him, or would tell against him if his own utterances had not made his case hopeless. It is by no means so troublesome to the Bonapartists, who really are not yet ready for action, owing to the youth of their candidate and the nearness of their disasters. It would be perfectly satisfactory to the Republicans if they could get the Republic formally proclaimed or a republican constitution adopted, and if they could get rid of their vague fears that the Marshal may yet be guilty of some stroke in the monarchical interest. They are accordingly fighting either for a dissolution of the Assembly or the adoption of a republican constitution. The obstacles to the dissolution of the Assembly seem trifling, but they are in reality strong. A parliamentary body armed with sovereign power, and which nobody has any authority to dissolve, is of course something anomalous. Any such body is very unwilling to put an end to its own existence. The only body like the French Assembly of which we have any knowledge was the Long Parliament, and it sat until it became an object of contempt, and would have sat longer if the army had not turned it out of doors. Members of such an assembly naturally love power, and their numbers make them insensible to public opinion, particularly when they know that their chances of re-election are small. Moreover, when they are paid, as they are in France, and a large number of them are needy men, self-interest in its lowest and coarsest form comes to the support of the ordinary fondness for office. A great many of the most public-spirited and enlightened men in the French Assembly, too, while fully sensible of the political impropriety of this prolonged hold on power, are afraid to dissolve without having created any regular machinery of government. To dissolve, not knowing what is to follow, would seem imprudence in any country. In a country like France, in which, as has been said, the unforeseen is always the most likely to happen, it seems to many of the soundest heads sheer madness. The prophets of the Left are of course ready to guarantee the return of a patriotic and enlightened Republican majority; but then if these gentlemen proved mistaken, it would not be for the first time, and a mistake might prove irretrievable. Those who talk most glibly about the hold of the Republic just now on the public mind in France know well enough that the public mind is fickle, self-distrustful, and given to panics. If the Assembly were to dissolve to-morrow, and disorders of a serious character occurred anywhere during the interregnum, there would be no telling what kind of a majority would be sent up. It might be Republican, but it might and probably would be something else—say Bonapartist. As long as no form of government has been established, experiments constantly suggest themselves to terrified voters. A more striking illustration of the folly of looking for devotion on the part of the French public to any particular system of government under trying circumstances than was afforded by the resurrection of the Legitimists in 1871, could hardly be desired. Therefore, the Moderates in the Assembly shrink from dissolving when dissolution will leave nothing standing but MacMahon and the army.

Besides, from the radical difference of opinion in the Assembly as to what form of government ought to be set up, the Conservative Republicans, no less than the Monarchists, dread a republic with one Chamber only. The objections to it to be found in French history and French character are too numerous to mention. Everybody acknowledges their existence and their force. But there is no general agreement as to the mode of creating a Second Chamber. The country has been swept clean of all sources of political strength except popular election and the control of the army. There is no aristocracy with roots in the soil or in popular affection or respect. There are no organizations like the States in this country, with sufficient vitality and independence to enable them to create a strong senate. A senate elected by the popular vote would not differ materially in character and tone from the lower chamber, and would therefore have little or no value as a break on popular impetuosity or as a reviser of hasty popular decisions. An upper house, nominated by the executive, like the old Chamber of Peers or the Bonapartist Senate, has been proved to be weak and con-

temptible. There are countries in which such a body might have a chance of success. In France, in which a lampooner like Rochefort may rise in six months through successful buffoonery into the rank of a statesman, no care in the selection could give it permanence or strength.

It will thus be seen that the situation is one full of difficulties, before which the most enlightened and patriotic men may well hesitate, and which the selfish and dishonest are only too glad to parade as an excuse for doing nothing. We said some weeks ago that the result of the embroglio would probably depend in a great degree on Marshal MacMahon. He may in his present position, and with the view he takes of his position, do France the greatest service which has been rendered her since Henri Quatre—a service which many great Frenchmen have dreamed of rendering her, but the opportunity for which a wayward fate has always denied. Of course, we assume that he is honest, and think we may do so with confidence. That service consists in the preservation of perfect order with a strong military hand, which all sects and parties know to be irresistible and not to be trifled with, while leaving discussion in the press moderately free, and protecting an Assembly, legal in its origin, in the full exercise of the right of legislation and debate. In other words, we believe the state of things which we are now witnessing in France, with all its absurdities and disappointments, may prove, if it can only be made to last a little longer, the most healthy and promising which the country has passed through since the States-General of 1562 at Orléans. It must be borne in mind, when we are disposed to grow impatient over the hesitation of the Assembly, that every one of the ten governments which have been set up in France since the first overthrow of the monarchy, has been the result of revolutionary violence, and has been contrived and proclaimed at two or three hours' notice, either by a military usurper or by a mob in the streets, and without the consent or approval of the nation at large. The consequence is that the very notion of a government as the product of deliberation, or of a balancing of reasons, or of any peaceful trial of strength between parties, in the forum of debate or at the polls, has faded from the popular mind. The people have come to expect that, as a matter of course, the sovereignty will pass from hand to hand by armed assaults or ambuscades; and therefore they look on all agitation, in one sense of the word, and on all speeches on political questions, as simply a prelude to civil war. When Gambetta goes down into the provinces at this hour, and delivers a harangue, the whole country listens with dread, and the Government gets its forces ready for the fray, and the Assembly prepares for coercive legislation. This state of feeling it is which accounts for the rise of a charlatan like Rochefort into the rank of a political personage. In a country in which great political changes were affected by persuasion, he would have remained all his life an obscure and rattlebrained Bohemian, with the reputation of a good café joker. But his literary powers made him capable, in Paris, of raising large mobs in the streets, and thus gave him a political future and opened to him a political career.

Now, MacMahon is at this moment giving France for the first time since the Revolution an opportunity of debating quietly the principles of government without fear as to the result. He is giving all the pent-up venom of parties the means of venting itself in the Assembly and the newspapers, in words which everybody knows will not lead to anything serious. The Legitimists have had their full say for the first time since 1830, and have tried all their arts and all their arguments, and have ended by being ridiculous. The Bonapartists, too, have the fullest opportunity of explaining their past misfortunes, and making promises for the future, and threatening their enemies. Lastly, the Republicans have the fairest field they have ever had for winning France over to their views. They have an able body of spokesmen in the Assembly, and a powerful representation in the press, and all the prestige which comes from the absence of a monarch. The country in the meantime is able to listen, to mark, and to learn, without trepidation or anxiety. It grows accustomed to the serious and peaceful strife of parties, and perceives that a regular government may be, and probably will be, now set up, after full deliberation and by a legal and orderly process. In the meantime, what the Marshal says to the Assembly is substantially this: "Gentlemen, the kind of government you give France is no affair of mine. Work it out for yourselves. You can dissolve to-morrow and order a new election, or sit on for seven years, or you can draw up a constitution and submit it to the popular vote, or adopt it yourselves without submitting it to the popular vote, and you may pass any laws or pursue any policy of peace or war you may see fit. None of this is my affair. My business is to see that for seven years to come there is no rioting, or revolting, or 'manifesting' in France; that the laws, such as they are, are faithfully executed; and that any decision which may be reached touching the constitution of the country, is reached by peaceful means. When you fixed seven years as the period during which I was to discharge these functions, you were doubtless of opinion that it would take that length of time for society to settle down, after the recent frightful calamities and changes, into peaceful channels. I entirely agree with you. I am your servant in the meantime, but your servant for a fixed term, and I mean to discharge the duties of the place honestly, and to give France, if possible, her first experience of the foundation of a government without crime or bloodshed."

THE TRIAL BY NEWSPAPER.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Evening Post* complained bitterly the other day, in the interest of domestic decency, of the publication of the "statements" and counter-statements of the parties to the enquiry now pending in Brooklyn by the morning papers. But it is hard to see what the papers could do except what they have done. It appeared tolerably plain, from the moment Mr. Tilton published his first letter, that the whole affair would very soon be made the subject of an appeal to the public. The result was made certain by the mode in which Mr. Beecher applied for an investigation. A committee nominated by him, and composed of his own personal friends and members of his congregation, although it might satisfy the church over which he presides, was sure not to satisfy either his opponents or the public. It was inevitable that at some stage in the enquiry Tilton or his friends would, by hook or by crook, carry their case before the world outside, and this once done, the committee lost all judicial character, and became a mere instrument, and a very defective one, for taking evidence. No one will now care what its finding is, or whether it comes to any conclusion or not. The trial is transferred to a different forum. This forum consists of the newspapers and their readers, and a more unsatisfactory one, in some respects, there could hardly be, but it is the one before which a man in Mr. Beecher's position must plead, sooner or later, to any charge brought against him. From this neither civil nor ecclesiastical courts can save him. When the community exalts a man as it has exalted Mr. Beecher, it insists on deciding in the last resort whether its confidence has been misplaced. It may be said that this is one of the penalties of influence and celebrity, but it is also one of their conditions, and one that is familiar to everybody who wields the power given him by enormous popularity. It is in some respects an awful mode of trial, one by which the strongest nerves might well be shaken. The court has no rules of evidence. Before it nothing is frivolous or irrelevant or untrustworthy. It puts rumors, suggestions, theories, suspicions, reminiscences, hints, the idle gossip of the sidewalk, and the solemn asseverations of the eye-witness on about the same level. Everything goes to the jury in one dreadful jumble, and goes piecemeal, day by day, as it comes in, without arrangement or summing up. There is not a house in the country in which the defendant is not, week after week, put on his trial, and in every one of them on a different indictment and with different testimony; and the result he never wholly knows, as the verdict is never formulated and uttered. Moreover, it would be a great mistake to suppose that even the larger part of this tribunal is animated by anything that can be called a judicial spirit. It is impossible not to be struck by the tenderness with which Mr. Beecher's case has been approached, by the reluctance displayed on almost all sides to believe ill of him, by the eager hopefulness with which his defence has been listened to, and by the height and breadth of the favorable presumptions by which he has been surrounded. It is true that much of these presumptions rests on forty years of unblemished character, but much, too, is supplied by popular indulgence for a man whom the country has greatly trusted and greatly loved. On the other hand, however, a vast amount of the interest taken in

the case springs from motives with which neither love of him nor love of justice has anything to do. Thousands on thousands gloat over the story simply because it is scandalous; thousands more because the standard set up by such a man as Beecher seems a constant condemnation of their own ways and aims. The overthrow of a great moralist is always a triumph for those who deny that there is any morality but what each man manufactures for himself. It acts both as a justification and encouragement to them. "A bad year for the righteous," as Butler said, is a good year for those who make no pretence to righteousness. It raises them in their own estimation, puts an end to some prickings of conscience, and opens up new fields of activity. There is no rascal in the country to-day who is not openly or secretly hoping that Beecher may not succeed in extricating himself from the net in which he is now entangled. And then there are thousands of men who are really not rascals, and pass as very respectable, to whom the downfall of anything great or respectable in human society is somehow a satisfaction, though they do not well know why, and are often ashamed even to confess it to themselves. The source of this feeling is one of those mysteries of human nature on which neither the naturalists nor the theologians have thrown much light, and it is one which nobody who wishes to think well of his kind likes to explore. To say that it is a form of envy is simply to name without explaining it. Of its wide diffusion, of its powerful influence in our social life, one knows comparatively little until one witnesses the progress of a scandal such as that which is to-day the talk of the country. It is intensified towards religious people by the necessary ostentation of their professions, and by their tendency to treat as mere temporary lapses from virtue, which can be atoned for and reformed by the technical process of repentance, things which men of the world, sometimes rightly and sometimes wrongly, set down as irremediable defects of character.

There is, however, a far worse source of interest in the "Tilton-Beecher Scandal" than any we have enumerated, and one which much more clearly reveals the barbarian strain in our blood. Trial by newspaper has certain spectacular attractions to which no other process can lay claim. In proceedings, however tragic, before courts of law, the parties are represented by professional advocates, who, even if they lay aside the conventional decorum of their callings and attempt a display of pathos, can hardly rouse the feelings of the audience. The retainer takes the point from their weapons, and gives a greenroom air to their tears and supplications. The real play of passion nowhere appears. The plaintiff and defendant are silent spectators of the game of skill and ingenuity on which their fame or fortune is staked. When they appeal to the public, however, especially in what may be called capital cases, the controversy has all the horrible interest of a conflict in the arena. Surely, no scene in the amphitheatre was ever more shocking than the assault on each other in which Tilton and his wife have been engaged in the newspapers during the past week. His production of her letters, written in moments of happy and confiding if somewhat effusive tenderness, to justify his desperate attack on her reputation, and her bitter and incoherent imputation to him of all base and malignant passions, of meanness, falsehood, treachery, of envy, hatred, and malice—and all this under the eyes of millions of spectators, to whom the mutual rage and destruction of this unhappy couple gave but a keener relish for their breakfasts—what is there so horrible as this in the *spectacula* or the bull-fights? Is it not somewhat disgraceful to our civilization that such quarrels should have to be fought out in this way, that we should have to protect domestic happiness and purity by inviting the whole world to see the Furies tearing a household to pieces?

The trial of certain classes of cases by the newspapers, if inevitable, however, furnishes no excuse for spreading a "scandal" over a wider area and forcing it more persistently on the public attention than the circumstances absolutely require, and we think there are numerous signs that we are to be treated to more of this Brooklyn affair than is good for either our morals or our manners. We are sure that the bulk of intelligent and decent people greatly deplore the necessity of surrendering to it as much space and attention in the newspapers as it has already received. It is a most unsavory subject, and the more it is discussed and turned over, the less profitable all discussion of it seems to be. We now beg to remind the editors of the daily papers that their sole justification for serving us up every day such a quantity of unwholesome gossip and speculation lies in the fact that the person whose reputation is assailed in it is a man of great prominence and respectability. It is only in so far as it concerns Mr. Beecher that this wretched business has any legitimate claim on the public attention. We protest, therefore, most earnestly against the execution of the plan which seems to be entertained in some quarters of favoring us with what they call "further exposures," in the shape of additional information about Mr. Tilton's family life and his relations with his wife and with other women. With these things the public has nothing to do, and we trust the press will not connive at any further investigation o them. It can serve no purpose beyond deepening the flood of indecency which is already flowing over the country. The public is not sufficiently interested in Mr. Tilton, and he does not occupy, and never has occupied, a sufficiently prominent place in the community, to entitle him to this species of notoriety. His domestic history is not a public concern. It is plain that it has been unhappy to the last degree, and that is all we wish or need to know about it. We must remind Mr. Beecher's friends, too, in all kindness, of the fact which they seem disposed to forget, that attacks on Mr. Tilton's reputation cannot possibly help Mr. Beecher's case as it now stands. It might be useful to prove him a bad husband and father if the proceedings now pending were an action for damages or a suit for a divorce in a court of law. But they are neither the one nor the other. The only result of proving Mr. Tilton's baseness, under present circumstances, would be either to deprive him of public sympathy or to invalidate his testimony. But the question before the public is not whether Mr. Tilton is entitled to sympathy; it is whether Mr. Beecher has been guilty of certain offences; and the case against him does not rest on Mr. Tilton's testimony simply. If it did, it would have been closed long ago. It rests on certain letters purporting to be written by Mr. Beecher himself, of which he does not deny the genuineness. All that the community now wishes to ascertain is how he explains these letters. It cares nothing and wants to know nothing about Tilton's morals or religious opinions, or about his relations with "advanced thinkers" of the female sex.

The case was brought on the very first day within a very narrow compass—much narrower than Mr. Beecher himself seemed to perceive when he wrote his statement. Had he thoroughly comprehended the situation, he would have saved himself the trouble of traversing Tilton's naked assertions, and have addressed himself at once to the task of explaining the circumstances under which he wrote the letters embodied in Tilton's complaint. We trust he will now do this, and that in the meantime his friends and champions will keep silent with regard to everything which does not touch this point, and we think their duty in this respect includes a decent reserve in the matter of denouncing Tilton. If Mr. Beecher's explanation is found sufficient, as we must all hope it will be, the whole matter can properly be dropped as an evil dream.

Correspondence.

SOME EFFECTS OF OUR CURRENCY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your remarks upon American travel in Europe, you have not touched upon one consideration which, as it will help to explain several other phenomena, ought not to be overlooked.

Ever since the war closed, the great effort of the Treasury and the people has been to depress the price of gold. Not only has the former sold all its receipts from customs, but it has actually diminished its resources, holding a surplus above liabilities of only ten millions (against thirty-five millions in 1869), with a total of seventy-four millions (against one hundred and ten millions at the earlier date). Add to this the enormous force of the Gold Clearing-House, through which transactions of a hundred millions in a single day are often settled with three or four millions of actual gold, thus multiplying the apparent supply to the full extent of the larger amount. This artificial depression would long since have been corrected by foreign export, had it not met a counter-current in the apparently inexhaustible demand for our securities—good, bad, or indifferent—abroad.

Now let us suppose that while these combined forces have kept gold at 110 to 120, the real depreciation of our currency, as measured by general prices, is 150; in other words, that the price of gold, as frequently happens with coffee, wool, sugar, or any other article, is below the average level. Is it not evident that much more may be had for the same money by turning it into gold and spending it in Europe, than by spending it in currency here? And with a difference like this, amounting to one-fifth, extended over several years, is it not inevitable that the movement should assume vast proportions? It is, of course, a matter of guesswork, but, after talking with many persons, I am inclined to place the average of Americans in Europe at not less than 50,000, and allowing them an amount of $2,000 apiece, which is certainly not excessive, we should have one hundred millions as the yearly drain upon us from this cause.

That this idea may not appear wholly fanciful, let us take another item. The complaints of the Western farmers have arisen within a few years. Doubtless over-production has much to do with them, but it is not the only cause. It has been too often remarked to need explanation, that the price

of the whole grain crop is determined by the exported portion. Of course the gold price is regulated by the foreign markets, but the farmer has nothing to do with gold. He gets his pay in currency, and his expenses of labor, supplies, and transportation are also in currency. Now if the gold price of his crop brings but 120 or less, while his expenses are on a scale of 150, it is manifest that the farmer will earn nothing, even though the railroads are doing business at a loss.

Once more, Hon. David A. Wells, in one of his revenue reports, declares with a sort of despairing wonder: "It thus appears that notwithstanding an average tariff of 40 per cent., there is hardly an article which the United States cannot import cheaper than they can produce." This apparent paradox becomes the simplest of all propositions if we suppose that the importer gets 150 for his goods, and buys his gold for remittance at 110 to 120.

Looking at the subject from another point of view, we find it admitted that, since the war closed, the United States have run up a debt in Europe to an amount of 1,500 millions. But except during the panic last fall we have not only imported no gold, but we have shipped from thirty to sixty millions a year. And that this is not wholly the surplus produce of our mines is shown by the steady diminution of the only visible and it is to be feared the only real stock of gold in the country, that in the Treasury.

While the President was imbibing the views of Senator Jones of Nevada, it is a pity he did not include that portion which involves an accumulation of gold and a stoppage of sales by the Treasury. The Bank of France, with five hundred millions of notes, holds two hundred and fifty millions of gold, and yet they hesitate to resume, and keep their rate of interest higher than any other large market in Europe. We have seven hundred and thirty millions of notes afloat, besides six hundred millions of bank-deposit currency, while the Treasury holds but seventy-five millions of gold.

Of course the price of gold would advance, but, as Senator Jones says, that would not be an unmixed evil. In the first place, Americans, instead of making the name a by-word in Europe, would come home and spend their incomes here. Next, the agricultural interest would at once revive, and put an end to the dangerous conflict between the farmers and the railroads. Thirdly, our manufactures, which, while they have to bear the odium of an excessive tariff, get no benefit from it, and are languishing under foreign competition, would also revive. Last, but by no means least, it would furnish the only effective answer to the inflationists. The strongest argument of Senator Morton and his coadjutors in favor of more currency rests on the decline of gold last fall to 106½. With gold at 140, the country would wake up to the true state of the case, and Congress would be compelled to deal with the real difficulty, the condition of the currency, the evil effects of which are now artificially concealed. G. B.

Boston, July 20, 1874.

THE COLLEGE RACES.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The following paragraph appeared in the *Tribune's* account of the assemblage at the depot on Monday to welcome the Columbia crew:

"Noticeable among those gathered was the venerable form of President Barnard, who wore a huge blue and white rosette with ribbons attached, and the pride which glistened in his eyes and expressed itself even through his spectacles bedewed with moisture, told how deeply he felt the victory which had been won by the Columbia crew. Among others present were Prof. George Naire and lady, Dr. Anderson, the Rev. Drs. Buell and Cornwall. Among them was Prof. Van Amringe, commodore of the boat-club, who stepped on the rear platform of one of the cars and made a speech to the assembled throng, telling them that the crew found themselves unable to come down from Saratoga, but that they would be in the city with their boats to-day. During the delivery of his remarks he was repeatedly cheered, and at their conclusion he was lifted upon the shoulders of friends and carried out of the depot."

Tuesday afternoon, President Barnard, in addressing the crew from the portico of the college, said that he had favored boating from the start, that the crew had done more to spread the reputation of the college than anybody else had done since its foundation, and that if anything was wanted from the board of trustees to further boating interests the students need only ask for it.

These passages have been quoted as illustrative of the relations between the authorities and the students.

Now for some more facts.

The relations between faculty and students are less intimate at Harvard than at Columbia, and still less at Yale than at either.

Neither Harvard nor Yale won the race.

Harvard's behavior at the race is reported to have been discreditable. Yale's is reported to have been more so.

All these facts taken together suggest the following conundrums:

I. Would the chances of the two large universities have been better if their boating interests had been encouraged by their trustees, and if they had had the sympathy and practical co-operation of members of their faculties?

II. Is not the advertising which victory in a boat-race gives a college worth the attention of its authorities?

III. If there were at Yale and elsewhere that intimacy between the faculty and students whose absence has lately been so bitterly complained of by "Young Yale," is it likely that the influence of the older men would infuse into the students a spirit of justice and dignity that would make impossible such disgraceful occurrences as those which have just accompanied the defeat of Yale and Harvard?—Your obedient servant,

A Graduate of Yale and Columbia.

New York, July 21, 1874.

[Some of our correspondent's "conundrums" open questions so wide that we do not know how to answer them. Upon one point, however, we wish to say something, because a great deal of confusion has been thrown around it; some injustice has thereby been done not only to the crews of eight colleges present at the finish raft on the day of the race, but also to the public; and a certain well-earned award of praise has been with less than fairness withheld from one particular crew. This crew to which we refer as having in one respect earned more praise than it has yet received is the Harvard, of whose conduct equally with that of Yale our correspondent speaks as "disgraceful." What may have been the conduct of the two on the water when the foul took place, we cannot at all say. Few but those immediately concerned saw it, and of those perhaps not one saw it well. The referee himself has not been able to give an opinion which he can make boating men accept as wholly right, or even to the extent of making them regard Yale as more blameworthy than Harvard, which he asserts in so many words. The *Spirit of the Times* of July 25 may be referred to for an examination of his rulings, more learned than we can pretend to offer and bearing marks of care and impartiality. But as we say, with this we have nothing to do. If the referee's judgment is set down as faulty by those best placed to see and best fitted to pass upon it, we may readily decide how to deal with the heaps of evidence furnished by men like a *Herald* correspondent, who reported in his journal on the 20th that "it was thought in Saratoga that Yale would never row Harvard again, as it was believed there that Harvard had sold out to New York city." It is enough to say that little can now be known about the trouble on the water, as it is excessively unlikely that the crews themselves will ever be submitted to the cross-examination of experts.

But at the raft at Moon's there was no doubt about the disgracefulness of the behavior of one of the crews, or at least of one of its members. Speaking roughly, one crew, or part of it, applied to the other an epithet of the grossest and most offensive kind, and challenged them to go ashore and fight, and these sat by in silence and self-control, and let the others talk. All this is matter of general admission; and what it says for the two crews is, in plain language, that the members of the one behaved in a disgraceful manner, and the others behaved as they should, and, considering their provocation, deserved commendation and should have it. "Equally to blame" is not in this case a verdict that ought to satisfy anybody. Not to dwell too much on this hot and blackguard language, we may say that we think it ought to be construed against the Yale captain that, as he himself reports, he turned to the rival boat when he drew up even with it and went beyond it, and said to the stroke, "Dana, you can't win this race; you haven't got the stuff." This is the language of a ruffianly waterman, not of a gentleman amateur, and is prophetic of what happened afterwards at Moon's.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE late Rev. Francis Mason, D.D., who died at Rangoon in March of the present year, was for forty-four years one of the foreign missionaries of the American Baptist Union. In 1869, he prepared a sketch of his career, which had been remarkable in many ways, but saw fit in publishing it to

give it the ambiguous title, 'Story of a Workingman's Life.' Of this interesting and instructive work a new edition is now announced by Mr. Albert Mason, who states that it will be brought down to the date of his father's death by Prof. W. C. Wilkinson, and, in addition to the woodcuts of the original edition, will be embellished by a steel portrait of the learned and lamented author. The title will properly be changed to 'Autobiography, etc.'——Part 20 of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains a general map of the United States and of Mexico, and two maps of Upper and Lower Italy, with several supplementary maps of particular localities on an enlarged scale.——Our recent reference to an error in the English translation of Mommsen's 'History of Rome,' by which the sense of a passage in Cæsar was perverted, leads a correspondent to point out one in Merivale's 'History of the Romans' (Vol. I., p. 256). This author states one of the requirements which Cæsar (B. G. i. 35) urged upon Ariovistus to have been "to restore their hostages to the Aedui and Sequani," whereas the demand was that the German chieftain should return to the Aedui such of their hostages as were in his keeping, and permit the Sequani (nominally his allies but really his subjects) to do the same. The error is a very obvious as well as a very important one, and may have been pointed out before.——A bird's-eye view of the Mill River Valley, and a map of the stream from Williamsburg to its junction with the Connecticut, are to be found in the last edition of Burt's 'Guide to the White Mountains and the River Saguenay' (Springfield, Mass.)——The *Historical and Genealogical Register* (Boston) for July publishes a list of some of the officers in the American army near Boston in June, 1775. It was first printed about fifty years ago in a New York paper, and purported to be part of a letter from Judge William Browne (afterwards Governor of the Bermudas) to a fellow-loyalist who had preceded him to England. The same number contains, with a great variety of interesting matter, a biographical sketch and an excellent steel portrait of the late William Whiting.——Mr. John Russell Bartlett contributes to the Providence *Journal* of July 22 a readable account of the contents of the valuable library of the late John Carter Brown, which is superlatively rich, as all scholars know, in works relating to the early history of America published before the year 1800, as well as in many other lines. Mr. Bartlett made a catalogue of this library, which was printed in 1865–71, but the edition consisted of only fifty copies. He states that the collection of *Americana* remains in the possession of Mr. Brown's family, and is to be carried forward in accordance with the liberal policy of its late owner.——The rules governing the Centennial Exhibition may now be obtained by those interested of the Director-General, Mr. A. T. Goshorn, at Philadelphia.

—We have, in common with several other journals, received a printed communication from Miss Harriet Hosmer, dated at Rome, June 29. It is much too long for the space at our command. Miss Hosmer, who was, with several other American artists, made the object of Mr. S. W. Healy's imputations of professional dishonesty and want of originality, replies by opposing to him the testimony of the only witness cited in her case. The rest of her letter is devoted to informing the public of the mode by which statues are evolved from the clay and the marble, and of the universal practice of employing assistants for the purely mechanical part; to an exposition of the division of American artists in Rome into two cliques, who hold no intercourse with each other, and to one of which Mr. Healy is alleged to belong, so that it was foreordained whom he should select for his attacks; and to expressing regret that an American could be engaged in smirching the reputation of his own countrymen abroad.

—The advance sheets with which we have been favored have already given us occasion to describe the general character of the 'Statistical Atlas of the United States' which, by special authorization of Congress, has been prepared by Gen. Francis A. Walker, late Superintendent of the Ninth Census. We are now glad to chronicle the appearance of Part III.—Vital Statistics, and the promise of the speedy appearance of Parts II. and I. The letterpress, not included in the original appropriation, and only provided for in June, will be somewhat delayed, but may be looked for in September at furthest. "Part I.," says the compiler's announcement, "will consist of maps illustrative of the physical features of the United States, embracing its river systems and forest growths, its geology, hypsometry, and meteorology. This part is almost wholly made up of contributions from eminent men of science, and from some of the scientific services of the U. S. Government. Part II. will consist of maps and charts illustrative of the growth of population from 1790 to 1870, of the constituent elements of the present population, and of the social and miscellaneous statistics of the census, embracing the subjects of wealth, debt and taxation, illiteracy, church accommodation, the occupations of the people, principal crops, etc." Part III. embraces the maps and charts numbered 37–54. Of the former there are six, all colored on the same base-map—the United States east of the 100th meridian. They show the predominating sex; the birth-rate; and four classes of deaths, viz., from consumption, malarial diseases, intestinal disorders, and enteric, cerebro-spinal, and typhus fevers. In each case, five tints of intensity are used, and the whole story is revealed at a glance—we mean the main story; the maps afford ample room for study. The artistic execution of them merits hearty praise in passing; it fully maintains the high standard of work to which the establishment of Mr. Julius Bien has accustomed us. Less perspicuous at first, and less attractive, are the twelve charts of statigraphic delineation, of which Mr. Wines, the inventor, has given some account in our columns. These, too, however, have an almost unlimited capacity for being profitably studied. Two plates are devoted to each of the topics—blindness, deaf-mutism, insanity, and idiocy; and in all the eight there is a comparison of the census returns of 1870 and 1860. There remain charts of the population of the United States—aggregate and by States—showing the proportion of the sexes at various ages (by decades) and the preponderance; the native and foreign population—both sexes—by States and Territories; deaths (by decades) for the whole country and again by States, and according to certain groups of diseases and special diseases—both sexes; and finally, the same statistics for each month in the year. The last two are of extreme interest. For instance, it is plain from these representations that June, if not the healthiest month in the year for all the States, still almost without exception forms a mean term between the mortality of the first and the last half of the year; the mortality may be less in some one of the succeeding months, but it is also sure to be greater. It also appears that, notably for pneumonia and consumption, diseases of the respiratory system prove more fatal in the first than in the last half of the year. But we have no space for further examples. We congratulate the country on the success of General Walker's work, the value of which will grow with time, and we hope that the Secretary of the Interior, on whom the distribution of the work devolves by act of Congress, will see that the Atlas is judiciously placed, subject to the limitations of the edition, in all the principal libraries and the chief institutions of learning in the land.

—The *American Naturalist* for July proposes the organization of a new department of Government, the Science Department, with appropriate bureaus. These, so far as they already exist, would mostly be taken from the heterogeneous Interior Department, but the Navy would part with its Observatory, the Treasury with the Coast Survey, the War Department with the Signal Service; and under this head would be grouped the bureaus of Agriculture and of Education, the Smithsonian Institution, etc., etc. It is clear that a very respectable portfolio could be created out of these elements alone, and, well administered, might be conducive to greater economy and efficiency in the several branches, besides leading to more frequent co-operation between the National Government and the States, as (to cite the latest instance) in the standing offer of assistance from the Coast Survey to any State desirous of undertaking its own survey. Nor do we suppose it would be impossible to find a chief executive officer with the requisite capacity for directing in the best manner the scientific energies of the Department. It is questionable, however, whether, in the low state of our civil service, the military and naval scientific bureaus would not feel themselves degraded by the transfer, and whether after all they would make up in other ways for the loss of the discipline to which they are now more or less subject. Perhaps, too, it is doubtful if Congress would be as liberal to the Department as it now is to the scattered bureaus, the items of scientific expenditure being concealed in the appropriations for the general expenses of each department. While it must be conceded that our Government need fear comparison with no other in its outlays in behalf of science, it is equally true, if not equally notorious, that the coveted appropriations for special work, like the national surveys, are usually obtained by quiet and almost secret legislation; and that science cannot come before Congress as frankly with its petitions as commerce and manufactures do. Nevertheless, we think Congress would not greatly object to the new Department, provided the scheme did not contemplate the creation of many new offices, and provided there was no opposition to it from the bureaus and departments to be affected by the change.

—A miscellaneous list of topics, each worth a word of comment, doubtless suggested itself to many observers of the regatta at Saratoga. One of the lesser matters was that of colors. Few of the colleges can be said to have made a very good choice if we think of the object for which after all the choice was for the most part made—the object, namely, of distinguishing a given crew by its head-handkerchiefs. Harvard's magenta is distinguishable both by daylight and in such a semi-twilight as that in which the race was finished at Springfield last year. But a good light is required to distin-

guish at a little distance the deep blue of Yale from the royal purple of Williams, or either of them from the black heads of bareheaded oarsmen. Princeton selected for her first appearance an admirable color, the orange, to which the birth and title of Nassau Hall give it a show of right. But although this very suitable and eye-taking color made itself most conspicuous in the little bannerol which showed what part of the collegians' grand stand was devoted to the use of the Princeton undergraduates, the men in the boat rejected it for white and their friends ashore for some variety of yellow, which was of a London-fog color or next to invisible. Wesleyan can hardly be said to have a color, and in a race where any crew or part of a crew wears white caps, the Wesleyan lavender may well be confounded with the white. Dartmouth's grass-green is excellent in the sun; but in the fading of the light becomes black like Williams's purple and Yale's blue.—A marked feature of the race last year was the fulness of information given by the Springfield papers. The press of that city is one of so great enterprise and skill that to ask the press of a country town like Saratoga to compete with it in most respects would be foolish; but certainly the Saratoga press might have done more than it did in the way of collecting and collating full information about the crews and their prospects and doings, and would thus have put many people under obligations. We do not think that it contained so much as a directory from which one could learn the whereabouts of personages so important as Mr. Commodore Brady and Mr. John P. Conkling.—There was pressing need of a central office of information of all kinds pertaining to the regatta, and the establishment of such an office would probably lead to the establishment of a centre of authority, consisting if possible of one man whose word should be final on as many subjects as his administrative talent will permit him to take charge of. Such an authority could be held responsible for the signal-men, for instance, and might not place at the finish an incompetent who lost his head as the boats went over the line, and dropped his flag in token that one had crossed when four had already been home many seconds. So, too, he could be held responsible for the time-keepers and starters, and probably would not select men who for some reason or another would see fit to resign at the very last moment. Probably he might be depended on to do what forty men together never could be depended on for, and would contrive some way of signalling to a crowd of twenty thousand persons that they need not wait two hours longer for the race, as it would not come off that afternoon. Such an authority, advised by agents of the colleges, but unhampered by committees of collegians armed with powers which they cannot very discreetly use, might make a regatta a far pleasanter affair than it usually is. He would have to be a man of sense, and of some knowledge of boating, and he would have to be paid for his services; but he would do the work which citizen committees and collegian committees have never done well, nor so much as half-done since regattas became affairs of so large a size.—Impropriety of conduct on the part of undergraduates at Saratoga there was almost none so far as we have seen or heard, nor was there any on the part of other visitors. Everything was quiet and orderly, except the natural jubilations of the victors and their friends and some small trifle of hustling, hardly worth mention, which took place on one occasion when friends of two of the rival crews met in a hotel corridor or office-hall. In old times, when but two crews contended, the victorious one, or rather its friends, made it a point to turn things upside down, partly out of joy, partly to show that the means of riot had not been cut off by the prohibitory ordinances of the town magistracy. But now too many colleges are represented, and too many men of more or less uncongenial sympathies look on, and public opinion thus reinforced is too strong for the *amour-propre* of any one college. This was the case in Springfield last year and again in Saratoga this year, and the improvement is a welcome one.—The complaints about carriages and carriage-hire are probably well founded. Saratoga is not a town large enough to furnish at short notice, or at long notice, vehicular accommodation for several thousands of newcomers, who wish to be carried through the dust four miles out and back within five or six hours. Too few trips could be made, and there were not carriages and wagons enough had there been an opportunity to make more.—As for the course, everybody's second thought seems to set it down as a very good one, all things considered, needing, however, for its improvement a power vested in the referee to order the race to take place on the given day any time after nine o'clock in the morning. But we may expect to hear New London spoken of; and Springfield still has its friends.

—The Massachusetts of tradition and history is to a great extent the geographical Massachusetts which lies to the east of Worcester, though there are wanting to Western Massachusetts and the Connecticut Valley neither the men nor the events which make history. As has long been known, a change is coming over the Massachusetts of the Boston and Charlestown and Plymouth and Salem end of the State, and Governor Winthrop, could he rise from the dead, would be disturbed, but on information and reflection would not be surprised, at the aspect of General Butler's constituency. The foreigner possesses the land; and Winthrop's contemporary, Milton, would have spoken with still greater contempt of the current Boston Directory than of the Scottish surnames which the booksellers had made known to his London public:

> "Colkitto or MacDonnel or Galasp,
> Those rugged names,
> That would have made Quintilian stare and gasp."

The Boston *Pilot* says that the Directory bristles with Celtic names, and that it must be startling to the Puritan to cast his eye along the sturdy columns of the O'Shaughnessys, O'Neills, and McNamaras. The *Pilot* thinks that at least one-half of the names in the volume are purely Celtic, counting for Celtic the Scotch names of course as well as the Irish. It appears that of all the Os and Macs, the O'Sullivans or Sullivans have the best of it, there being in all 914 of them enumerated, of whom 34 retain the O, the others having dropped it, if, as we suppose, they all had a right to bear it. The *Pilot* credits the Sullivans with old-fashioned families, and thinks that all the Sullivans, big and little, male and female, marching across the city on a picnic to Plymouth Rock, would make a pretty sight. "Shades of Cotton Mather," it says, "only think of it!" Close after the Sullivans comes the sept of the Murphys. These number 820, and it will be seen that were the latter, on their way to a picnic at Bunker Hill, to chance to meet the former on their way to Plymouth, there is no telling which would leave most wigs on the green. The O'Briens are 452; the McDonalds and McDonnells, 432; the McLoughlins, 304; the O'Neils, 233; the Fitzgeralds, 240; the Hogans, 100; the Coughlins, 104; the Welchs, 370; the Flynns, 225; and there are smaller companies of the McGonagles McGuires, O'Connells, O'Keeffes, O'Connors, O'Donnells, Sheehans, Flahertys, Foleys, Connollys, and many more.

—Dr. Hammond delivered an address on assuming the presidency of the Neurological Society, on the effects of alcohol on the nervous system, which is reported in the July number of the *Psychological and Medico-Legal Journal*. In the debate on the address which followed, Dr. Lente, Dr. Willard Parker, Dr. J. C. Peters, and Dr. Aymer, all well-known physicians, took part, but none of them dissented from his principal conclusions. These conclusions are drawn in the main from actual experiments made either on himself or on animals, some of which he exhibited to the audience. He believes that alcohol, though it has no constructive force, has conservative force; that if, for instance, a man is working with such degree of intensity that all the food he is able to procure or (which is the same thing) to digest does not prevent his weight diminishing—say one ounce a day—a moderate dose of alcohol will enable him to perform the same amount of work on the same quantity of food without loss of weight. From which it follows, as Dr. Hammond also proved by experiment, that a person in good health, whose food supplies all the waste caused by his labor, does not need alcohol, and his taking it will probably cause disturbances to the general health similar to those caused by overeating. This doctrine, of course, makes alcohol useful to persons whose digestion is too feeble to supply the amount of necessary repair to the tissues. He further finds that alcohol affects the system mainly through the nerves, and only secondarily, if at all, through the blood—a point which he proves by numerous interesting experiments. Any amount of alcohol which does not prevent waste, and thus take the place of food to a certain extent, may be pronounced excessive, but what is excess in any individual case he declares that no one can tell *à priori*—a single glass of wine may be excess for some "individuals, while to others it fills a rôle that nothing else can fill." He adds:

"With reference to the moderate use of alcoholic liquors, it must be remembered that we are not living in a state of nature. We are all more or less overworked; we all have anxieties and sorrows and misfortunes, which gradually in some cases, suddenly in others, wear away our minds and our bodies. We have honors to achieve, learning to acquire, and, perhaps, wealth to obtain. Honors and learning and wealth are rarely got honestly without hard work, and hard work exhausts all the tissues of the body, especially those of the nervous system. Now, when a man finds that the wear and tear of his mind and body are lessened by a glass or two of wine at his dinner, why should he not take them? The answer may be, because he sets a bad example to his neighbor. But he does not. His example is a good one, for he uses in moderation and decorum one of those things which experience has taught him are beneficial to him. And why should he shorten his life for the purpose of affording an example to a man who probably would not heed it, and who, if he did, is of less value than himself to society? . . . But if we cannot overcome the instinct [the love of stimulants and sedatives] by prohibitory laws, we can regulate it and keep its exercise within due bounds. My own opinion is, that the best way to do this is by discriminative legislation in favor of wines and malt beverages, and against spirituous liquors. I would make it difficult to get whiskey. I would provide that what was sold should be pure, and at the same time I would make it easy to procure light wines and beer. And I would likewise offer every encouragement to the growth of the vine and the hop. Experience has shown that total prohibition, while failing to a great extent in practice, drives

men and women to opium and Indian hemp, substances still more destructive to mind and body than alcohol."

—The erection at Bedford, England, of a statue to John Bunyan, has been the occasion of a good deal of essay-writing—some of it perfunctory and some of it not, but most of it at least decorously respectful to the genius of the author and to the fame and usefulness of his great work. Not all the comments were so, however; and much to be regretted as some of them are for their pettiness and malice, it is proper to give a look at them if only to congratulate ourselves with all proper humility that either our surrounding worldly circumstances here in America, which give everybody plenty of elbow-room, or the stronger operations of the grace of charity among our churchmen and laymen alike, have in good part purged away a sort of venomousness which is too perceptible in certain organs of the church by law established in England. The *Standard*, hearing of the statue, spoke of the 'Pilgrim's Progress' as a volume which stands next to the Bible on many book-shelves; but they are "the scantily-furnished shelves of Dissenters of the lower order." To the same journal's historic vision, the Puritans of Bunyan's time were "savage enemies of the church, traitorous assailants of the crown, merciless persecutors, and unscrupulous murderers." So was King David an adulterous tyrant, and Marcus Aurelius, as the Sunday-school historians deduce for us, a man of a cruel and bloodthirsty disposition. The *Church Herald*—says the *Examiner and Chronicle*, to which we are indebted for our facts—thought Bunyan "a sectarian of some natural ability," belonging to a class "who managed to disobey most effectually one of the plainest and most explicit commands of the Gospel, and refused to suffer little children to come unto Christ." In other words, the man who dreamed a dream and invented the City of Destruction and the Delectable Mountains, the Land of Beulah and the Slough of Despond, Giant Despair and Diffidence his wife, Mr. Great-heart and Vanity Fair, was not a Pedobaptist; and as his allegory has now been before the world two hundred years, it is a good time to consider its author in his capacity as a person holding views on the subject of the baptism of infant children. The *Examiner and Chronicle* is a warm Baptist journal, and we give, without venturing comment, its statement that the *Church Herald* goes on to say that since a statue has been erected to Bunyan, another in blackened bronze should now be set up to the devil, and Dean Stanley should be asked to pronounce the eulogium. False liberalism is a nauseating thing surely; but as for conservatism of the type illustrated in the quotations above-given, what can be said of it? Its ineptitude, its failure to see the real point, and its bitterness and injustice naturally flowing from this intellectual failure, remind one as much of anything as of Solomon's question: "What is heavier than lead, and what is the name of it but a fool?" The scornfulness and insolence are, however, the qualities which will be most readily perceived, do the most mischief, and make most enemies to the cause in church and state which these and similar journals partly represent. No man of an ordinary sense of justice but resents such speeches, about whomsoever made.

—The Comte de Paris, who has already won a distinction in the literary field which is rare among members of royal houses, has just published in Paris a 'History of the Civil War in America,' in two volumes. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* for July 1 contains the opening chapter, in which the author describes the conditions, both social, political, and military, in which the outbreak of the conflict found the country both North and South, and discusses the real and ostensible causes of secession. Nothing fairer or more comprehensive or perspicacious has appeared within the same compass on these points, and his sympathies are plainly and undisguisedly, aristocrat though he is, with the "plain people" throughout, and with their social and political ideals. In exposing the falsity of the pretext put forward for English use at the outset, that the tariff was at the bottom of Southern discontent, he falls into one error which, though slight as regards the war itself, has some importance as regards the fiscal history of the country and our present financial situation. He says that "the reproaches addressed to the Northern States by the Southern planters apropos of the protective tariff, which favored the manufactures of the latter, were [more] specious; in reality, they had no better foundation, for the Morrill tariff, the highest there has ever been in the United States, was passed under Mr. Buchanan, at the time when the President and Congress were both devoted to the interests of the South. If they [the Southerners] allowed that to pass when they could have hindered it, it was because they did not consider it injurious to their interests." Now the fact is that the Morrill tariff was not passed until March 2, 1861. At that time six Southern States had already joined the Confederacy, and were represented at the first Confederate Congress, which met February 4, in Montgomery. Moreover, the members from most of the other Southern States had ceased to attend or to take any interest in the deliberations of Congress in Washington. Indeed, the rapidity with which a rigidly protectionist policy was adopted the instant the Southerners withdrew, did influence public opinion in England strongly in favor of the Southern theory of the tariff origin of secession.

MR. FROUDE ON THE PROTESTANT ASCENDANCY.*

II.

IN 1792, Charles Sheridan thus defined Protestant ascendancy:

"By Protestant ascendancy he meant a Protestant king, to whom only, being Protestant, they owed allegiance; a Protestant House of Peers, composed of Protestant lords spiritual in Protestant succession, of Protestant lords temporal with Protestant inheritance; and a Protestant House of Commons, elected by Protestant constituents; a Protestant legislature, a Protestant judiciary, a Protestant executive, in all and each of their varieties, degrees, and gradations."

This definition was accepted by the majority of the Irish House of Commons as describing the system of government which they were prepared to uphold.

In 1780, Grattan spoke as follows:

"Are we to be a Protestant settlement or an Irish nation? . . . . The penal code is the shell in which the Protestant power has been hatched. It has become a bird. It must burst the shell or perish in it. Indulgence to Catholics cannot injure the Protestant religion. That religion is the religion of the state, and will become the religion of Catholics if severity does not prevent them."

Is it the intolerance of Charles Sheridan or the policy of Grattan which has the fairest claim to the title of statesmanship? This is the question which an historian of Ireland is compelled to answer. On his reply depends his whole view of the course of modern Irish and English history. Mr. Froude answers in effect, if not in so many words, that the policy of Grattan was the expression of fundamentally erroneous principles, and that the intolerance and bigotry of the Orangemen have been proved by events wiser than the wisdom of Burke, the statesmanship of Pitt, or the patriotism of Grattan. His criticism on Grattan's speech is enough to bear out the general description of Mr. Froude's sentiments, which we should have thought might be collected from every page of his work, were it not that an able critic has asserted, with astonishing hardihood, that Mr. Froude has nowhere "implied that Catholic emancipation was a bad thing in itself."

"Piece by piece," writes Mr. Froude, "the shell has been broken off. Has the Protestant bird developed power of wing in consequence? Do the Catholics seem any more to admire it? Let us look for answer in the Disestablished Church, in the obliteration of the Protestants in Ireland as a political power in the country, in the reduction of the Viceroy into a registrar of the decrees of the Vatican, and the boast of a cardinal that Irish nationality is the Catholic religion."

It is fair to test Mr. Froude's capacity as a political theorist by his views with regard to the penal laws and the policy of toleration. They give the color to the whole of his last two volumes. Though opposed to the received Liberal creed, they express the views of a large and increasing minority, who think that toleration as applied to Catholics is grounded on false principles and has ended in failure. Whether the history of Ireland proves that toleration is an error, is moreover a question of more than speculative interest to Americans no less than to Englishmen. Mr. Froude's confidence in his theories is unbounded. The constant assumption made throughout his work, that the history of Ireland supplies the practical confutation of liberal doctrines, impresses the imagination of his readers almost with the force of argument, for not one in a hundred considers whether the facts, even as told by Mr. Froude, support Mr. Froude's conclusions. The object of the present article is (omitting all the other interesting questions raised upon Mr. Froude's last work) to consider whether events have really proved that the policy of intolerance was, in Ireland at least, wiser than the policy of toleration.

No candid enquirer can dispute that the hopes of Grattan and of the greatest English and Irish statesmen of his day have not been entirely fulfilled. The penal laws have been abolished and Irish Catholics now enjoy the full rights of citizens, yet no one can pretend that Ireland has become a contented country or that Catholicism has ceased to be an aggressive and intolerant creed. Not Grattan alone, but every statesman of the time, believed, and believed with apparent reason, that Romanism was a superstition which was losing its hold on mankind, and would die out under the influence of enlightenment and progress. The experience of the last fifty years shows that this view was in part a mistake. The generation who have witnessed the Œcumenical Council know that delusions which have their roots in the weaknesses of human nature, and are upheld by the tradition of cen-

* 'The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century. By J. A. Froude, M.A.' Vols. II. and III. London: Longmans & Co.; New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

turies, will die (if they die at all) as slowly as they have grown up. Not only is Catholicism not dead, but it has in appearance gained new force and audacity. At the end of the last century, it only asked permission to live. The question now is whether it will suffer other creeds to exist. All this and much more (if necessary) may be granted to the school of writers whom Mr. Froude represents. But to concede that the Papacy commands far greater power than at the end of the last century any one supposed it to possess, goes but a very little way towards showing either that the views of Grattan or that the general policy of toleration was grounded on error. Mr. Froude's facts support three conclusions which are fatal to his theories. They show that the system of Protestant ascendancy was tried and failed; that the whole policy of Grattan had, if it had been fairly tried, a fair chance of success; and that the portion of that policy which has been tardily carried out has achieved if not brilliant yet satisfactory results.

The scheme of Protestant ascendancy turns out, on Mr. Froude's own showing at least, as impolitic as it was unjust. Its aim was to crush Romanism and to bind England and Ireland together. Romanism was not crushed, and after a century of Protestant rule the English colony rose in arms to extort independence from England at the very crisis of her fate. If it be urged that the system broke down because it was not fairly carried out, and that Protestant ascendancy might have succeeded if carried out in the spirit of Cromwell, the reply is not far to seek. Cromwell's policy was a far juster system than any which for generations succeeded it, because the Protector was, if a tyrant to the Catholics, a perfectly just ruler to all classes of English settlers; but like every other policy it must be tested by its results. It was not kept up, and there is no proof that it could, England being what it was, have been permanently supported. The penal laws, it may be urged, were not strictly enough enforced. This plea is their severest condemnation. They were not enforced because they were opposed to all the best instincts of human nature; but not being enforced, they stimulated, if they did not produce, that contempt of law which was in the last century the characteristic of Irish Protestants no less than of Irish Catholics. Absenteeism, it may be said, did Ireland far greater injury than the penal code. Let this be granted for the sake of argument. It will not avail the supporters of persecution, for absenteeism had its roots in the system which excluded the mass of Irishmen from ownership of the land and gave large estates to landlords whose home and interests were in England. The atrocities of '98 seem to Mr. Froude the condemnation of Catholic emancipation. To most persons they appear the condemnation of a system which made Mr. Thomas Fitzgerald the hero of one class and Father John Murphy the hero of another. "But," (it may be said, and this appears a line of argument which Mr. Froude is inclined to adopt,) "the Irish Parliament was the source of Irish calamities." Unfortunately for this assertion, the Parliament was abolished and Protestant ascendancy was maintained. From 1800 to 1829, the policy of George the Third was carried out to the full. It came to an end because its continuance would have caused a civil war which the Duke of Wellington was not prepared to provoke. The forcible suppression of a national movement is apt to appear a much more serious thing to a trained soldier than to writers who feed their imaginations on pictures of slaughter and executions in the quietness of the study.

Of the failure of Protestant ascendancy to secure its objects it is possible to speak from experience. Speculations as to the success of Grattan's policy must rest on conjecture. His schemes were never more than partially carried out. He and his English allies advised timely and ample concessions. No one but a madman ever advised that concession should first be promised and the promise be broken at the very moment of expected fulfilment. The Fitzwilliam crisis explains the movement of '98. It is simply ridiculous to make Grattan responsible for results which followed from his policy's not having been followed. His schemes no doubt might under any circumstances have ended in failure. The question is whether between 1782 and 1792 it might not have been possible to induce Irishmen to merge religious and class distinctions in common national feeling. Calm observers may hold that Grattan's idea of an Irish nation could never have been realized. The penal laws and the confiscation of estates with which they were connected had perhaps formed divisions which nothing but length of time could obliterate. But it may fairly be noticed that Grattan had several circumstances in his favor which are now forgotten. The Volunteer movement had been a national movement, and had excited genuine patriotic sentiment. The progress of the French Revolution made the priests disinclined towards violent democratic schemes, and, if not actively loyal, at least disposed from interest to support the English connection. If the Catholics had, at a time when religious men of all creeds looked upon the revolutionists as common enemies, received full civil rights, there is reason to suppose they might have become loyal citizens. The animosity which had once existed between Papists and Protestants had sensibly declined, as may be seen from the fact that the authorities of Trinity College were prepared to go a great way in meeting the demands of Catholic students. When Grattan dreamed of an Irish nation, the people had not yet been divided into irreconcilable factions by the animosities and recollections of '98.

Part only of Grattan's policy was carried into effect, and that portion was not carried out either in the mode or at the time he counselled. Emancipation in 1829 was a different thing from emancipation in 1792 or even 1800. In spite of the warnings of Burke, it followed instead of preceding the Union. In 1792, the priests feared France, and the Pope was in effect the ally of England. The Catholics had not yet learned their power. The Catholic priesthood were in part affected by the tolerant doctrines of the eighteenth century. In 1829, the tide had turned. The Papacy was preparing a career of aggression. Ultramontane doctrines were spreading throughout the Catholic world, and the Papists of Ireland had found a tribune of their own religion. If the measures of 1829 have failed, it is impossible to argue from their failure that the policy of Burke and Pitt must also have failed if tried in due season. To the obstinacy and cunning of George the Third it is due that the Union was not associated in the minds of the Catholics with the acquisition of political rights. Mr. Froude's new hero lost England both the American colonies and the best opportunity which has ever occurred of reconciling Ireland to the British rule. But the policy of toleration, tried as it was under every disadvantage, has not failed. To expect gratitude from human beings for the mere concession of their just rights is folly. Nor is gratitude a feeling ever experienced by one nation to another. To expect, again, that the removal of one grievance will take away the feelings generated by grievances of a different kind is absurd, and Mr. Froude, in pointing out as he has done the numerous evils under which Ireland has suffered, fully explains why the removal of religious disabilities alone did not at once put an end to discontent. A peasantry suffering under unjust land-laws cannot be expected to become loyal subjects simply because they have ceased to suffer from the penal code. What may be expected from one measure of justice is, that particular discontents be removed or lessened. No one who forms simply just expectations of the results to be attained from remedial legislation, will feel disappointment at the effect of the policy of toleration. The Ireland of to-day is not a credit to English statesmanship, but the Ireland of to-day is, on Mr. Froude's own showing, a far more prosperous and far less discontented country than the Ireland of 1800. Irish history, tell it how you will, is a melancholy record of human tyranny and folly. No sane student can believe that any policy whatever can remove within one or two generations the ill results of centuries of misgovernment. What a critic unblinded by partisanship or love of paradox can perceive is, that the last course which prudence suggests for the remedy of existing evils is to revert to a forsaken policy and attempt to rekindle the spirit of Protestant ascendancy when the grounds which explained, if they did not excuse it, have ceased to exist. Grattan's anticipations were not in all points realized, but no advocate of the doctrine that might makes right can, whatever his literary skill, ultimately conceal the fact that the noble toleration of Grattan was far more prudent, as well as far more just, than the bigotry and intolerance of Charles Sheridan or Fitzgibbon.

OWENS COLLEGE ESSAYS AND ADDRESSES.*

THE perusal of this goodly volume suggests the question whether it might not be well for some of our leading universities to publish now and then specimens of lectures, instead of examination-papers, by way of giving some idea of what they are capable. The capabilities of this new English college are advantageously shown by these professorial essays. The college was founded on the bequest of John Owens, merchant, in 1851, was reconstituted and incorporated by Act of Parliament in 1871, and its new buildings were formally opened in the autumn of 1873, by the Duke of Devonshire, the president. From his brief and pertinent address, prefixed to the volume, we learn, among other things, that the founder was wise enough to forbid the use of any portion of his bequest for building purposes. Whereupon the citizens of Manchester, as they ought, took this matter in hand, and supplied the needful buildings at a cost of somewhat more than a hundred thousand pounds, thus giving their college a fitting local habitation without diminution of the endowment. The first address in this commemorative volume (following the brief and modest one of its titled president) was delivered upon the occasion by the Principal and Professor of Greek, Dr. Greenwood: "On some Relations of Culture to Practical Life." Published at the time in some of the literary and scientific journals, it had attracted our attention, and we copied some passages in which the importance, and the

* 'Essays and Addresses by Professors and Lecturers of Owens College, Manchester. Published in commemoration of the opening of the new college buildings, October 7, 1873.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874. Pp. 560, 8vo.

grounds of the importance, of a common groundwork of culture for all students were set forth.

In the essay or lecture which follows, upon "Original Research as a Means of Education," another and a different but not really antagonistic view is maintained by Professor Roscoe, the chemical professor. The presentation of the educational advantages to be gained by original scientific research relates mainly to chemistry, as is natural, and the case is admirably put. But it is curious to notice that while the professor believes "that, from the nature of things, chemistry serves better than any other science as a field for calling into active exercise the abilities which original investigation undoubtedly promotes," it is commended because of the ease with which in its present state even the young student may do original work in it of a certain importance; whereas in literary and classical subjects, to make any real progress demands far more and wider knowledge, "and thus investigation leading to any new results is out of the young student's reach, and necessarily confined to mature and master minds." That is, comparatively small and narrow knowledge, specially directed, will tell far more in chemistry than in philology, logic, or history. The kind of discipline is undoubtedly good, and the attendant advancement of knowledge is so much gain; but the easier and the more special the work, the less, perhaps, its educational importance. We should say that one great educational value of chemical and physical research is the habit it gives, or ought to give, of dealing closely with facts.

"Solar Physics," by Prof. Balfour Stewart, the third of the series, is lucid and brilliant, as befits the topic; and, indeed, is one of the best elaborated as well as the liveliest of popular scientific expositions. No one can well read it without getting a clear idea of what is known and inferred as to the physiognomy of the sun, the nature of sun-spots, and the relations of the sun to terrestrial changes. Some remarks at the close, bearing upon the question of intelligence in the universe, are more subtle. Referring to the conclusion that the sun's atmosphere, as well as that of our earth, is in a delicate state of equilibrium, so that a very small cause may often produce a very great effect; that delicacy of construction, implying instability, is essential to animal life, without which, without pretending to know what life is, we may feel assured that it cannot exist; and that, as "we perceive in the universe generally, as well as in our own frames, the existence of such delicacy, the question naturally occurs: Can the universe in any sense be regarded as an animated structure in which, as in our own frames, intelligence may assume great freedom of action without the subversion of the fundamental laws of energy?" The answer may help non-physicists, and some physicists as well, to a clearer conception of what is involved in certain mooted questions of the day:

"While we cannot, from the physical point of view, pretend to reply to this question, we should yet wish to indicate what is conceived to be the true position of physical science with regard to it.

"In the first place, it is very difficult to separate the physicist from the man. I see one man shoot another, but what do I see as a physicist? Why, first of all, I recognize a conversion of the energy of the gunpowder into the visible energy of the bullet; going back a little further, I trace the bestowal by means of the forefinger of a certain amount of energy upon the trigger; going back a little further, I know that this bestowal of energy denotes a certain consumption of muscular fibre, and also a certain minute change in the matter of the brain. Thus, as a physicist, I can only arrive at a physical antecedent. . . . But yet I know as a man that the act was a foul murder, and will do my very best to bring the murderer to justice, whatever be my ideas with respect to the position of life in the universe of energy. Thus as a physicist I recognize the delicacy of construction which appears to be necessary to the embodiment of intelligence, but I cannot tell whether intelligence be there or not. My reasons for believing that it is there have nothing to do with physical science; they are derived from the consciousness that I myself exist, and from the conviction, derived from powerful reasons of an analogical nature, that my fellow-beings are similar to myself.

"But, again, when we regard the varied motions of an animated being, we find that these are of two kinds. Some are as nearly as possible mechanical, as, for instance, the beating of the heart and the circulation of the blood, which are not even spontaneous, and certainly convey no moral meaning whatever; others again are spontaneous, and convey unmistakable indications of a moral agent. Now, in the universe also there are certain motions that are strictly mechanical. . . . . Unquestionably there is no moral significance in such motions. If the moon crosses the meridian when we do not expect her, what do we do? Why, only revise our calculations. But it has been shown in this essay that there are other motions of the universe associated with that element of delicacy which does not characterize the orbital motions of the heavenly bodies. Now, if a physicist be asked whether he has any reason to associate these motions with the spontaneous acts of intelligence directing these motions after a manner similar to that by means of which our intelligence directs our motions, his reply will be that he cannot tell. Recognizing the principle of delicacy, he may have no objection to urge; but the reasons for or against such an hypothesis must be derived from other sources, and the battle must be fought with other weapons than those of the physicist."

"The Distance of the Sun from the Earth," by Prof. Core; "The Limits of our Knowledge of the Earth," by Mr. Dawkins; "The Use of Steam," by Prof. Reynolds, are the remaining physical topics. The only natural-history lecture is by Prof. W. C. Williamson, who discusses "Primeval Vegetation in its Relation to the Doctrines of Natural Selection and Evolution." The discussion is rather negative in its results, and the lecturer is cautious of drawing absolute conclusions, evidently regarding evolution somewhat as the canny Scot regarded Rob Roy—as "owre bad for blessing, and owre good for banning." "Science and Medicine," by Prof. Gamgee, is mainly historical. Prof. Wilkins presents some historical results of the "Science of Language," Prof. Theodores discourses at length upon "The Talmud," Mr. Breymann on "Provençal Poetry," Prof. Bryce, who occupies a chair in the Manchester college as well as at Oxford, on the "Judicature Act of 1873 in its Relation to the Judicial System in England." Prof. Jevons discusses "The Railways and the State"; Prof. A. W. Ward, "The Peace of Europe."

THE MAGAZINES FOR AUGUST.

IN *Lippincott's*, Dr. S. Weir Mitchell writes of the "curious lowering of tone" which American health undergoes every spring, of which little or nothing is said in our books of medicine—these being often in good part European—but which, in old times not yet passed out of the memory of the middle-aged, used to lead to many bleedings and to dosing with physics of various strength, from calomel to dandelion beer. Spring sickness was the name for this spring-time indisposition to work, accompanied by an inability to get any good from one's food and a general lowness of spirits. One cause of it, Dr. Mitchell thinks, may be the malarious element which is operative over so large a part of the country, and he thinks it would be well to make enquiry whether in older countries free from ague-poison the breaking up of the winter weather is thus capable of pulling down people's strength. But what he is inclined to think a far more widespread and efficient cause of this trouble of the spring, is the nervous wear and tear of the winter preceding. All over America, he remarks, the time of the most severe and steady labor is from early autumn up to late spring—or, as he ought to have said, up to the time when early summer has gone. Of course it is of the professional, mercantile, and manufacturing classes that this is said—persons whose labor puts their nerves rather than their muscles under stress; and we may remark in passing that the fact that the farmer also undergoes his spring change as well as the broker, and needs his dandelion beer, does not really militate against Dr. Mitchell's argument. Confirmation of the theory which primarily connects the spring lassitude of our city-men with the state of their nerves, the doctor finds in some statistical evidence which he has gathered in Philadelphia, in regard to the nervous disease called chorea, a disease once bearing the better-known name of St. Vitus's Dance. A great number of choreal cases, he says, are subject to relapses, and from an examination of the records of some years at his clinic it was found that not only do the relapses occur in spring, but also that a vast proportion of the new cases take place at that season. This is striking, because chorea, according to our author's assertion, has no relation to malaria, and is a complaint which any enfeebling causes are apt to evolve. Whatever the correctness of his diagnosis, Dr. Mitchell goes on to prescribe a course of treatment which ought to be enough for a long and grisly train of maladies and taints. It is, in brief, that the tired-out man, suffering from one or another of the ailments of over-civilization, shall throw himself into the lap of barbarism—go into the forest, catch the fish he eats, sleep under hemlock branches, get up from sleep at sunrise, go to bed fatigued with travel or food-getting at eight o'clock, sleeping a dreamless sleep and rising to the mindless pleasure of the simplest of camp existences. The camp-cure this is called, and doubtless several thousands of our fellow-citizens, following the light of unassisted nature, are even now employing themselves as Dr. Mitchell recommends. He mentions half-a-dozen regions where camping out may be done; but apparently his heart goes out most readily to the shores and woods of Lake Superior. He speaks well also of the Maine woods—despite the black fly—and of the noble St. John River. Of the more accessible Adirondacks he says less, they not being much known to him personally; but he mentions the advertisement given them some years since by a Boston clergyman—one of those apostles of liberty who have been at such a premium of late years, and whose grand freedom from the shackles of systematic theology, and of good sense, and of unsensational truthfulness and modesty the public is now beginning to take a closer look at than it has taken for years, and to judge of with its eyes open. "The Adirondacks woods," says Dr. Mitchell, "have been pretty fully advertised in a work of fiction by a reverend gentleman in Boston, who describes trout as leaping some few feet out of water, and who shoots loons with a rifle from a rocking boat in a thunder-storm at night by the lightning-flashes."

This month's *Lippincott's*, besides the article by Dr. Mitchell, contains

one by Mrs. Fanny Fenwick, which breathes of tropical climes indeed in its glowing description of Eastern fruits and flowers, but breathes also of sherbet, and lemon groves, and that Indian punkah to which one of the *Nation's* valued contemporaries has at one time and another done so much to call public attention. Mr. William Black this month begins his new serial story, which bids fair to be like most of his other late stories in being made up of love and natural scenery. Picturesque Cornwall is Mr. Black's locality this time, and, as it has not yet been much described, our author's fault of too frequent description and of descriptive diffuseness will probably be less of a fault than usual. As for his principal characters, for two among them we have the familiar figures of the spirited young man in the strength and freshness of youth, and the young woman as constructed from the honestly respectful, rather romantic, masculine point of view. Mr. Black's habit of interpolating his story with scraps of old songs he still indulges in, and the reader, if almost willing to pronounce it a mannerism, is certainly unwilling as yet to condemn it, for it still gives pleasure; but, nevertheless, he would welcome some signs of a more restrained and frugal use of the device. When Miss Bell in the twilight sings "Lochaber no more," or when Sheila, the Princess of Thule, in like manner emphasizes a mood of the sea or of the sky or of her companions with an answering strain of music, it is seen to be very well. But so much cannot be said when in a third novel our author takes a new collection of songs—English, say, instead of Scotch—and proposes to move us for the third time in the same way. As it happens, too, there is an instance of a lowering of the method of management—an instance, perhaps, indicating that the device is felt to have been already hard-worked. This is when Miss Morwenna has proposed to her a very prosaic sort of a marriage, whereupon her song of "Wapping Old Stairs" comes into her head, somewhat to her amusement:

> ". . . Nor your Molly forsake,
> Still your trousers I'll wash, and your grog, too, I'll make."

We have referred to one or two of Mr. Black's faults, or tendencies to faultiness; we have done so partly because we do not recollect that we have at any time spoken in much detail of his writings, they having usually first come to us in the form of magazine literature, and received then an incidental but regular mention. This "Three Feathers" bids fair to be as clever as the best of his productions. Mr. George MacDonald's "Malcolm" proceeds towards its end. The "New Hyperion" in this stage of its progress lends itself kindly to a drowse, and may be called good summer reading. Mount Desert is praised and half-described by a person who has spent a season there; and the only love-story in the August *Lippincott's* is noticeable for a slight but effective modification of a well-known invention—that of terminational aggrandizement. Thus, Fenwick is Fenwicke, and Althorp, Althorpe.

In the *Catholic World* there is a better maintenance of the undisturbed average of merit than is common in the August magazines; but there is not much to tempt the unsectarian reader. Of this little, Mr. De Vere's "Antar and Zara" may be counted a part, and another part is a story from the French of Ernest Hello, who, after some rather meaningless construction of machinery, endeavors to impress upon us the truth that a so-called innocent man may feel remorse for a crime which he has never committed. That is to say, he may never have materially committed a murder, and yet may be haunted by remorse for that crime, and even goaded by the ghost of a supposed victim into insanity itself. But, if our philosopher reasons well, this sufferer from remorse is not innocent. He has probably committed a real and spiritual crime, which, although forgotten, madness seizes hold of and transforms into an actual crime of which he believes himself guilty. In other words, the sub-conscious memory of a sin causes him to go mad and to believe himself guilty of an offence against the law. All this is sufficiently fine-drawn; and we could have for it, at best, only the testimony of lunatics. But unwise and useless as this story is, it is managed in some of its points with a cleverness entirely unlike that of our American story-tellers; the main structure, however, is as far from being successful as the spirit of the plot from being a lifelike spirit. "A Glimpse of the Green Isle" continues to be easy to read. The writer has got as far as from Queenstown to Dublin, and this is one of his observations by the way:

> "The Irish in Ireland are becoming a serious people. I do not meet a single specimen of the Irish joker indispensable to the tourist in Ireland a quarter of a century ago. If he ever existed as they represented him, the railways have killed him." Again, "The traditional costume of the stage Irishman is as rarely seen in Ireland as the short-waisted, long-tailed coat, and striped trousers of the stage Yankee in the United States. I saw but one pair of knee-breeches between Cork and Kingstown. I did not encounter a single shillelah."

Our author thinks the gravity of the people to be due to their increased means of bettering their condition, either by going abroad or by staying at home and working for the better wages now everywhere paid both to skilled and unskilled workmen. The examination of the validity of Anglican orders is carried on from last month, and so is the "Discussion with an Infidel"—Büchner namely. Büchner still displays his "clumsy sophistry and shameful contradictions," and unconsciously shows up his companion believers in force and matter to be "infidel scribblers and designing knaves."

In *Old and New* there is an article, one of a series, by the Rev. James Martineau, who enquires into the reasons for thinking that the fourth Gospel was written by John, and argues that for all reasons it nohow could have been so written, nor in fact by any of the inner circle of the disciples. The arguments as presented by Mr. Martineau are put with clearness and with as much calmness as force. In the same magazine a story with a faint resemblance to the stories gathered among the abbeys of Touraine, is told by a Bishop Ferette; its title is "The Old Capuchin and the Young Carmelite," and the reader will be apt to think that any magazine would be as well off without it as with it. "Our Sketching Club" is an essay of the deadly-lively vivacious order, but Mr. Ruskin vouches for the soundness of what its writer says about drawing and sketching. In the "Record of Progress" there is some account of the schools for the training of nurses—both of those which are more especially English schools, including Florence Nightingale's, and the American school in New York. The school in this city has twenty-six pupils, who do the nursing in five of the Bellevue wards, and it has branches in active operation in Boston, Philadelphia, and New Haven. In Boston there are fifteen pupils, who also serve in the hospital wards. This is regarded as the best sort of training for them. Miss Nightingale has thus estimated the value of such training and the relative value of the different kinds of nurses. It is a subject on which much more is said than is known, and, of what is said, much is said with great positiveness:

> "With regard to an oft-disputed question whether it is desirable to train probationers entirely in a *public* hospital, I should say, without hesitation, it is there *only* that they *can* be trained; and every well-judging superintendent will tell you that the students, governors, steward, etc. (disagreeable as the collisions with them sometimes are), are the most valuable assistants in the training of her nurses. Whether in opposition or in kindness, she hears of all their shortcomings through the secular bystanders, which she would hear of in no other way. I have rarely known a nurse worth the bread she ate, whether religious or secular, whether Roman Catholic nun, Lutheran deaconess, Anglican sister, or paid nurse, who had not been trained under a hospital discipline, consisting partly of the secular man authorities of the hospital, and partly of her own female superior. I don't know which is the worst managed—the hospital which is entirely under the secular men heads, or the hospital which is entirely under the superior of the nurses, whether religious or secular, whether male or female."

In another part of the "Record of Progress" there are two or three reports from Bostonians who have had under consideration the subject of providing amusements for the poor. It was a sub-committee of ladies that first reported. They found that the persons for whom amusements would have to be provided, if at all, are mostly the Irish of the large cities and towns. But they found also that up to the time of the investigation, at any rate, this class had provided itself with amusements—these having been chiefly derived from drinking together and then fighting with each other, and this not only in America, but in all probability in their former home beyond the sea. Yet plainly it is a pleasure to them the committee also, think, to listen to each other singing old songs and telling stories of ancient times. "We have all," they say, "overheard the unending rigmaroles, which seem to have unfailing interest, of some elderly digger or ditcher"; and they think that the persons who are auditors on these occasions might with a little pains be drawn into public halls where they would listen at first to legends culled from "what they fondly call their national history," and afterwards could be led on to hear about passages from American history such as should stir their hearts. One such might be the daring of Putnam; another the romantic exploits of Marion; another the dash of Light-Horse Harry. Kindling their feelings with these, they might by-and-by "rise to the contemplation of that magnanimous and dauntless man who out of thirteen States made a nation." It is conceivable also that on the 22d of February the use of Faneuil Hall might be granted by the city government: should that be the case, the evening's amusement might begin "with an historic tableau of Washington crossing the Delaware (in every generation there is some man who looks like Washington)"; then some high-spirited, sweet-voiced person might recite parts of Longfellow's "Building of the Ship"; then a tableau from "Rich and rare were the gems she wore," etc., etc., etc. This is all curious as a Bostonian notion of how you are to produce good, rational, platform, transferable-ticket amusements for the people of a nation. The reader will observe, too, the friendly, sympathetic way in which the sub-committee speak of the drinking, fighting people who have what they "fondly call a national history." No wonder the comment which comes from Indiana on this hopeful report enquires if the idea of amusement for a people

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does not involve the necessity of something which can be done by the people themselves. More sensible views than the sub-committee's are to the effect that free music-halls are a good means of amusement, and that these should also offer their visitors an occasional dance, song, or recitation, and should supply refreshments at a cheap rate. This is a New York view. A second Boston opinion is also favorable to what the holder of it would call free club-rooms, well warmed and lighted, and affording the materials for playing easy and pleasing games. But we are not long in coming on this latter lady's blackboard and chalk. Once in so often, she says, she would invite in "such a man as Professor Morse of Salem, or the late Professor Agassiz, whose skill with the crayon could make, by catching the eye, the dull understanding grasp pleasurably even scientific subjects." Mr. Gahagan, however, long before he had taken in any of the marvellous beauty that is revealed by modern chemistry, or had received more than his second electrical shock, would have heard so much over at the other lecture course about Brian Boru, and Putnam and the bloody British, as to be well on his way to the Canada line as a Fenian contingent. Nothing in all this scheme appears to be praiseworthy except the intention; and that does not seem unalloyed when we note the unconsciously condescending tone of some of the ladies.

The *Atlantic* opens with a sketch of a Northumbrian fishing town close beside the Tweed, and inhabited by a people of a character as much Scotch as English—hardy, drunken on occasion, great searchers of the Scriptures many of them, as superstitious as brave, and of the simplest sort of lives. Many a primitive bowlder long stood here. We must refer the reader to the sketch itself, which is entirely unpretentious, bears every mark of truth, is as interesting as a stormy day with a veteran Marblehead fisherman might be, and deserves to be read better than almost anything else in the month's magazines. We will, however, quote a few words. We must premise that "a Grinder" is a person who lives in a small hamlet a little distance to the north of the village, and whom the villagers hate desperately and without intermission. We must further premise that a sea-dog is a fish of the bigness of a cod, but more voracious than the grave, which destroys herrings by the school and even attacks the nets and tears out the captive fish. The story runs as follows:

"One of the fishermen, a regular attendant of the Presbyterian church, being on his death-bed, his friends, anxious for his future welfare, thought to ask him some questions in regard to his spiritual condition.

"'Weel, Rab, ye're dyin', ye ken?'

"'Ay, Jamie, I'm gaun.'

"'An' where d'ye expect t' gau t'?'

"'I dinna ken, Jamie, bit I wad like t' turn int' a sea-dog an' plunder the Grinders' nets.' And thus he died!"

In *Scribner's* there is a good article on Georgia by Mr. Edward King, who does not let himself be blinded to the shortcomings either of whites or blacks, but who writes hopefully of the "Yankees of the South." Their rehabilitation however is not an affair of to-day nor of to-morrow, and this Mr. King makes the reader see. Another article is about Mr. Sumner, written by his private secretary, and full of matter having a certain kind of interest, especially for Mr. Sumner's friends. About the secretary's powers of judgment and fitness for such business we do not know: we observe that he thinks it worth noting down that Mr. Sumner really verified the classical quotations in the revised edition of his speeches. The general subject of the late senator's character is treated of in the editorial department of the magazine, and with a discrimination which will prove more common as time goes on.

The *Galaxy* for August is light reading. Mr. Albert Rhodes writes, as thinly as usual, about About; a writer, signing himself Launce Poyntz, proves General McClellan to have been a feeble and almost good-for-nothing soldier, General Lee an inferior soldier in attack though good in retreat, as an engineer officer should be, and General J. S. Johnston much the superior of either of them, and worthy to rank in the class of great second-rate commanders, such as Turenne, Wellington, and Sherman. Our author appears to be commendably sure that he is right, and that being the case goes ahead accordingly, and at a great rate. We can commend, as helping one to a glance of discernment over our historical past, an article by Mr. Henry W. Frost, entitled 'How they lived before the Revolution.' The writer has, perhaps, put into one article what might with good husbandry and a little more fulness of matter have made two or three, and in any case it would not be disagreeable to hear from him again. Mr. R. G. White discusses the use of "shall" and "will," and incidentally digs up from a far part of the yard the old bone so often growled over by himself and Mr. Fitzedward Hall. He soon drags it away and buries it, however, to the gratification of the reader, and goes on coherently. Illustrated articles on Newport, Mexico, the Canadian boundary line, and the American railroad generally considered, fill up more than half of *Harper's Magazine*. They all are good, or good enough, but the one on American railroads, if read and believed in, is sufficient to make one acquiesce with resignation if not with cheerfulness in one's destruction or mutilation by an accident on the road. The dangers, the responsibilities, and the admirable bearing of them by the great army of engineers, conductors, brakemen, station-hands, and other employees, are shown to the reader in a new light, and the article is worth reading.

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Hale (Rev. E. E.), In His Name: a Story of the Wilderness	(Roberts Bros.)	
Perkins (F. B.), Scrope: a Tale	(Roberts Bros.)	
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part 20, swd	(L. W Schmidt)	
Siglar (H. W.), Progressive English Exercises	(Henry Holt & Co.)	
Woodruff (H.), The Trotting Horse of America, 18th ed	(Porter & Coates)	2 50
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, July 27.

MONEY has remained extremely abundant during the week at 2½ per cent., with occasional loans at 3 per cent. On Saturday money was loaned as low as 1½ per cent., while to-day it is offered freely at 2 per cent. per annum for a week. The bank statement on Saturday was favorable, and showed an increase of $420,075 in the net surplus reserve. The following gives the changes in the different items:

	July 18.	July 25.	Differences.
Loans	$285,315,000	$284,168,100	Dec.. $1,146,900
Specie	27,755,300	26,646,700	Dec.. 1,108,600
Legal tenders	61,853,700	63,714,800	Inc... 1,861,100
Deposits	242,983,600	244,313,300	Inc... 1,329,700
Circulation	25,727,500	25,767,600	Inc... 40,100

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 18.	July 25.	Differences.
Specie	$27,755,300	$26,646,700	Dec... $1,108,600
Legal tenders	61,853,700	63,714,800	Inc .. 1,861,100
Total reserve	$89,609,600	$90,361,500	Inc.. $752,500
Reserve required against deposits	60,745,900	61,078,325	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem'ts,	28,863,100	29,283,175	Inc... 420,075

In the stock market the interest has centred altogether in Lake Shore. The directors of the company wisely decided not to pay any dividend to the stockholders in August, the excuse for not doing so being that the road had not earned one. The directors, however, have made a statement of the earnings and expenses for the six months ending June 30, and express the hope that it will not be necessary in future to omit the payment of dividends. The statement is as follows:

Earnings		$8,674,839
Operating expenses (including cost of steel rails, substituted for iron), and taxes (equal to 66 per cent. of earnings)		5,608,993
		$3,065,846
Interest, Leases, and Dividend on Guaranteed Stock	$1,380,000	
Discount on Bonds sold	190,000	
		1,570,000
		$1,495,846
Leaves equal to 3·025 per cent. on capital stock.		
The above amount has been expended for the following purposes:		
On construction	$263,770	
On equipment	626,686	
		$890,456
All this was under contracts made by the previous administration prior to June 30, 1873, which contracts are now all closed.		
For payments on floating debt		605,390
		$1,495,846
The present floating debt is		$2,100,000

The reduction therein since January 1, 1874, other than by earnings as shown above was from proceeds sales second mortgage bonds.

There is a difference of opinion as to the propriety of not adding the $890,456, spent on construction and equipment, to the "operating expenses," but as this would have shown that a dividend of only a little over 1 per cent. had been earned on the stock, we can understand why it was not so stated. There was some little activity in the Pacific Mail upon news having been received of the loss of a steamer. The price of the stock fell off about 1 per cent., but almost immediately recovered, when it was known that the company's loss was fully covered by insurance.

The investment stocks have been almost lifeless, and brokers who make dealings in that class of securities their special business say that they have never had so little inquiry for them as they have had during the present month, when the large disbursements of money by the Government and corporations place in the hands of people the funds which they have heretofore reinvested in sound dividend-paying stocks. There has been a light demand for Lackawanna at 107 to 107⅜, and for New Jersey Central at 105⅜. Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy has sold at 105, the demand for it coming from Boston, where the road is chiefly owned.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, July 27, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	99¾ 100⅛	.... 99⅜	99⅛ 99⅜	99⅜ 99⅞	.... 99⅛	....	2,700
Lake Shore	73 73⅜	72⅝ 73¼	71⅜ 73⅜	71¼ 72½	71⅛ 72	71⅜ 71⅝	208,200
Erie	32¼ 32⅜	31⅜ 32	31⅛ 31⅜	31 32⅜	31⅜ 31⅜	31⅜ 32⅛	55,400
Union Pacific	26¼ 26⅜	26¼ 26⅝	26¼ 26½	26⅛ 26⅜	26⅜ 26⅝	26⅜ 26½	11,600
Chi. & N. W	38 38⅜	37⅜ 37⅝	37⅛ 37⅝	37¼ 38⅛	37⅜	.... 37⅜	10,600
Do. pfd	56 56½	.... 55¾	 55	.... 55⅜	.... 55⅛	....	400
N. J. Central	.... 105½	 106	 106	.... 105½	.... 105½	....	800
Rock Island	98¼ 98¾	97¾ 98¼	98 98⅛	98 98⅝	98 98¼	98 98¼	36,900
Mil. & St. Paul	35⅝ 37⅜	34⅞ 35⅜	34⅜ 35⅝	34⅝ 35⅜	34⅞ 35	35 35⅛	20,600
Do. pfd	54½ 54⅝	 54	.... 54½	 54	 54	....	600
Wabash	35¼ 35⅜	35 35¼	34⅜ 35¼	34⅜ 35⅜	34⅞ 35¼	35⅛ 35¼	9,200
D., L. & W	 108	.... 107½	.... 107¼	.... 107½	107 107⅜	....	2,800
O. & M	25⅜ 25⅞	 25	 25	.... 25½	....	....	1,700
C. C. & I. C	.... 17⅛	....	.... 17½	17⅜ 17⅜	17⅛ 17⅝	....	800
W. U. Tel	72 72⅜	71⅜ 71⅞	71⅛ 71⅜	71⅜ 72⅝	72⅛ 72⅜	72⅛ 72¼	61,500
Pacific Mail	44¼ 45	44 44⅜	44 44¼	44⅛ 44⅜	43¼ 44⅜	43⅜ 43⅝	29,500

Nothing official has come to hand at this writing in relation to the Treasury award of new 5 per cent. bonds, for which the proposals for the remaining unsold $179,000,000 were opened on the 23d inst. Some $10,000,000 were awarded at par and accrued interest, and the Treasury Department is now considering an offer made by a syndicate, composed of American and foreign bankers, for $55,000,000, with the privilege of taking any part of the balance at the same price within a certain length of time. Exactly what time is asked for is not definitely known, but is supposed to be twelve months. The Treasury considers the time which the syndicate asks as too long, and at present the two parties are endeavoring to arrive at some sort of a compromise.

Pending the settlement of the Government sale of new 5's the market has been very dull, the dealers not being disposed to purchase until the transaction is closed.

The market closed steady at the following quotations this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118⅝	118⅞	Registered 5-20, 1867, c	117¾	117⅞
Registered 5-20, 1862, c	113¼	113½	Registered 5-20, 1868, c	118¼	
Registered 5-20, 1864, c	115¾	115⅞	Registered 10-40's, c	113¾	113¾
Registered 5-20, 1865, c	116⅞		Registered 5's, 1881	113½	113¾
Registered 5-20, new, 1865, c	116⅜	116½	U. S. Currency 6's	117⅞	

The fluctuations in gold have been confined between 109⅝ and 110¼. There has been a total lack of any speculative spirit, and the market has been left to itself. The following shows the daily range of quotations:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday, July 20	110¼	110¼	110¼	110¼
Tuesday, July 21	110¼	110¼	110	110⅛
Wednesday, July 22	110	110¼	109¾	109⅞
Thursday, July 23	109¾	110	109¾	109⅞
Friday, July 24	109⅞	109⅞	109⅝	109⅞
Saturday, July 25	109⅞	110	109¾	109⅞

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 6, 1874.

The Week.

THE principal political events of the week have been the delivery of an important speech by Senator Morton, and the very outspoken call of the Illinois Democratic Committee. The committee did not choose to await the action of the Convention, but endeavored to give commanding advice as to the State platform to be made on the 26th instant. It invites to the Convention both Democrats and Liberal Republicans, and, in general, all men who are "in favor of the restoration of gold and silver as the basis of the currency of the country, the speedy resumption of specie payments, and the payment of all national indebtedness in the money recognized by the civilized world." What success will attend the attempt of the committee to pledge the party in this way remains to be seen; it seems hardly probable that the friends of inflation will surrender the Convention to the resumptionists, but the committee's tone is bold. We observe that its members had in their council Mr. Raster and Mr. Hesing of the Illinois *Staats-Zeitung*, gentlemen supposed to represent with more or less fulness the German vote; and that they also received some advice from the rather flighty ex-Governor Palmer, one of the few Liberal Republicans still extant.

Mr. Morton's speech touched on all current political topics, and as usual did not lack for cleverness. Probably the entire Republican party might be searched in vain for a better specimen than Mr. Morton of the partisan Republican pure and simple; and at the beginning of his speech he gave the audience some of his usual bounce about the treason and folly of the Democracy, and the vigor of the Republicans in themselves purging their party of corrupt men whenever and wheresoever found. The Reciprocity Treaty he took occasion to denounce with as much severity as was shown the measure by Mr. Blaine; and free-trade he scouted in terms which seem so unnecessary for the agricultural communities of Indiana that there is inevitably a suggestion of a wider audience to be reached and captivated. Mr. Blaine, with his usual luck, was not compelled to be so transparent, his locality accounting naturally enough for his protectionism. As for the Civil Rights Bill, Mr. Morton declared that it was no more stringent than a law for similar purposes which is already on the Indiana statute-books, and he pronounced false and baseless the rumor that the President disliked the bill: the President had no fondness for the Southern Democrat. The main burden of the speech, however, was the cheap-transportation question, and next to that the currency. In brief, Mr. Morton thinks that the State governments in their due degree and the Federal Government in its degree have full power to regulate all railroads. But he warns the voter that the problem is a knotty one, and that it must be attacked in a spirit of moderation. On the whole, he thinks the best machinery for performing the necessary regulation would be boards of commissioners empowered to fix rates, prevent the corporations from taking advantage of the hard frosts which close the canals, crush out many other extortionate practices, and so on and so on. In speaking of the currency, the Senator defended inflation, and did a good deal of obfuscatory laudation of the national-bank notes. Last winter's work on the currency he is said in the popular version of his speech to have described as "kicking out of Congress the monster of contraction after expansion had been crammed down its throat."

Senator Windom of Minnesota, in a conversation with a *Tribune* correspondent, perhaps throws some light on the boldness of the hard-money men in Illinois. He says that he never was so much [illegible] political matter as about the opinions of his constituency in regard to inflation. With a curious frankness, he says that he did not think well of inflation at first; he thought it was wrong; but he was given to understand that his people out in Minnesota wanted it, so he changed sides, and voted for the bill which was vetoed, and afterwards for the bill which became law. Now he discovers, to his surprise, that he might as well have behaved a little more like a man: "Since his return to the State, he had found very few who are in favor of inflation," and next winter it will doubtless be more difficult to Mortonize him into "cramming expansion down the throat of the monster of contraction." This same correspondent notes that Minnesota was never more prosperous than now, and that, with the farmers lending money to the banks instead of borrowing it, there is as little need for a cry for more currency as there is for the farmers to ask the railroad companies to carry at reduced rates the twenty-five million dollars' worth of surplus wheat which they sent out of the State in 1873, or the twenty million dollars' worth which they will send this year.

On the question of responsibility for the corruptions and disorders in South Carolina, Mr. Morton was more explicit and logical than in some other parts of his speech. He says in the first place that they have been "exaggerated an hundredfold," though there is still "too much truth in them"; that the Democrats of the State have had just as much share in the frauds and peculations as the Republicans; that "the Republican party of the United States have no other responsibility than this," that they "prevented the dissolution of the Union, abolished slavery, clothed the negroes with civil and political rights, and gave them an equal participation with their late masters in the reconstruction of the State government, which had been destroyed by the rebellion." For the "mental and moral condition" of the negroes, which under the Reconstruction acts has produced all the trouble, "the old slaveholding Democracy is responsible"; but for the fact that the negroes had an equal right to liberty and the suffrage, which the Republican party was forced by its own sense of justice to confer upon them, with whom does the responsibility rest? "The responsibility must be traced directly to the great Creator of us all, who, in his holy Word and throughout his works, has proclaimed the equal humanity, rights, and immortality of all men." This chain of reasoning, simple as it is, is open to the objection of putting too great a burden on the Almighty. There are various degrees and modes of responsibility for the present political condition, not of South Carolina alone, but of the entire South, for some of which the Republican party may take credit to itself, and will permanently obtain it in history. Such are the necessary steps in the suppression of the rebellion, the abolition of slavery, and the extension of political rights to the freedmen, which are capable of being viewed either as voluntary acts of a free agent, or in another light as "acts of God." But the kind of responsibility typified in the President's dealings with Kellogg and Casey is that which Mr. Morton found it convenient to overlook.

Of the actual condition of South Carolina politics, a correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial* gives a picture which is distressingly entertaining. It being generally understood that the thieving of Moses is not now looked upon with favor at Washington, a faction of the Republican party in the State is endeavoring to prevent his renomination. Moses, however, is working for his "second term," and is known to have gained great favor with two important classes in South Carolina—"the convicts and the office-holders." He makes no secret of his intentions, but says that as he has a somewhat bad reputation outside the State, being known as "the robber Moses" and "the great South Carolina thief," he wants an endorsement and a vindication from his constituents. What he chiefly cares for is the nomination; for all accounts agree that, as long as the Republican organization in South Carolina is kept intact, the nominee of the convention is sure of an election. The Demo-

crats have no future as a party before them; and, better than all, the negroes have great confidence in Moses, which must be explained by the negro belief that Grant stands by him, and that he represents freedom, jubilee, and the pardoning power. Notwithstanding the fact that he is a white man, an original rebel, that he is the son of a man said to have fired the first shot on Fort Sumter, and is plundering the State right and left, the negroes are profoundly devoted to him, and are entirely unaffected by the howls and clamor of the mob.

The Alabama Democrats have held their convention, and resolved that the Radicals have so inflamed the passions and prejudices of the negroes as to make it "necessary for the white people to unite and act together in self-defence and for the preservation of white civilization"; that the constitutional and legal rights of all must be preserved inviolate; but that Congress has no constitutional authority "to force the two races into social union or equality." They denounce the Civil Rights Bill passed by the Senate, and "all legislative enactments which attempt to convert into crimes the rules and maxims of our social intercourse, to which we are indebted for the excellence and glory of our civilization, or to punish with degrading penalties our refusal to admit an ignorant and barbarous race to equal participation with our families in our social institutions"; "extend to all our race in every clime the right hand of fellowship"; declare that railroad employees in Alabama ought to have liens for wages; demand and pledge themselves to economy in State affairs, to a complete investigation and public statement of the financial condition of the State, the payment of lawful and the repudiation of unlawful and fraudulent claims.

The municipal election at Vicksburg passed off quietly, and there appears to have been no necessity for the Federal interference so unblushingly asked for by the incompetent lieutenant-governor and afterwards by Governor Ames. Undoubtedly there have been for some time the materials for a riot in the city, and we doubt if five years ago a riot must not have taken place had the circumstances been the same. The facts appear to be that the city government has been in the hands of the negroes and a few white men of Radical politics. It is not a rich municipality, and it is said that its debt has been carried up to one-sixth part of its total valuation, and that there has been no indication that the process would stop. On the contrary, when the Radical party nominated its candidates for last Tuesday's election, it is said to have gone further than before, and named a ticket more pronouncedly Radical and dangerous to the taxpayer than ever. This aroused anger on the part of the whites; and some of the negroes are reported as making inflammatory speeches of a kind well calculated to excite the white Vicksburger. Both sides began drilling men, but such of their arms as were public property being taken away from them or forced into concealment, large numbers of the citizens, black and white, took to their private revolvers. This armament seems to have had on the whole a quieting effect—as looking so much like business that it might be as well for neither party to begin hostilities. Then came the requests for troops, and to the satisfaction of the country the Texas precedent was followed instead of that of Louisiana and Arkansas, and the request denied. The whites carried the city by 350 majority, about forty blacks voting with them, while it is said that but four whites voted the Radical ticket.

Ex-Senator Pomeroy seems to be just the man for one of the Morton Granger railroad commissioners, with power to negotiate the fixing of fares and freights and to stand between the people and the great moneyed corporations. On the 29th of July, his celebrated York case came up for trial. It will be recollected that eighteen months ago Old Subsidy, as Mr. Pomeroy is called by his friends, was a candidate for the United States Senate. While the contest was going on, he entrusted State Senator York with seven thousand dollars to be carried to a gentleman out of town who wished to establish a national bank. Mr. York, however, took the money into the convention and informed the presiding officer that Mr. Pomeroy had just given him seven thousand dollars as a bribe to induce him to work for Mr. Pomeroy's election. The truth of Mr. Pomeroy's narrative is what is at issue in the pending trial, but Mr. Pomeroy appears to be in little haste for this ordeal, and in fact is exhausting every device known to the human mind in order not to have any trial whatever, either now, at this present time, or at any remoter period. One of his latest moves is a threat that if "this thing" is not stopped somehow he shall tell what he knows about Kansas politicians. As these are the breed of Republicans who came into power on the last tide of the Ossawatomie, manhood-rights enthusiasm, and as they loved freedom so much that they were not required to have any character or any sense or any knowledge, it is altogether probable that there are among them numerous unctuous rascals for whom "Pom," which is another of his names, could make it very trying. He has made a beginning with the judge before whom his case was called. Yesterday week he offered an affidavit to the effect that as soon as the transaction between him and Mr. York in reference to the national bank got wind in the streets, this judge said to a friend, at the same time grasping him firmly by the hand, "Now we've got the — — old scoundrel where we want him." This was undoubtedly the popular sentiment in Topeka at the time; but the judge denies that he shared it, or so much as allowed himself to form an opinion.

The Postal-Car question has again come to the surface, Mr. Isaac Hinckley, President of the Philadelphia, Wilmington & Baltimore Railroad, announcing his intention to refuse to take the mails except at increased rates, and the Department threatening to get some other road to undertake the work if Mr. Hinckley persists, the ground of their refusal being that the existing law does not authorize any increase of rates. Matters have not yet shown any sign of proceeding to extremities, Mr. Hinckley being of opinion that a notice given by him of his refusal to go on except at higher rates will bind the Department in some way, should they persist in delivering the mails to his road for carriage. The railroads are in the right on the merits of the postal-car question, for there is no doubt that the introduction of the postal-car system, with all the expense of carrying additional cars, filled, not with freight, but mainly with civil servants of the Government travelling free, entitles the roads to much more compensation than they do actually receive. The manner in which Congress has dealt with the question is a curiosity in the way of legislation on a matter of such importance. In 1872, they passed an act increasing the compensation of roads maintaining postal-cars to an extent of fifty per cent.; they then adjourned without making any appropriation to meet the increased rates. In 1873, they repealed the act by passing another on a totally different principle, the result being very unsatisfactory to the roads, and about the same time referred the whole subject to the Senate Transportation Committee, which apparently has not yet found time to look at it.

We have received from a Germantown correspondent a letter in which he comments upon the *Herald* correspondent's recently published theory about the child Ross, kidnapped, as is supposed, some weeks since in Philadelphia. The theory was not dissimilar in its general character to those which often appear a little while after a crime has been committed, and when the police has had time to show that it is at a loss and baffled. On this occasion the theory was that the father of the boy procured his abduction, intending to work on the feelings of friends and relatives so far as to extort from them a large sum of money, ostensibly for purposes of ransom but really for business uses. One of the alleged fact upon which he based this view was, that at the time of t kidnapping the child's mother showed so little maternal feeling to be away for days enjoying herself at a watering-place. To t story, as thus composed, we last week made a reference in "T Week," affirming neither belief nor disbelief in it, but mention

it as one of the few things certain which had appeared on a subject so dark as to puzzle everybody. Our paragraph, however, might have been construed as bearing hard on the parents. We are glad to say that, from accounts given us, any such construction would be a great mistake and, we need not say, a cruel one. As regards the correspondent's "fact" of the watering-place visit, we are assured that the only foundation for it was that Mrs. Ross at the time of the abduction was lying so ill at the seaside that the bad news could not be broken to her, nor could she for some days be moved to her home. We are assured, too, from more than one source, that nobody acquainted with the character of Mr. Ross could entertain the least suspicion of his integrity in this matter. Altogether, this newspaper correspondent would seem to be a gentleman who needs at once the services of the provost-marshal of the *Herald* establishment.

Another week of the Brooklyn investigation has ended without bringing it to a termination, the point principally to be noted being that Mr. Beecher still delays his explanation of his letters. He and his advisers wait, it is said, for the testimony of Mr. F. D. Moulton to be given; they wish to see the whole of the accuser's case, and see what it is that they have to meet before they begin to meet it. But, as we have elsewhere pointed out, the procedure before a tribunal of this kind is not like the procedure before a court of law, and though an almost incredible deal of confusion, contradiction, manifest folly of speech, prevarication, and open falsehood have been thrown about the case at this as at every other stage, there is a general conviction that the delay is unfortunate for Mr. Beecher—and this because the tactics of the defence suggest rather the astuteness of an attorney in the confidence of Jay Gould than the open frankness of an accused and insulted man, whose accuser has fitted to one transaction letters which, as the accused should be eager to show and has publicly declared, are perfectly explicable as fitted to another and totally different transaction. This exculpatory explanation, as the public is inclined to think, it was possible to make at once, and best to make with all speed, without waiting to hear what might be said by Mr. Moulton or any one else, and without taking too much counsel of shifty lawyers. As things now look, the investigation is to result in no conclusive verdict. Mr. Tilton, for his last contribution to the disturbance, has sent a letter to the committee in which he expresses his respect for the individual members of it, but avows entire want of confidence in its powers and its impartiality as a body. He seems to threaten, though he does not actually do so, to take the matter into the courts; refuses to produce the originals of the letters on which he relies in his "statement"; says, however, that he once offered to read them to the committee, or to turn them over to Mr. Winslow, a member of it; charges malice and false reporting on certain persons unnamed; and, finally, makes known his intention to have no more to do with the Monroe-Street tribunal. A worse muddled affair, and one with more of the look of having been subjected to a deal of deliberate muddling, it would be hard to find. It has, moreover, from its beginning, been the dear concern of one of the most wonderful sets of scatterbrains, chatterers, and representatives generally of what we may call chromo-civilization, that any country in any time has had to show. The *dramatis personæ* make a list both amazing and sickening. But, happily, this will be the final end of many of them.

The French Assembly adjourns to-day till the 30th of November. This decision was reached on Friday, after a previous rejection of M. de Malleville's motion for a dissolution, by a vote of 374 nays to 332 yeas; and after a speech from Gambetta against the recess. A motion to raise the state of siege was also disposed of by the decisive negative of 366 to 282. The committee chosen to stand for the Assembly during the recess contains not a single Bonapartist; six Legitimists are united with ten from the Moderate Centre and Right Centre, and nine from the Left. A violent scene occurred in the Chamber on Sunday, when a Bonapartist delegate declared that the Republic had succumbed before the scorn of honest men. This brought him the lie from the veteran Republican Victor Schoelcher, and the usual tumult ensued, ending in the break-up of the session. One would have supposed that a brief allusion to the mode in which the Empire had succumbed would have been effectual as a retort; but the Assembly took to brandishing its canes, and the threats of duels and personal encounters were ardent and numerous.

The interest in Spanish affairs during the week has centred in the apparent effort of Germany to interfere effectively against a prolongation of the Carlist warfare. The immediate pretext for this action is the reported shooting of one or two German citizens by the Carlists, which leads the German Government to order a squadron into Spanish waters; and a similar motive, or a general understanding between the powers, has determined the sending of the British Mediterranean squadron from Malta to Barcelona, and an Italian frigate to the north coast. Spain and Germany together have called the French Government's attention to the open connivance of its southern provinces with the Carlists; and the wife of Don Carlos is said in consequence to have been obliged to quit Pau. Recognition of the Spanish Republic seems imminent. Austria is pronounced favorable to it, but France will bear more urging. A very gloomy view of the situation in Spain is taken by its ex-king, Amadeo, if an Italian interviewer is to be trusted. Party strife in that country, he said, failed to find a common object in the unity of the country. What frightened him off the throne was "the criminal disunion among the famous saviours of Spain," and the threat of a pronunciamiento with which the generals accompanied every decree and every discussion of their demands. Without foreign intervention, he believed Spain would in two years either become Carlist or be in the power of the Carlists, and intervention would only embitter the struggle.

But little headway has been made by the Brussels Congress, which was at last accounts still busied with preparing its programme. A majority of the members, it is said, are opposed to meddling at all with questions relating to naval warfare, preferring to confine their attention strictly to the mitigation of human suffering in war. This is not only a very proper conclusion if the formal assent of Great Britain to the results of the Congress is desired, as of course it is, but it is also a practical confession of the natural limitations of an international code at the present time. As an Italian journal well points out, the seventy articles proposed for the consideration of the Congress mostly embody regulations which have been already approved and adopted by civilized nations, so that there is really very little difference between the holding of certain abstract sentiments about humanity in war and the common application of them in actual hostilities. On the other hand, says the *Perseveranza*, it is to be feared that these humane considerations, when reduced to obligatory formulas, may tend to make war a still more costly sacrifice than it now is, by impairing the inventiveness whose object and effect is really to shorten war, by enabling combatants to concentrate the greatest possible force of every kind in the least possible time. The proposition, too, that the enemy occupying an invaded territory shall be regarded by the inhabitants as the *de facto* government, assuming at once its authority, functions, and resources, and demanding of right to be respected as was the displaced government, is both repugnant to the spirit of patriotism and impossible to put into execution. Moreover, it rests upon a singularly antiquated assumption, viz., that all wars are, and of necessity must be, purely political, and therefore extraneous to the respective peoples concerned. Nobody can deny that these are weighty objections, and it remains to be seen whether the world is any more ready for a Universal Alliance than it was for a Holy Alliance in the days of Madame Krüdener and the First Alexander.

THE NATIONAL SCHOOLING IN INFLATION.

IT becomes gradually evident that the final battle against inflation has not yet been fought. We would not have any one undervalue the veto of the President; on the contrary, we recognize the fact that it exercised in many ways a salutary effect. It rebuffed the political treachery of Congressmen elected by a party pledge to resumption, who, without any expression of a changed sentiment in the public mind, went over to inflation without even a decent pretext. It let loose for the moment the tongue of the quiet and moral part of the community, and showed that there is a much wider and stronger feeling in favor of maintaining the financial faith of the Government than had been supposed. It also gave to the business intelligence of the people a breathing time in which to recover from the unexpected ambuscade of Congress, and to look about for men in whom they can really trust. Finally, it called out, at home and abroad, some very clear and strong expressions of condemnation of the action of Congress, and illustrations of the disastrous effects of the inflation scheme, which must have done a great deal to instruct a large variety of persons who had not taken the trouble to think much upon the subject.

Nevertheless, there are in this country, as in every other, a great number of people who are not prepared to be convinced against their will. Their will, moreover, depends upon their interests, real or supposed, and they prefer a temporary personal interest to a permanent general one. The number of persons in a community ready to borrow is always larger than the number ready to lend. In this country, the proportion of persons wishing to borrow money far exceeds that of any other country in the world—not because we have a larger proportion of Jeremy Diddlers here, but because we have an immense number of persons of an ingenious, speculative, and energetic turn of mind teeming with schemes for the rapid acquirement of wealth, and also an immense number of persons possessed of encumbered or unproductive property, who find themselves in a cramped or embarrassed financial condition; and, again, a considerable horde of State, county, and city officials, directly or indirectly interested in public loans, and eager "at this particular time" to have money made easy. In the West and South these persons abound, and the West and South also are rich in "undeveloped resources." Hence, the West and South are borrowers, and never more importunate borrowers than at the present time. The term "debtor class" we have heretofore shown to be fallacious; but there is such a thing as a borrowing class, and in no country is the borrowing class so large or so active as in this. The persons who compose this class in this country are also just the persons who would naturally have a hand in our abused and degraded system of politics. In numerical strength they do not compare with the industrial, producing, and accumulating classes, but they nevertheless possess a certain political momentum, which when it strikes the small politician in or out of Congress drives him a great way out of his prescribed course. Inflation, to their minds, is an ingenious, roundabout way for the Government to borrow money at an enormous sacrifice and lend it to them without interest. More strictly speaking, they design that every other man's honestly-acquired dollar shall be clipped, in the expectation that they will come into possession of some of the clippings. A philosopher, studying the peculiar social conditions of the West and South—the restless, unscrupulous, speculative elements of the one; the ignorant, demoralized, impoverished elements of the other—coupled with the debased character of our political machinery, might have predicted the precise condition of affairs that now exists.

Furthermore, the financial history of the last thirteen years shows that we have been unconsciously educating, as it were, the uneducated mind of the country to believe in inflation. The issuance of paper money was in effect nothing more than an unlimited method of borrowing at a more ruinous rate of interest than any government ever before paid for a loan. It is always easier to borrow than to pay, and a spendthrift when he has effected a loan always considers himself richer and not poorer, and regards the times as good. The ordinary observer saw that paper money was borrowing made easy, but did not see the enormous "shave" which the Government paid for the loan. He also soon discovered, if his farm was mortgaged, that he could sell a dollar's worth of grain for two nominal dollars, and then pay off his mortgage at precisely fifty cents on the dollar. In hard-money times he was in debt, but when paper money had sent gold up to 200 he got out of debt. Therefore inflation was a very good thing for him. The singular and significant fact in connection with it was that the lenders throughout the country acquiesced in this way of paying debts, and taught borrowers that inflation was a method whereby half of a debt could be made to discharge the whole. The easy, good-natured proclivity of the American mind in such circumstances is to take what it can get and avoid litigation; and there was then a fervent patriotic sentiment in the community, which prompted men to uphold the Government by taking its paper as money, and attaching to this paper a value and a character which very few men believed at heart that it really possessed. If there had been generally the tenacious "standing up for one's rights" that so arbitrary a measure when applied retroactively would have invoked in ordinary times; if men had sturdily maintained that the legal-tender act could not do away with existing obligations, and that Congress had no power to confiscate a part of their property and pay it away as a part of the discount for a national loan, we may be sure that the first legal-tender decision would have been well-nigh unanimous, and that the second would never have come against the decided moral sense of the community. But the troubled era of the rebellion was no time for "standing up for one's rights," and nearly all men preferred that values should be temporarily unsettled, and individual losses sustained, rather than that the slightest additional embarrassment should be cast upon the Government. Nevertheless, the financial instruction of the hour was, that through the medium of Government paper fifty cents could be made to pay off a dollar's indebtedness.

So long as there was what might be termed a falling paper market—*i.e.*, so long as gold kept rising—this process for paying debts grew easier and easier. It was easier to pay seventy-five cents on the dollar than one hundred; it was easier to pay fifty than seventy-five; it was still easier to pay forty. If Government paper had gone on becoming plenteous and cheap until it reached the cheapness of Confederate "graybacks," paying one's debts would have been a trivial amusement instead of what it always had been, the chief concern and burden of a business life. But when the long lane turned, and paper began to rise in the market and approximate to the value of gold, then the old-time difficulties of borrowing and paying began to return. As fresh dilutions of paper during the war had made paying an easy task, it was natural for men after the war to infer that fresh dilutions would make it easy again. The nation, too—that is to say, the community as a whole—had stopped its easy-going course of borrowing and spending, and was engaged in the disagreeable, grinding task of retrenching and paying. Of course, this operation could not go on without affecting more or less everybody in the community, and necessarily affecting them disagreeably. Of course, such a period was just the time for the political demagogue to come upon the stage, and inform everybody that through the ingenious invention of paper-money we could go on *ad infinitum* borrowing and never paying. The story of the man who gave his note and then thanked heaven that that debt was paid, our Butlers and Mortons have been repeating in sober earnest, assuring people that it is only necessary that the notes be given by the community collectively, and not by its individual members, and then the debts will be paid, and we can continue to give as many more notes as we please. It may be doubted whether there is anybody who really does believe this nonsense, but the course pursued by our business community from the first has been such that every national borrowing has redounded to the immediate advantage of every individual borrower, and there are men enough who perceive that and are ready enough to seize upon any such temporary advantage.

Now, what has been the course pursued by the business community—that is, by the men who have had money to lend or credits to give? With the floods of Government paper during the war, money was plentiful—that is, paper was cheap; and the ease with which it was acquired made men careless as to the manner in which they invested it. Accordingly, the West, which is always a borrower, was not slow to perceive that loans could be readily procured to carry on its speculative enterprises. It was also clearly enough perceived that fresh dilutions would make it all the easier to repay the nominal amount borrowed. So far as the hand-to-hand transactions of daily life were involved, the fluctuations of paper were comparatively unimportant; but when it came to "time transactions," where the rise or fall of paper might exceed all reasonable calculation, business probity required that the real value of the thing loaned should be definitely settled and mutually understood. Instead of this, the lender as a rule speculated upon the chances of paper approximating to gold before the debt should mature, and the borrower speculated upon the chances, first, that he would make a great deal of money out of his venture, and, second, that if he did not, inflation would come along and tide him over the bar of payment. He was thus educated to be an inflationist, and a hundred other men looking on at the same time were taught the same lesson.

It is also a noticeable fact that what gold-bearing obligations there are in the community singularly lead to the same result. The gold-paying debtors here are the Government and a few corporations. Any ordinary man holding $10,000 of such securities cannot help hoping in his inmost soul that when his coupons become payable, gold will happen to be up. His baker's and butcher's and grocer's bills do not fluctuate with the price of gold, and sometimes when his gold coupons have brought him the fewest greenbacks he finds that beef and coffee are higher than they were before. Thus we have insensibly arranged everything so as to make ourselves inflationists against the conscious dictates of our common-sense. It is preached with vigor that our future prosperity requires that we should retrench, and stop borrowing, and redeem our national promises to pay; but practically it is added, for the benefit of enterprising borrowers, that they may vote themselves loans if they choose, and may again vote how little they will pay upon them when they become due.

ONE OF THE INDIAN OUTBREAKS.

THERE are at this time two sets of serious Indian disturbances in the West, each of which may develop into a formidable war. One centres in the expedition that General Custer is leading into the Black Hills; the other extends over the region watered by the tributaries of the Arkansas and Red Rivers. It is with the latter that we are now particularly concerned.

The Indian country lying east of the Rocky Mountains and south of the Platte River was formerly, in a general way, under the control of the Arapahoes, Cheyennes, Kiowas, and Comanches. Inheritance or force had given those plains into their possession, and they held them against all comers, until they were forced upon reservations where they are detained by treaties, generally signed under the yoke, whose observance, on their part, is secured by the pressure of military propinquity. There are none of them grown to manhood who do not recall to mind the time when they could move without hindrance, save as they feared their savage fellow-rovers, over the whole expanse between the Rio Grande and the Missouri. To be confined to reservations, however spacious we may consider them, is galling to men whose former life was as uncontrolled as that of the beasts of the chase; and it is not to be supposed that they acquiesced in this arrangement from a sense of justice, or that they love the new régime presided over by their conquerors. A few of the elders who have acquired all the fame that the war-path can give, and who now, by the accumulation of ponies, are gaining that sort of power that wealth always bestows, may counsel peace; but the very reputation that gives weight to their advice is also an incentive to ambitious warriors to emulate their prowess. Such, for instance, is Little Raven of the Arapahoes. He is a conservative whose influence for some years has been for peace with the whites. But he possesses the influence because of his record as a warrior and of his present pastoral possessions. Ambition, therefore, is a constant spur to the younger men, and they chafe under restraint.

To the mass of the reserve Indians, subsistence without labor and the fear of punishment must be for many years the effective restraining influence. That they are susceptible of elevation, chiefly through their youth, the history of the Choctaws, Cherokees, Creeks, and Seminoles abundantly shows; but the active men of the lately roving tribes cannot be transformed at once, if ever, into tillers of the soil nor into herdsmen. The reward that steady industry offers has no charm for them. They have no present desire for such a life, and they will only see its advantages, if at all, after long years of careful training. On the other hand, they are savages, and they delight in the pleasures of savages. Civilized men admit the fascination that belongs to war and the chase—kindred pursuits; to savages they are the *summa bona* of existence. But beyond war for its own sake, revenge, which to the uncivilized man comprehends and is synonymous with both justice and honor, constantly appeals for gratification. Christianity and law are gradually introducing among some of us a different standard of action, but "an eye for an eye" is the demand that simple self-preservation insists upon. Wherever Christianity is not in force, vengeance or punishment, under what guise we choose, must be admitted or there is a direct invitation to extermination. Revenge is not dishonorable with the savage any more than it was with the ancients, nor should it be so regarded in the absence of Christian teaching. It is an application of justice that he directly appreciates and is swift to employ. As the superior, we should be slow to provoke him, and be prompt to inflict condign punishment when deserved; for the average savage looks upon forgiveness without a penalty as cowardice. Added to these considerations, we have the principle that successful robbery from an alien is meritorious; exactly as our ancestry of the North Sea, the marches of Scotland, and the heights of the Rhine believed and practised.

These fundamental facts must always be borne in mind when discussing the Indian question. They create a persistent and powerful *vis a tergo* impelling the Indian to what we call lawlessness. Upon our part we should guard against the outbreak by the most scrupulous justice in removing all excuse or temptation, and by the constant exhibition of power to inspire respect. When this is done, the active moral agencies may be employed with happy results. But, as among the poor of our cities, good works must sustain the suffering before good words will be heeded. Unfortunately the experience of these tribes is no exception to the general rule that has characterized our Indian policy. A single example from those stamped upon their memories will illustrate the degree of affectionate regard in which they may hold us.

In 1864, a very large number of friendly Cheyennes came in to the neighborhood of Fort Lyon by the invitation of the proper authorities, and were subsisted by them for some time with the ostensible purpose of distinguishing them from hostile Indians, and of affording them the protection of the United States flag. After several months a large number of their able-bodied men were sent out for buffalo, and in their absence Colonel Chivington, of the Colorado Volunteers, who was perfectly aware of the relation which these people sustained to the Government, with about a thousand cavalry suddenly attacked the village, two-thirds of whose population were women and children, destroyed it and massacred the community. They were slaughtered without regard to age or sex. He reported, "It may, perhaps, be unnecessary for me to state that I captured no prisoners. Between five and six hundred Indians were left dead upon the field." More than this, their bodies were mutilated with shocking barbarity. Comment cannot magnify the horror. This man has never been punished, because the crime was regarded as a "military" offence, and his term of service having expired shortly afterward he was considered beyond jurisdiction. And to

this day numerous frontiersmen are to be found, men of influence as well as of the baser sort, who hold Chivington's treachery as an exploit to be emulated. This is, unfortunately, only a natural outgrowth of the sentiments held by many of the settlers on the border. They look upon the Indians as absolutely without rights, and they are only restrained by the fear of retaliation from acting upon this theory. As a consequence, many of the outrages upon the red men never appear in print, or, if they do, they are held up for imitation; while the atrocities of which white men are the victims are dwelt upon and magnified. Border public opinion, therefore, is generally in a receptive state when anything to the disadvantage of the lower race is concerned.

And, indeed, when we abandon justice, and especially charity, there is very little that draws us to the Indians. They are savages; and that means half-clad wretches who are dirty, lazy, repulsive beggars, who will steal on slight provocation, who have few virtues and many vices, and who are fearful as enemies. When at war they are diabolical. And yet they are not really devils, but are simply a low grade of heathen men. It is obvious, therefore, that for their own protection, as well as for that of the whites, they must be limited to certain bounds, and that these must be kept inviolate and the treaty obligations be strictly observed. But as the reservations are generally well selected, they excite the cupidity of some and the jealousy of others, who are not slow to make such encroachments as a lax civil power winks at. Whiskey-traders will enter them, or will skirt their borders, dealing out a poison whose immediate effect upon the Indian is to make him a furious maniac. Temporary squatters cut timber or trap, if they think they have any chance of escape. Horse-thieves infest them in gangs, alternately provoking the Indians to anger and tempting them to crime. It is difficult merely to outline their various wrongs. One of the old and just Indian grievances, one of their excuses for their early assaults upon travellers on the Santa Fé trail and the Platte route, was the unnecessary killing of buffalo. The protection of the buffalo and the utilization of the entire carcass when slain is a strong point in their character, and its wanton destruction excites great indignation. With the spread of settlements the grazing limits have yearly grown less, and now that railroads penetrate the heart of the range very many thousands of these animals are annually slaughtered, both in and out of season, with no intention or possibility on the hunters' part of taking a tenth part of each. Some shoot them for their tongues, some for their hides (not for robes, but as a heavy leather). Some actually cut the shaggy hair to mix fraudulently with coarse Mexican wool; some ship the hind-quarters East for food. In certain localities the dead may be seen as thick as horses on a battle-field, polluting the pure air with a horrible stench. It is understood that in the last treaty with the tribes before mentioned, it was provided that buffalo should not be hunted by the whites in the country south of the Arkansas. If this article exists (and they believe that it does), the whites no more regard it than do the buffaloes themselves respect the parallels of latitude. The hunters are ubiquitous, and the herds are fast being destroyed. Indeed, systematic extermination of this animal is seriously advocated by many as the speediest solution of the Indian problem, on the ground that when they are gone the Indians must starve or become perfectly docile. Meanwhile this flagrant violation of their treaty rights excites their bitter anger, and last year they sent direct messages that if their cattle (the buffalo) were thus hunted they would compensate themselves among the white men's herds, which are now so extensive and valuable on the upper Arkansas.

The matter of treaty-making is another of the difficult features of the problem. The tribal organization approaches a pure democracy. The authority of the chiefs is mainly one of influence. Any man who has the ability may lead a band, and it will increase or lessen with his varying fortunes. And as individuals adhere or recede at pleasure, it results that they will, in a great degree, follow their inclination in more grave matters. We have an illustration at this time in the very tribes that are our theme. The latest advices say that some of their young men are on the war-path, but that the principal chiefs are peaceful. But if one or more of these bands are successful the tide may swell until it sweeps away the tribe. To control these younger men is of the utmost importance and of the utmost difficulty. During the six years that have passed since they have been at war as a community, a large number of youths have grown fit for the field. Their entire education, moral and physical, has taught them to revere the successful warrior; and when these warriors counsel peace, they strip off their own decorations and their only titles to respect. Ignorant of the vast power of the country, they measure it by the few troops or the occasional herdsman that they see, and boldly enter the only road to pelf and place that is open. When their chiefs come back from Washington, the witchery that they seem to have undergone is explained by the "bad medicine" of the whites, and they are perfectly sceptical of the strength of a nation whose warriors, scattered in little bands, they can count upon their fingers. And they are the more ready to infringe a treaty from feeling that day by day it is violated by the other party.

But, after all, it is perhaps not too much to say that notwithstanding the predatory instincts of the younger men, many of the general Indian wars are directly incited by designing white men. The concentration of troops and the purchase and transportation of supplies involve the expenditure of so much money that it is often a matter of great financial importance to the community in which it can be made to occur. It is difficult, perhaps impossible, positively to prove such crimes, and to connect together cause and effect, but unprejudiced observers often believe it true. It is beyond doubt that highly exaggerated and often purely fictitious reports of outrages are transmitted with sinister design, while, as before remarked, the other side of the picture is kept veiled. We are not attempting to conceal the wrongs which the Indians commit. They sin as well as are sinned against. To appropriate personal property, especially when a degree of glory attaches to the act, to raid into Texas, which from the earliest Spanish times appears to have been looked upon as a legitimate field for forage, are constant temptations to which they often yield. And when they once fairly go to war, they are such frightful barbarians, they commit such fiendish outrages—outrages that cannot be decently spoken of—upon men and women and children, that the heart becomes steeled, and nothing short of extermination seems endurable. It is then that every one who has personal knowledge of their deviltries agrees to the *mot* that "the good Indians are dead Indians," and it is because they have thus suffered in their families or in their ancestry that we often find such implacable hatred towards them in men otherwise of good repute.

If the sparks of war that already exist are fanned into a flame, it will burn over a region about equal in extent to the four Middle States. To guard this tract, and to drive the enemy to and keep them on their reservation, there are about two thousand soldiers, of whom perhaps fifteen hundred (one-half being mounted) are available for active operations. The guerilla tactics of the savage practically neutralize many times their own numbers. We have referred only to those tribes south of the Arkansas, and have taken no account of the fierce and numerous Sioux of the North. But besides the Cheyennes and Arapahoes in the Indian Territory, there are considerable detachments from each of these in Wyoming living in close relations with the Sioux, but in frequent communication with their Southern kinsmen. It is not impossible that these may be the links to unite both groups of Indians in a general war, should decided hostilities occur at either end of the chain.

EVIDENCE ABOUT CHARACTER.

THERE has been during the week a loud and increasing demand for the application of the legal process of discovering truth to the Tilton-Beecher case. People ask that it be carried into court, not only because all witnesses might thus be compelled to appear and testify, but because appa-

rently there is, in the minds of many, a peculiar virtue in "the rules of evidence" used by lawyers. Witnesses examined under these rules are supposed to receive from them a strong stimulus to veracity and explicitness, while they at once expose prevarication or concealment. One newspaper eulogist went so far the other day as to pronounce the rules the product of the wisdom of all ages, beginning with the Phœnicians and coming down to our own time. There is, however, only one good reason that we know of for carrying the Beecher case or any similar case into court, and that is the obvious one, that the courts only can compel those who are supposed to know anything about a matter in litigation to appear and state it. If the case were transferred to the City Hall, therefore, we should undoubtedy have a far finer treat, from the prurient and sensational point of view, than we are likely to get from the Brooklyn committee or any other extra-judicial body. All the scandal-mongers—both the effusive, fussy kind, who now furnish hints and nods and winks of "confessions" and "statements" to the reporters; and the sly kind, who retire to their "country seats" and keep dark—would, if they could be caught within the State, be furnished with an opportunity of producing in a conspicuous way a great deal of dirty gossip. But we do not know of any other advantage which can be claimed for a trial in court, in a case like that now pending, over a trial before a well-selected lay tribunal. We had reason to point out once before, under somewhat similar circumstances, that "the rules of evidence" in use in our courts are not, as too many persons seem to suppose, deductions from the constitution of the human mind, or, in other words, natural rules for the discovery of truth under all conditions. On the contrary, they are a system of artificial presumptions created for the use of a tribunal of a somewhat low order of intelligence, and are intended to produce certain well-defined and limited results, which the law considers generally beneficial. They have, that is to say, grown up for the use of the jury. The large number of exclusions which they contain are due simply to a desire to prevent the jury's being confused by kinds of testimony which they are not supposed to have learning or acumen enough to weigh. If any one will go into the City Hall and listen to the trial of even a trifling cause, he will find that the proceedings consist largely in the attempts of one lawyer to have certain facts laid before the jury and the attempts of the other to prevent it, the judge sitting as arbiter between them and applying the rules of admission and exclusion to each of these facts as it comes up. If he examines, too, in each instance what it is that is thus pertinaciously offered and pertinaciously opposed, he will find that it almost invariably has *something* to do with the controversy before the court—it may be near or more remote—but still something. Consequently it has, logically, a certain bearing on the case, or is, under the constitution of the human mind, proper evidence. When the judge says it is irrelevant, he does not mean that it is logically irrelevant; he means simply that it has been declared irrelevant on certain grounds of expediency by the system of jurisprudence which he administers. He refuses to let it go to the jury because he thinks it would befog them or turn their attention away from the "legal issue," or, in other words, from the one little point on which the law compels the plaintiff and defendant to concentrate their dispute, in order to render it triable at all by the peculiar tribunal which the Anglo-Saxon race has chosen for the protection of its rights.

It follows that our rules of evidence are unknown on the European continent and in every country in which courts are composed of judges only—that is, of men with special training and capacity for the work of weighing testimony—or in which the legal customs have been created by such courts. There the litigants follow the natural order, and carry with them before the bench everything that has any relation to the case whatever, and leave the court to examine it and allow it its proper force. Our own changes in the law of evidence are all in this direction. The amount of excluded testimony—that is, of testimony which we are afraid to trust the jury with—has been greatly diminished during the last few years, and, considering the growth of popular intelligence, properly diminished. The tendency of legislation now is towards letting the jury hear everybody—the plaintiff and defendant, the prisoner, the wife, the husband, and the witness with a pecuniary interest in the result of the trial—and put its own estimate on what the testimony amounts to. But nevertheless, even now, who is there that has ever watched the preparation of a cause for trial who has not listened to lamentations over the difficulty or impossibility of getting this or that important fact before the jury? or has not witnessed elaborate precautions, on one side or another, to prevent some fact from getting before the jury? The skill of a counsel in examining or cross-examining a witness, for instance, is shown almost as much by what he avoids bringing out as by what he brings out, and no witness is allowed to volunteer any statement, lest he should tell something which, however pertinent in reality, the rules pronounce inadmissible.

Now, rules of this kind are singularly unsuited to the conduct of enquiries touching character. It is true the law provides a process nominally for the vindication of character, called an action for libel, but the remedy it supplies is not a vindication properly so called, but a sum of money as a kind of penalty on the libeller, not for having assailed you, but for not having been able to prove his case under the rules of evidence. In a suit for libel, too, the parties fight their battle in the strict legal order—the plaintiff, that is to say, stands by and challenges the defendant to produce his proofs, and then fights bitterly through his counsel to keep as much of the proof out as he can. He supplies no evidence himself that is not strictly called for, and proffers no explanation that does not seem necessary to procure an award of pecuniary damages, and takes all the pains possible to bring confusing influences to bear on the jury. When we consider, too, that the jury is composed of men who may be said to be literally called in from the street, without the slightest regard to their special qualifications for the conduct of any enquiry, and that they are apt to represent popular passions and prejudices in all conspicuous and exciting cases, we easily see why a trial by a jury, under the common-law rules of evidence, is not the process through which a high-minded man, who sought not for "damages," but to keep his reputation absolutely spotless in the estimation of his neighbors, would naturally seek his vindication.

It cannot be too often said, in these times when great reputations are so often assailed and so often perish, that nobody who has not deliberately chosen the life of a stoical recluse is justified either in refusing to defend his reputation, or in defending it by technical processes if any others are within his reach. It is, of course, open to any man to say that he cares nothing for the opinion of mankind, and will not take the trouble to influence it in any manner in regard to himself. But, if he says so, he is bound not to identify with himself, in any manner, either great interests or great causes. If he makes himself the champion of other people's rights, or the exponent of important principles, or has through any power of his achieved an influence over other people's minds sufficiently great to make it appear that certain doctrines or ideas must stand or fall by him, he has surrendered his freedom in all that regards the maintenance of his fame. It is no longer his only to maintain. It has become, as it were, embodied in popular morality, been made the basis of popular hopes, and a test under which popular faith or approval is bestowed on a great variety of ways and means of living. Such a man is bound to defend himself from the instant at which he finds the assaults on him begin to tell on the public conception of his character. Dignified reserve is a luxury in which it is not permitted to him to indulge; and when he comes to defend himself, it must not be with the calculating shrewdness of the strategist or tactician. The only rules of evidence of which he can claim the benefit are the laws of the human mind. The tribunal, too, before which he seeks reparation should be not what the state supplies only, but the very best he can reach, and it should, if possible, be composed of men with no motive for saving him and with no reason for hating him, and with such training and experience as may best fit them for the task of weighing his enemy's charges and his own excuses and explanations. His course before such a tribunal, too, should be marked by ardor rather than by prudence. He should chafe under delay, clamor for investigation and invite scrutiny, and put away from him all advisers whose experience is likely to incline them to chicane or make them satisfied with a technical victory. Such men are always dangerous in delicate cases. He should not wait for his accuser to get in all his case if the substantial part of it is already before the court; because his answer ought not, as in a court of law, to cover the complaint simply and no more. It ought to contain a plain, unvarnished tale of the whole transaction, and not those parts only which the accusation may have touched, because his object is not only to wrest a verdict of "not proven" from his judges, but to satisfy even the timid and sensitive souls whose faith in their idols is so large a part of their moral life, not only that he is not guilty, but that he never even inclined towards guilt.

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE REBELLION.

PARIS, July 17.

WHEN the Comte de Paris was still in exile, he inhabited a house at Twickenham called York House, which is one of the simplest of the cluster of mansions on the banks of the Thames. I spent many hours in his library, which was full of modern books, and I noticed that an immense space had been allotted to all the documents on America—maps, official reports, surveys, etc. Any book which appeared on America (I do not speak of that *America vetustissima* which is only cultivated by bibliophilists, but of modern America) was sure to find its way to the shelves of this library, and, what is more, to obtain a good binding. The Comte de

Paris, who had much leisure and who is naturally of a serious and laborious disposition, had undertaken a great work. He had been a soldier in the army of the North, and had played a very creditable part in the unfortunate campaign of the Virginian Peninsula. He had followed day after day from Europe, after his return to England, the movement of the armies in which he had left many friends, and which had been organized under his eyes. He received from all sides very valuable documents, sometimes original notes and letters; he resolved to write a comprehensive history of the Civil War in America. The task was truly difficult; and I shall astonish many of your readers if I tell them that the Comte de Paris now thinks that his work cannot be well completed if he does not write nine volumes in octavo; he had hoped at first to be able to do it in seven volumes.

Modern wars cannot be written like the campaigns of the ancients. Think of how much Cæsar has condensed in that immortal volume of 'Commentaries,' which occupies so little place in the library; and Cæsar even finds the time to report the speeches which he makes to the Gallic chieftains, and their answers. But you must reflect that, after all, there was so much difference between the legions of Cæsar and the unruly armies of the Gauls, that the result was a mere question of time and patience. Cæsar wrote for the Romans, and the Romans cared little for the history of the factions of the Gauls; it was enough for them to know th t their armies were triumphant, that their legions moved freely over large territories, over unknown rivers and mountains, to the shores of unknown seas. The world has somewhat contracted since, though new continents have been discovered. We know something of every part of the world: *humani nil a me alienum puto*. We are also more analytical; the cultivation of science has become so general that we are no longer satisfied with history when it is not somewhat scientific—that is to say, when it does not show us the reasons and the development of events. We do not sit down before history as we should before a drama; we step on the stage, go behind the curtain, see the rehearsal, talk to the actors. Take, for instance, the 'History of the Crimean War' by Kinglake, and see how much space is assigned to the history of the causes of the war, to the minute analysis of the character of his principal personages. The battle of the Alma might be told in half a page; it occupies a whole chapter.

If I am not mistaken, history can only be made concise when its elements are already perfectly known. Hundreds of volumes have been written, for instance, on the campaigns of the First Napoleon; each of these volumes, let us suppose, brought out some new fact, some new document. New information cannot be conveyed in a short space, it must be exact, it must be complete, and therefore it cannot be abridged. The pioneers of history, if I may use the word, cannot well spare their work; it is only when by their efforts the truth is perfectly known, when all doubts are removed, that some great historian can come and separate from the collected information what is most important and write some concise work, which becomes classical.

There are very few, on the whole, of such classical histories; we must not speak of the ancients, as in their case we are too happy to preserve anything which has been respected by time; but can Voltaire's 'History of the Age of Louis XIV.' be considered as the *dernier mot* of the history of that age? Hardly so; a very remarkable work it is, but far from perfect. Macaulay's 'History of England' approaches perfection in some parts, in others it is very feeble. I am convinced that the historical works of M. Thiers will be completely neglected in a few years, especially the part in which M. Thiers probably takes the most pride—I mean the account of Napoleon's campaigns. There is more to be learned in a few pages of Jomini than in all M. Thiers's fantastic descriptions of battles.

The Comte de Paris has attempted to give a complete picture of the United States during the war of secession, but from the first two volumes of his work which have just appeared, and which have been very favorably received, it is evident that the history of the military events will have the principal place in this elaborate picture. The first volume opens with a very complete history of the American army. It is certainly one of the most singular anomalies that the American people, being essentially pacific, should have the best military school in the world, or one which can compete successfully with the best, such as the Polytechnic at Paris. It was a happy idea, in the circumstances in which America was placed, to make, so to speak, an army of good officers, to form the *cadre* without filling it. The *regulars* of West Point receive at first the most complete scientific education which can be given; I have myself examined the programmes and the text-books at West Point, and it seems to me that they leave nothing to be desired. The practical difficulties with which the officers have immediately to contend as soon as they leave the military school, the responsibility which is often thrown on them, the extraordinary life which many have to lead, all tend to give them new qualities, and to form a body of men skilled in every one of the sciences which constitute the art of war. This was well seen in your Mexican war, which was, speaking purely from the military point of view, a sort of miracle of daring, of sagacity, of skill. Can anything be more wonderful than the campaign of a small army which never numbered 14,000 men, and which was able to go from Vera Cruz to Mexico?

The Comte de Paris tells in a most graphic manner the history of this Mexican war, and makes his readers familiar with the names which were to become so famous during the war of secession. General Scott was the first master of Lee, of McClellan, of Beauregard, of Sumner, of Kearney, of many others. If the Mexican war was the brilliant period of the history of the small American army organized in 1815, the army continued always to improve, owing to its incessant wars against the Indians, especially against the Seminoles. The reports of the officers published by the Ministry of War will form, some say, the best archives of the colonization of a great part of the continent, and will become as precious as the voyages of the first Jesuits in Canada or in the Valley of the Mississippi. In the deserts and solitudes of America a new type of officer was formed—the soldier became a geographer, a geologist, a botanist, and an astronomer. All the powers of observation found their exercise. In my contact with the old West Pointers during the great civil war, I was always struck by their peculiar manner, very different from that of our European officers; they seemed more like civilians, like men I would not say of the world, but men of business, caring very little for outward effect, for the trumpery of uniform, and very attentive to the realities which constitute the welfare and the security of an army. America owes much to this phalanx, which was almost unknown and by many despised before the hour of danger came. When the war came to its end, it was found that all the heaven-born generals were gone, and that hardly anything remained in the staff of the armies but these men who had at first been swept aside by the tide of civilians, of politicians, of enthusiasts. They had, merely because they were the most capable, been chosen one by one as the leaders; they had organized, reorganized, made order out of chaos, and victory out of defeat. Let America always preserve her military school and her typical little army, her scientific army, which in an emergency can make generals of its colonels, colonels of its captains, and, I may almost add, captains of its soldiers.

Coming to the causes of the war, the Comte de Paris does not hesitate to say that slavery was the only cause of hostility between the North and South: "There was no real difference of origin between them. All those which the South invoked when she despaired of obliging Europe to help her, and wished to move its sympathies, were purely imaginary. She resorted to fanciful genealogies when, showing France its ancient colony of New Orleans, she said that it was half-French, and when, turning to the side of the English aristocracy, she evoked the memory of the Cavaliers exiled by Cromwell, and opposed them to the Yankees, whom she attempted to represent as a congregation of Germans and Irish. In reality, the Anglo-Saxon race was dominant in the South and the North. It was absorbing rapidly those which had preceded it, and which still furnished many immigrants. . . . No commercial interest separated the South from the rest of the States. Great rivers united all the centre of the continent in one great basin, and all the products converged in the principal artery of the Mississippi, the key of which was in the hands of the Southern States. These States, absorbed in the cultivation of cotton and of the sugar-cane, bought from the West the meat and the cereals which they did not produce in sufficient quantity." I still remember articles published by M. Michel Chevalier in the *Journal des Débats* and in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which this celebrated economist attempted to prove that the war was in reality one between free-trade and protection. I had some difficulty at the time in convincing the able editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* that this was a wrong view of the portentous events which were taking place in America. I was constantly met with the famous argument, which was also urged by Mr. Gladstone, by the Duke of Argyll, and by many English liberals: "But why does not the Northern Government make a crusade against slavery?" They did not see that the aggression had not come from the North, but from the South; that the North was fighting for the Constitution, and in consequence was trammelled by the Constitution itself. The progress of events, however, soon showed to the world that the North could not conquer the South without striking at the institution of slavery. All the readers of the Comte de Paris's work will find a very luminous and just exposition of the difficulties of the North. The writer shows very candidly his sympathies for the liberal cause; and such is the passion for wrong which lingers at all times in some minds, that this part of his work has already been attacked with some bitterness by those who cannot even now be consoled for the defeat of the cause of slavery.

The Comte de Paris was so closely concerned on the staff of McClellan

with the organization of the first armies of the North, that much interest must be attached, in a military point of view, to his narration of these early efforts, to his account of the battle of Bull Run, to his description of the war material, of the commissariat system. His second volume is filled with the story of the events which preceded the capitulation and recapture of Lexington, Mo., with the account of the battle of Ball's Bluff, of the first naval battles, of the capture of the Confederate Commissioners. Then we come to Donelson and Pea Ridge, to Shiloh, to Roanoke, to Hampton Roads. This second volume is almost exclusively military. It ends with the defeat of Jackson and the disembarkment of McClellan at Fort Monroe. The author naturally tries to excuse many of the faults of McClellan on the ground of mistakes committed by the War Department at Washington. His last pages are a sort of preface to the bloody expedition of the Peninsula. We must leave him here, and thank him for the clear and complete exposition of the events of the beginning of the war. What astonished most the Doge of Venice in Versailles was to see himself there. We might say likewise that what pleases us most in this book is to see it written by one of the momentary actors of the war, who could best afford to be quietly contented with the triumphs of the cause which he had gallantly espoused.

Notes.

THE bibliography of cremation as a mode of interment, and of related subjects, is given in Bulletin No. 30 of the Boston Public Library. When the works mentioned are not to be found in that library, it is so stated; the Astor Library being most frequently referred to.——A German version, by Edward Leyh, of Joaquin Miller's "Arizonian," the first and the best of his 'Songs of the Sierras,' has appeared in Baltimore (Fischer & Rossmässler) in paper covers.——Dr. David P. Holton, M.D., 19 Great Jones Street, is preparing a work to be called 'Reminiscences of the Fifteenth Ward of the City of New York,' for which he solicits material from all persons who were living there some forty years ago. Dr. Holton came to the city in 1834, and a portion of his reminiscences has already been given in an autobiographical sketch read in May before the N. Y. Genealogical and Biographical Society.——Stechert & Wolff, No. 2 Bond Street, will be the agents for this country of the long-awaited *Deutsche Revue*, which is designed to be a Teutonic *Revue des Deux Mondes*. It will, however, be published monthly instead of fortnightly, the first number appearing in October. The subscription price is $8 80 gold.——No. 7 of Trübner's 'Catalogue of Choice, Rare, and Curious Books' offers for the trifling sum of £300 a fine collection of caricatures relating to the Franco-Prussian war (1870 to the end of 1872), in 9 vols. folio, the ninth being composed of Rochefort's *Lanterne* and *Mot d'Ordre*, Pyat's *Vengeur*, and other Communistic and pre-Communistic sheets; a collection of the judgments of the European press on Napoleon III. in 1873, with illustrations, in 3 vols. folio; and English caricatures of Napoleon III., from 1848 to 1872, in 3 vols. 4to. On another page of the catalogue are advertised several very old cook-books, one in MS., which ought to throw some light on the origin of plum-pudding.——J. R. Osgood & Co. have republished, in book-form, the excellent and now timely articles contributed by Gen. Francis A. Walker to the *North American* for April, 1873 ("The Indian Question"), and the *International Review* for May, 1874 ("Indian Citizenship"); together with an extract from Gen. Walker's report for 1872, as United States Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and a colored map. This extract gives an account of the numbers, location, and general condition of every important tribe and band, and will be found of permanent value for reference, as well as, in connection with the foregoing articles, for a right understanding of the vexed "Indian Question" which gives the book its title. But little space would have been required for the reproduction of the tabular list of Indian reservations printed in Gen. Fry's 'Outline Descriptions of the Posts in the Military Division of the Missouri' (Chicago, 1872), which gives the name of the reservation and of the tribe occupying it, the population, area in acres and square miles, and the date of the treaty or law establishing the reserve.——Henry Holt & Co. have in press a volume of modern *vers de société*, gathered from Locker, Landor, Swinburne, Praed, Thackeray, etc.

—Scribner, Armstrong & Co. have now for sale Whitaker's 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature.' This does for the English publishers what Mr. Leypoldt's 'Trade-List Annual' had already done for American, setting an example the value of which was quickly appreciated on the other side. It seems a miracle of binding, but we have an entirely "practicable" volume of 3,200 pages 8vo, weighing seven pounds. It contains 111 catalogues, embracing "probably not less than 50,000 full titles"; and its utility is greatly enhanced by a topical index of some 14,000 articles, guided by which any book worth the trouble can pretty certainly be discovered if sought for. On this account, it deserves a place in every public library as a book of reference. An edition of 4,000 copies was printed, and disposed of in advance of publication, and we presume the number for sale in this country is limited, over and above the subscriptions which Mr. Leypoldt has been for some time receiving in Mr. Whitaker's behalf. Booksellers not more than readers are under obligations to both of these gentlemen, Mr. Whitaker's title suggesting a usefulness which pertains equally to Mr. Leypoldt's work, or at least in the measure of the thoroughness of its index.

—The Boston *Transcript* published last week what it called "a carefully arranged statement showing how the John Brown Song was ushered into notice"—a statement intended to set at rest the long dispute as to the authorship of that production. We do not know whether it fairly accomplishes so much or not, for a more confused and muddled account of anything has seldom fallen under our notice. So far as we can make out, the true history of the song is as follows: When, in the spring of 1861, the Twelfth Massachusetts Volunteers (commanded by Colonel Fletcher Webster, a son of Daniel Webster) was in quarters on one of the islands in Boston Harbor, some of the men, assisted by some of their visitors from the city, "amused themselves by adapting the words,

> 'John Brown's body lies mouldering in the grave,
> His soul's marching on.
> Glory, glory, hallelujah,
> His soul's marching on,'

to an air of agreeable effect." This verse, says the *Transcript* correspondent (Mr. C. Sprague Hall, who is the reputed author of the song), was at that time the only verse known. That he was the writer of it, he does not say; indeed, our inference from his way of speaking about it is, that he did not write it and does not mean to be understood as claiming it for his property. As for the air to which the words were adapted, Mr. Hall says that he by-and-by was told by a Mr. Greenleaf, an organist resident in Charlestown, Massachusetts, that, as music was wanted for the words, he being then on a visit to the island recalled to mind and applied a certain tune. This we take to have been the tune which has since become so well known, and which Mr. Greenleaf found to give great satisfaction. Mr. Greenleaf in his conversation with Mr. Hall added that the song was assisted to obtain vogue by the fact that there was in the regiment a soldier who bore the name of John Brown; but we imagine that this piece of good luck it could scarcely have failed of in whatever regiment it had first been tried. The tune also was no doubt of much service to the words. Mr. R. G. White has spoken of it as a blackberrying sort of a tune; but the truth is, that as a tune for a body of men to march by there could hardly be a better, and this was a good deal in the days when half the adult male population of America was practising the art of keeping step. And not only had the song this aid to popularity, but a path had been prepared for it in many ways. Somehow, we do not recollect how, it had then for some months been the fashion in Massachusetts for every anti-Republican gathering, and especially for Douglas and Bell-and-Everett processions, to sing in derision of Governor Andrew the words:

> Tell John Andrew,
> Tell John Andrew,
> Tell John Andrew
> John Brown's dead.
>
> Salt won't save him, etc.,
> John Brown's dead.

This again we suppose to have been an adaptation of the farcical doggerel

> Tell Aunt Rhody, etc.,
> The old goose is dead.
>
> Salt won't save him, etc.

Great stress was laid by the singers on the fact of the deadness of John Brown; and we have thought that it was perhaps to this half-savage emphasizing of that fact that we owe the defiance contained in the counter-assertion that the body of Brown might indeed be mouldering in the grave, but that his soul was marching on—a conception to which the praise of sublimity cannot be denied, and which may be regarded as the civil war's chief contribution to literature. We should like to learn definitely from Mr. Hall whether he found this verse of the song "in the air," so to speak, or himself invented it. As we have said, the manner of his speech has led us to suppose him not to be the author of the first two lines, yet they are essentially the song, and a claim to the authorship of the rest of it is hardly worth prosecuting. Mr. Hall thus speaks of the composition of the five closing verses:

"I will now proceed to relate the circumstances by which I was induced to undertake the task, which was very reluctantly done. Now let it be understood that several young men, residents of Charlestown, who were glee-singers, suggested to me that the wants of the public required a song to be started under the title of the 'John Brown Song,' at the same time assuring me that it would be hailed with delight everywhere. In reply to their re-

quest that I should compose such a song, I told them that I was incompetent to conform to their wishes, but would consult with Mr. H. Partridge, of whom I had bought songs, to hire some poet to get it up; but, as he declined, the singers alluded to insisted that I should do my best, and the result is before the world."

Mr. Hall leaves us in the dark about the difference between the early music set to the words and the music of the song as copyrighted. He defends himself, we see, against the accusation of having written the stanza about hanging Jeff Davis to a sour-apple tree, and says that those lines were foisted in by some outsider.

—The legal doctrine of the "Three Degrees of Negligence"—slight, ordinary, and gross—is the subject of an article in the July number of the *American Law Review*, which has an interest not only for the practising lawyer, but for students of the relation which the common law of England bears to the Roman Law, and in fact for any one who is interested in law at all. We have not space to go into the technicalities of this old question. It is enough to say that the writer comes to the conclusion that the doctrine was unknown to the Roman Law, but was invented by Continental and English writers, who have made it survive by sheer force of its own symmetry and verbal convenience till to-day, when it is gradually beginning to crumble and disappear under the attacks of theoretical writers and courts of law. In this country, the survival of the "three degrees" was greatly helped by Story, of whom the writer of this article says, probably with great justice, that

"Mr. Justice Story's writings show that, notwithstanding his familiar acquaintance with the *Corpus Juris*, and with the works of Domat, Cujas, Heineccius, and Pothier, and his remarkable fondness for quoting them, he was not acquainted with the recent labors of those European civilians whose studies have thrown light upon some things in the Roman Law which had been previously obscured by the work of the glossators and the commentators."

The elaborate structure erected with such ingenuity by Sir William Jones upon the foundation of an incorrect reading from Ulpian, and by means of which he arrived at the extraordinary conclusion, that a perfect harmony on the subject of the three degrees of negligence existed not only in the Roman and English, but in the Arabic, the Mosaic, the Attic, the Turkish, the Mohammedan, and the Hindu laws, as well as in "the codes of the Northern barbarians," turns out at last to be a monument of erroneous criticism. The writer of the article makes the suggestion that the whole theory may well have come from the fondness of the earlier Middle-Age interpreters for tripartite divisions of all kinds—"three," according to Aristotle, being the "most perfect number," in fact the "first of numbers; for of *one* we do not speak as a number; of *two* we say both; but *three* is the first number of which we say *all;* moreover, it has a beginning, a middle, and an end." At any rate, there seems to be little or no doubt that the theory is not to be found in the Roman Law, but was the invention of the glossators, conciliators, and commentators, who were suddenly set writing by the discovery said to have been made at Amalfi in 1130.

—The Rev. Mervyn Archdall's great work, the 'Monasticon Hibernicum,' now nearly a hundred years old, if we count from the date of its first publication, and more than a hundred if we count from the time when the laborious author had it ready for the printer, has long needed new annotations which should be in the nature both of corrections to the text and additions to it. In Archdall's day Irish antiquaries were few, and Irish learned societies had hardly an existence at all, but since that time great and well-rewarded research has been carried on in every part of the domain of Irish history, and while Archdall's book has thus, to some extent, been injured, the means has at the same time been found of making it complete. This has now been accomplished. A new edition of it, with notes so voluminous as to take up about one-half as much room as the text, is now in process of publication in monthly parts by Mr. W. B. Kelly of Grafton Street, Dublin. In Great Britain the price of each number is two and sixpence; and of a volume (bound in the Roxburghe style, and containing a third of the whole work) one guinea. The price of the monthly part in this country is a dollar and a quarter.

—An English writer who has recently enlarged his knowledge of a certain herb known to literature, thinks that a competitive examiner of an ungenial mind might procure a good many blanks among the competitors' answers if he should put on his paper the following questions and requirements: "What is samphire? Quote the best English authors who mention it. To what natural family does it belong? Can it be cultivated in gardens? In what manner is it prepared for eating? Give some idea of what it tastes like." The writer thinks that in most of the answers the examiner would doubtless get the lines from "Lear" about "one that gathers samphire, dreadful trade"—a mention, by the way, which has curiously aggrandized the herb in people's minds, and raised it to some such level as ambergris, say, or cochineal. The examiner might also, says the writer, find that a few of his young friends could quote Evelyn, who describes himself as fond of "Sampier, not only pickled but crude and cold, when young and tender, and such as we may cultivate and have in our kitchen gardens most of the year round." A larger number of the competitors, especially if denizens of the eastern counties, might, it is thought, make answer that samphire is a succulent plant; that it grows in salt marshes, occasionally covered by the tide, and grows in such profusion that its cultivation in gardens is needless; that it might, however, be made to thrive on an artificial bank of mud, which could now and then be sluiced with sea-water; that as for the method of cooking it and its taste when cooked, it may, if you like, be made into a dish of greens, when it tastes something like insipid sea-kale, but that usually it is treated raw with pepper and vinegar, under which circumstances it tastes of these two condiments solely and of nothing else whatever. Such have been some of the consequences to the reputation of Shakspere's samphire of a vulgar error of nomenclature; and we may add that the error has extended to this side of the water, where we give the name of samphire, as so many do in England, to the *salicornia herbacea*, or glasswort, instead of to the *crithmum maritimum*, for which the name should be reserved. This latter, the Shaksperian samphire, appears to be a plant easy of cultivation, and one whose acquaintance is worth the making—especially by those healthy natural epicures whose delight is in variety of sauces and such similar preparations as, without quite being food, yet ungrossly suggest it, and afterwards assist its flavor or make of it a new thing. To make a samphire bed it is necessary to dig a hole two feet deep, three feet long, and four feet wide. This should be in a perfectly dry, well-drained, and sheltered spot, and should be filled up with bits of hard chalk to a height of two inches above the surrounding soil. Thus settling is allowed for. On the chalk thus prepared sow the samphire seed, and when it comes up see that it is kept perfectly clear of weeds. The first year, sown in the spring, it gives the cultivator a cutting towards the end of summer; the second year, the plants will be established perennials and need no more care. The leaves and young shoots are to be gathered on a dry day and put into cold vinegar, when, like Tarragon, their own proper virtues preserve them without any help of spices. You thus obtain a highly aromatized vinegar, which is an excellent anti-scorbutic, of great service on shipboard, as well as useful in other ways—chief of which is in being, as we have said, an acceptable ingredient in all sauces. As for the leaves, they are a good pickle, which in taste resembles capers; and they may be served as a salad by such as choose.

—As it was getting to be high time for the prolonged talk and wrangling in the Italian press over the alleged Americo-Italian art frauds to come to something definite, we are glad to find in the Florence *Gazzetta del Popolo*, of July 14, an authoritative declaration on this subject. It is brief and runs as follows:

"In view of a discussion regarding the state of American sculpture in Italy which has been opened in the press of the United States and continued in certain newspapers published in Europe, we, the undersigned, residents of Florence, Italy, desire to make the following statement:

"That corruption of the pure mission of art has been practised for many years by certain sculptors residing in this city and in Rome, we fear there is no reason to doubt.

"Therefore, as individuals who are greatly interested in all that relates to the welfare and the progress of art, we hail with undisguised satisfaction the attempt which has recently been made to expose all that is corrupt and illegitimate in the practices of these sculptors.

"We respectfully invite our friends, resident in the city of Rome, to concur in a corresponding declaration."

This does not name the offending "artists," nor does it furnish specific proof, but it ought to suffice to turn the discussion away from the personal character and opportunities of knowledge of Mr. S. W. Healy, seeing that it is signed, to begin with, by Longworth Powers, as well as by J. T. Hart, John MacNamee, Thomas Ball, and other more or less famous American sculptors; by the editors of several Italian papers, including the *Giornale Artistico*, the *Firenze Artistica*, and the *Nazione, Opinione Nazionale*, and *Rivista Italiana;* by Signor Gotti, director of the Royal Galleries; by Peruggi, the mayor of Florence; by Karl Hillebrand; by a large number of Italian painters and sculptors, and many more witnesses of weight and local distinction.

—The Hungarian correspondent of the *Rivista Europea* is reported by the *Academy* as having made a discovery which is really curious. This is to the effect that the archiepiscopal library of Eger possesses a Latin manuscript (A.D. 1407) of the 'Divina Commedia,' accompanied by a commentary on the 'Inferno,' the author of which was in his time no less a personage than Giovanni da Serravalle, Bishop of Fermo. Of this manuscript Dante there is a duplicate (mentioned by Tiraboschi as probably unique) in the Vatican Library. Of interest to the general reader is the assertion made in the com-

mentary above-mentioned, that Dante was once a student at Oxford. The commentator speaks as follows:

"Iste auctor Dantes dedit se in juventute omnibus artibus liberalibus, studens eos Paduae, Bononiae, demum *Oxoniis* et Parisiis, ubi fecit multos actus mirabilis intantum, quod ab aliquibus dicebatur magnus philosophus ab aliquibus magnus Theologus ab aliquibus magnus Poeta."

This is not exactly the language of affidavits; but probably it is safe to say that the old floating tradition that Dante once studied in England may, as the *Academy* thinks, now be given a higher place in the scale of probability than has hitherto been awarded it.

—Dr. Schliemann, the explorer, writes to the *Academy* that the Greek Government has consented to his pulling down at his own expense the great square tower, known as the Venetian tower, which disfigures the Acropolis, and thrusts itself into every view of that scene. The tower stands eighty feet high; its walls, in part built of slabs taken from the surrounding ancient monuments, are five feet in thickness, and the space occupied by its foundations is 1,600 square feet of the Propylœa. It is estimated that the demolition will cost Dr. Schliemann £465; but he is to have for three years the sole privilege of publishing such inscriptions as he may bring to light, and it is confidently expected that these will be numerous. Whatever the result of his Trojan explorations, Dr. Schliemann is now rendering the public a valuable service. The work began a month ago, on July 2, to the great delight of the Athenians. But, says the Doctor, "it is impossible to please every one in this world," and he has caused the greatest commotion among many thousands of owls who have inhabited the tower, and are now homeless.

GROTE'S CHARACTER AS AN HISTORIAN.*

GROTE'S permanent reputation depends on his history. The publication of his minor works, which unfortunately do not include his remarkable 'Letters on the Politics of Switzerland,' gives the opportunity and the means of considering his character as an historian. The interesting essays edited by Mr. Alexander Bain are not, it is true, mainly historical, though they contain three valuable contributions to the theory of history; but the philosophical essays, which make up the mass of the volume, are themselves of importance in estimating Mr. Grote's position among writers on history. The review, for example, of Sir William Hamilton's philosophy contains a splendid eulogy of James Mill, and a noble tribute of gratitude from his pupil, who owed, in his own judgment, to the historian of British India "an amount of intellectual stimulus and guidance such as he can never forget." This expression of gratitude is as true as it is generous, and points to the fact, which ought never to be forgotten in any estimate of the work done by Grote, that to the philosophical enthusiasm stirred up in his mind by James Mill is due at least half of his literary success. His own great powers, his rare industry, his rarer intellectual singleness of purpose, would of themselves have led him to eminence. But something more was needed to enable him to open a new era in the study of Grecian history. His success was, moreover, achieved under no common difficulty, for he was forced to contend with a man in every respect but one his equal or superior. To expose the fallacies and weakness of Mitford was nothing. To occupy a field which Bishop Thirlwall had marked as his own was a triumph of which any man might be proud. As a scholar, Thirlwall was Grote's superior. He equalled Grote in knowledge, and probably surpassed him in judgment. The Bishop further possessed a greater command of style than his rival, who though a forcible is always an awkward and occasionally an incorrect writer. Grote, nevertheless, as the Bishop had the singular generosity both to see and admit, produced a work which has permanently thrown Dr. Thirlwall's meritorious labors into the shade. The cause of this is that Grote, with some defects, shows a force or grasp and above all an originality of mind and boldness of conception quite foreign to the somewhat episcopal caution of the Bishop's intellect. But this boldness in speculation is due, if in part to nature, in great measure also to the philosophy of James Mill, which taught his pupils not to be overawed by received opinions. "*Ausus vana contemnere*" is often as good a description of the man who has triumphed in the province of philosophical or historical speculation as of the victor who has conquered in the field of battle. Grote's success at least is due above all things to the intellectual boldness which, while it did not lead him to waste his strength on the maintenance of unprofitable paradoxes, enabled him to look at the wants of the past with his own eyes unblinded by traditional phrases or prejudices sanctioned by a weight of high authority. That this is so becomes apparent the moment we consider the two main features which give its originality to Grote's 'History of Greece.' Its first peculiarity is that Grote throughout his history judges of political institutions, and to some extent of politicians, according to the principles of modern civilization, rather than in accordance with the views which have been handed down by writers whose opinions are opposed to all modern ideas of progress. Thus, even so early as 1830 he had begun to look at the ancient democracies in a light quite different from that in which they were regarded by persons who derived their impressions solely from the language of ancient authors whose sympathies are anti-democratic. "Taking," he writes, "these defects" (of the ancient democracies) "at the utmost, and comparing the Grecian democracies with any other form of government, either existing in ancient times or projected by the ancient philosophers, we have no hesitation in pronouncing them decidedly and unquestionably superior. That the securities they provided for good government were lamentably deficient we fully admit, but the oligarchies and monarchies afforded no securities at all." This principle affords the clue which guides him throughout all his criticisms on Athenian history, and it is a clue which, if it occasionally led him into mistakes, far more frequently saved him from fatal errors and led him to perceive truths which were hidden from all other students. The boldness with which he seized on the true character of the ancient democratic governments is itself a specimen of the happy audacity with which he questioned accepted dogmas. In his explanation of the real nature of ostracism; in his marvellously sagacious comments upon the different effects of usury in the modern and in the ancient worlds; in the apt illustration, by parallels drawn from modern history, of events such as the mutilation of the Hermæ, in his defence of the Sophists, there is seen exactly the same keenness of insight and freedom of view which made it possible for him to perceive that the democratic governments of the ancient world were, if not perfect, still the best governments of their day. No one will assert that Mr. Grote's distrust of prejudices did not occasionally lead him to underestimate views of history which, though generally received, were grounded on truth. But even where the opinions he maintained are most open to question, they always bring into view facts which most readers overlook. Few critics, for example, will hold that Mr. Grote's defence of the Sophists is entirely successful. He seems to have underrated the weight which must be attached to the uniformly adverse testimony of ancient writers. But his argument has not been without fruit. No one can write of them as every one wrote of them before the publication of Grote's history. The Sophists had their vices, and Grote has underrated these vices, but no one since he wrote can treat the Sophists as a body who might be described as the Jesuits of antiquity.

The second characteristic of Grote's history is that it is the first attempt made by an historian to estimate the credibility of ancient annals in accordance with avowed and systematic canons of evidence. Niebuhr had already thrown doubt on the credibility of early legends, but he does not seem to have realized to himself, and certainly never placed before his readers, definite principles by which to determine the credibility of existing narratives. Thirlwall, again, in dealing with the legendary history of Greece, clearly showed that his belief in its worth was tempered by the dictates of educated common sense. Yet though in effect he often attached little weight to early traditions, he never lays down any general rules as to the amount of belief which ought to be assigned to the ancient myths. Grote, on the other hand, has clearly fixed principles which he never hesitates to apply. On this point, his essay on Grecian legends and his review of "Sir George C. Lewis on the Credibility of Early Roman History" are most instructive, for they unfold with great lucidity his theory of historical evidence. The fundamental principle on which it rests is that "the *onus probandi* always lies upon the historian, and the simple absence of evidence is sufficient to put him out of court." This rule he applies with the utmost rigor, combining it with another of at least equal importance, viz., that in many states of society alleged facts are believed to have happened, not because of what we in modern days should consider proof of their having taken place, but because of their coincidence with a certain condition of sentiment. Of a great part of the legends which have been handed down as orginally traditions, and have been ultimately received as history, he thus writes:

"They are tales which grow out of and are accommodated to the emotions of the public among whom they circulate. They exemplify and illustrate the partialities or antipathies, the hopes or fears, the religious or political sentiments of a given audience. There is no other evidence to certify them except their plausibility, but that title is amply sufficient."

Combine these two causes, and the result which follows is obvious. You have history as long as you can trace the narrative of past events up to persons who have been witnesses of them. You may also, of course, find evidence for past facts in existing laws or customs, or in laws or customs known to have existed; but where evidence ceases, there history ceases also. Hence Grote rigidly excludes from the field of history all the great myths

* 'The Minor Works of George Grote; with Critical Remarks on his Intel tual Character, Writings, and Speeches. By Alexander Bain.' London: John Murray.

of Greece. He shows both that it is perfectly possible to modify and adapt such legends so as to make them read like history, and further, such modification and adaptation is absolutely worthless. He also shows, and this is a matter deserving the most careful attention, that the tendency to form myths exists in all states of society, though as civilization advances it is kept in check by counteracting influences. Nothing can be happier as an illustration of this tendency than the wild story of Byron, which Grote points out as believed as a fact, without a tittle of real evidence in its support, by no less a person than Goethe. If the historian had written the article in which this illustration occurs in 1870 instead of 1843, he might have drawn further illustrations of the growth of legend from controversies and speculations connected with the history or legend of Byron.

It is, however, of consequence fully to understand Grote's position. He was not a mere historical sceptic. He was not possessed by anything like that rooted disposition to disbelieve received statements which was the weak point in the strong mind of his friend, Sir G. C. Lewis. Few things are in this respect better worth reading than his comments on Lewis's excessive scepticism. Grote points out for example that the weight to be attached to mere inconsistencies in early history may very well be overrated, for discrepancies quite as many and as great are often to be found in the accounts given by witnesses contemporary with the events they narrate, and cites in confirmation of this assertion the almost incredible obscurity in which the facts of the war in La Vendeé have been involved by the carelessness or dishonesty of the persons by whom the accounts of these wars have been given. He, therefore, insists that the spirit of hypothesis and recombination, though often abused in the hands of a writer like Niebuhr, whose imagination certainly at times mastered his judgment, is in itself legitimate. In other words, he held (and this is perfectly consistent with denial of historical character to early myths) that where the particular events of a period could not be traced out because of the want of evidence on which to erect an historical narrative, many general inferences of value may be established by the use of analogy or by comparison with corresponding states of civilization in the history of better-known countries. "What we expect," he writes, "from the further study of the early republic, is not so much a corrected version of the facts of detail as better and clearer views of the institutional practice and development gathered by combination, inference, and cautious hypothesis from a variety of distinct sources." This expectation has in the case to which it refers been fully justified, for the words of Grote might be taken to describe the effect of Mommsen's labors in elucidating the earlier stages of Roman history. It expresses, moreover, the hopes of all judicious students with regard to the earlier periods of history. To turn myth into historical narrative is impossible. What is possible is to substitute for a belief in baseless though long accredited legends a certain amount of knowledge of the early development of society. The great achievement of a writer such as Grote is to have placed the facts we do know in new lights, and by making us perceive distinctly where our knowledge ceases, to have cleared the path for new and fruitful investigation.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'LORD of Himself' is the title of a novel which assumes to portray certain phases of life in Kentucky some thirty years ago. It tells us of the sufferings of a young man, Beauchamp Russell, who is the descendant of a once wealthy family that has lost its money, and in great measure its position, by the carelessness of some of its own members and the greed of some of its neighbors. The hero finds himself in great straits; he has no good horse, no good clothes, no means of earning a livelihood, and he is, of course, in love with a beautiful young woman. Besides these complications, the "peculiar institution" of the South, as it was euphemistically called, makes his position even more embarrassed. Although the beautiful Miss Sherburne confesses her love to him, there comes a slur on his good name, which makes a coolness between them for a time; but that is dispelled, and the novel ends happily. The only fault to be found is that the story is very uninteresting; the author tells us that "every one of its incidents has its foundation and parallel in actual events," but the book is not on that account any more entertaining; it is not all truth that is stranger than fiction. The reader would welcome any amount of invention in the story, if he could only feel that they were genuine people about whom the incidents are told, but none of these characters are remarkably well drawn, they make no very keen impression; every one has met similar uninteresting people in life, it is true, but it is quite as often in the pages of novels that their "foundation and parallel" are to be found. The humor often shows marks of a heavy hand, as, for instance, in the chapter called "Joe Heady's Mat" and in the whole account of Aloysius Pittsinger's courtship and elopement. Some of the remarks are not noticeably happy—for example:

"But we are all similarly foolish once or twice in our lives. The supremacy of mind does not extend beyond its own sphere; in the domain of love all proper men are equal. The professor who murmurs his passion in Sanskrit to a blue-stocking and receives her tender answer in Hebrew, *acts* in precisely the same ludicrously awkward fashion as Aloysius is doing at this moment. Kings have no royal way of wooing, *if they woo;* nor is a countess, in presence of her future lord, free from the timidity and palpitations and the instinctive *acting* which belongs to universal womankind," etc., etc.

This extract is a very good specimen of the commonplace of the greater part of the book, in which fact and fiction have exchanged places.

There is a delicious absurdity about 'Brockley Moor.' All of the characters talk resounding blank verse:

"'Do not forget me—never forget me!' he cried, 'daughter, child of my heart!'

"'Indeed—never, never can I forget you, dear Elric! I will write long letters and tell you everything.'

"'Will you write, daughter? Address your letters to "*Elric*, White Cliff," and you shall hear from me that they are received. Alas! poor child, you have never known a father's love—scarcely a mother's. Let not the world rob me of you, for I cherish you with a parent's affection.'

"'Nay, Elric, if that could be I should be unworthy of your love. If we ever meet again, you will surely find me unchanged.'

"'*Unchanged*, dear Agnes—that cannot be! You go from me untutored, strange to the world's conventionalities—guileless as an infant, pure and unsullied as the flake that falls from heaven upon this foul earth,'" etc.

It is the Old Bowery in full blast.

In 'A Dangerous Game,' Mr. Edmund Yates honors this country, and more especially this city, by introducing them into fiction; many of the characters of the novel, too, are Americans. The story is about Mr. Alston Griswold, a rich business man in New York, who goes to England, under an assumed name, for business purposes, and is there murdered by a false friend of his who has made love to his wife, and who finally receives the punishment due to his crimes. This is not a very attractive tale, and the company to which the reader is introduced is of a sort that is better calculated to show the author's knowledge of what is called the world than to impress upon the reader a gratifying feeling of content with the book. A late French writer, M. Gaboriau, made himself notorious by a similar work, of which the secret lies in representing impossible villains who shall be stained by every crime, and yet with their rigidly cold faces baffle all the policemen in the world, until some almost innocent scrap of evidence convicts them and gets them punished. There is in it all such almost microscopic realism of detail that the reader overlooks the harsh neglect of possibilities which makes of the characters nothing but puppets twirled on an ill-concealed string. When Mr. Yates is deep in murdering and throwing detectives off the track there is a certain interest in his unhealthy writing; there is liveliness, too, in his accounts of the milder villains and demireps, whose good side he is ready to set before us; but when he undertakes to represent a lady or a gentleman, he is off his beat. Helen Griswold is a caricature; her journal is Mr. Yates's attempt at tender pathos, done with the wooden patience with which he works out all the novel, but making the character as lifelike as a china shepherdess is like a peasant-woman. The tone of the work is low—desperately so—and 'A Dangerous Game' is no more than a chastened blood-and-thunder story of the New York *Ledger*.

'Hulda' is a translation, with some modifications, by Mrs. Wister, from the German of Fanny Lewald. It tells the love of the humble pastor's daughter for the Baron Emanuel, and all the suffering that embittered that young woman's path in life. It is not in any way a remarkable novel, but it is tolerably readable; those who read every novel that is published will find it more agreeable than many they are forced to put up with, while those who only read the best are less likely to be enchanted by it. The same praise, however, cannot be given to another translation from the German by the same lady—Marlitt's 'The Second Wife,' namely. This writer managed to make herself known by the 'Old Mam'selle's Secret,' which was a fairly commendable book, but this, her last effort, has almost every fault a novel can have. The heroine, a poverty-stricken German countess by birth, marries a baron, whose sole purpose in marrying is to affront a woman with whom he had formerly been in love, but who had married a loftier suitor; now this faithless one was a widow, and in love with him, but his pride and

*'Lord of Himself. A Novel. By F. H. Underwood.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1874.

'Brockley Moor' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

'A Dangerous Game. By Edmund Yates.' Boston: William F. Gill & Co. 1874.

'Hulda; or, The Deliverer. A Romance. After the German of F. Lewald. By Mrs. A. L. Wister.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'The Second Wife. From the German of E. Marlitt. By Mrs. A. L. Wister.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Olive Lacey. A Tale of the Irish Rebellion of 1798. By Anna Argyle.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Alcestis.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'Clarissa; or, The History of a Young Lady. By Samuel Richardson. Condensed by C. H. Jones.' Leisure Hour Series. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

'The Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax. A Novel. By Holme Lee (Mrs. Harriet Parr), author of 'Sylvan Holt's Daughter,' 'Kathie Brand,' etc.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1874.

vanity alone control him. The countess is the second wife, and has a very hard time in her new home—what with her husband, a vicious old uncle of his, an odalisque living out in a house in the garden, and a priest, who is continually coming and going, and watching everything with his black eyes, and making love to her. It would be hard to say which of the characters is the greatest caricature. The whole book is overdrawn, strained, and absurdly unnatural; still, it is from the German, and will be read, as if the Germans were famous for writing good novels, and only once in a while wrote a dull one by accident.

'Olive Lacey' is rather seriously handicapped by the rest of its title, "a tale of the Irish Rebellion of 1798," but it will be found to conquer whatever aversion the reader may feel to the introduction of history into works of fiction. Too often this combination is an awkward one, and we find hardly anything but a jumble of facts and fancies which give neither information nor amusement. In this novel, however, the characters are well drawn and the incidents are cleverly contrived, so that we have not, to be sure, a masterpiece of fiction, but a very readable, unambitious story that will compare very favorably with most that we have already mentioned.

Much better than any of them, however, is the very charming 'Alcestis,' the latest addition to the admirable 'Leisure Hour Series.' As a story, it is full of interest, and this interest will be doubled for many readers by the fact that it is a musical novel. It rises, in our estimation, far above the moonlight sentimentality of 'Charles Auchester;' with really wonderful skill, never wasting words in trying to define what music is, but representing a man devoted to his profession and struggling against the various temptations which most readily beset his temperament, it gives us the life of a musician, of a composer. There is none of the fashionable psychological analysis, but in its place we have the same result, sympathetic comprehension of the characters, produced by the way in which their actions and words are set before us. The hero, Joaquin Dorioz, loves music, but he also loves the world; he is drawn with greater fairness than is generally the case with heroes who are geniuses, who get from the author all the petting that their originals demand of their mediocre fellow-citizens. His touching experience of life amid the distracting pleasures of court life in the Germany of the last century, with all the intrigues against which he has to struggle, makes a charming and pathetic story. The affection of the singer, Lisa Vaara, for him, and the sacrifice she makes in his behalf, lend the story great beauty, and raise it far above the ordinary tragedy of what might be called the common domestic novel. A great merit, although an incidental one, of the story is the skill with which all the details of the setting are subordinated to the legitimate construction of the novel; in such books it is only too often that we find the author thrusting archæological minutiæ before our notice as assiduously as do most recounters of travels their various bills of fare, but in 'Alcestis' there is no such error committed; the *mise-en-scène* seems accurate, but it is more than that, it is perfectly natural. The characters, as we have said, are all well drawn, and the novel is one that we can recommend to our readers.

There is a sound of truth in this description of the effect produced on Dorioz by hearing the overture of Gluck's "Orfeo ed Eurydice":

"All who love music know it—the power of the first wave of violins in the overture or symphony to wash us of all our dulness and dryness, to carry us straight out from ourselves. In that first delight our personal conflicting seems to be merged into a universal satisfaction, our pitiful dogmas and theories into living, fresh assents. We believe in law and harmony—yea, though it be the unconquerable woe of the world that weighs on our hearts, they rush out to meet joyfully all the sorrow of the world—inhuman, unearthly power of sound! To our musician, the first rush of instruments in the majestic allegro was a spell to break him away from himself, and the strong, fresh overture prepared the hearers for the sublime story of the old Greek."

This is about the only soliloquy of the sort in the book, and it is the absence of rhapsodies, which are generally much less intelligible than this, that makes the story one of real interest.

The name of Richardson has to most readers become of hardly more power than will suffice to bring up before the mind visions of long and prosy volumes about impossible men and women; but the publication of 'Clarissa Harlowe' will enable them to revise such vague notions, got at second-hand from those who have never read him, and probably to feel warmer respect for the critical judgment of their grandfathers, and more especially of their grandmothers. This novel, as we have it in the 'Leisure Hour Series,' is much abridged from its first ponderous size, and made more intelligible by the addition of a few useful notes; we have it really uninjured, however, for the omissions include hardly anything more than tiresome repetitions; the reader's way is only made smooth. What his verdict will be is a matter of little doubt; such different critics as Diderot and Mrs. Barbauld, Rousseau and Dr. Johnson, do not unite in praising a writer of no merit, nor even one without an extraordinary amount of merit; often of late years he has suffered from neglect, and at times from the contempt of critics who have considered it necessary to put up Fielding by setting down Richardson, as if they were playing at see-saw, but it is only necessary to read a few pages of his master-piece, 'Clarissa Harlowe,' to feel his charm, although the form he adopted is one against which prejudice is very common. Fictitious letters have gone out of fashion; but this novel shows us the excellence of the epistolary form. It does infinitely more than that: it sets before us a lovely character suffering every indignity, but rising only purer from its trials; the beauty of Clarissa's nature hides the odiousness of the catastrophe which tends to keep the book one little read; it paints great crimes, but the reader is half consoled by the bitter punishment the villain undergoes in his repentance; and while the book contains what we, who are more squeamish than our ancestors, call coarseness, there is nothing in it that is petty; it deals with great emotions—there is nothing brought in which does not heighten the effect of the tragedy. There is no surer preservative of a fine taste than the frequent return to the acknowledged models, and Richardson is one who is too much forgotten.

'The Vicissitudes of Bessie Fairfax' is an agreeable novel of the utmost simplicity, recounting in a natural way a probable story. The heroine's vicissitudes are not startling; she has both a step-father and a step-mother, to be sure, and some of her relatives are of high birth, and some of her associates are of humbler parentage; she has various lovers, and they have life-like misunderstandings, and at last she marries the man of her choice, and all ends well without any introduction of unnecessary horrors.

Ancient Athens: Its History, Topography, and Remains. By Thomas H. Dyer, LL.D. (London: Bell & Daldy.)—Col. Leake's work upon Athens, though containing a vast store of information, is not well arranged for easy use as a book of reference, and, prior to the appearance of Dyer's 'Ancient Athens,' almost the only work in English easily accessible to the student of Athenian topography and architecture has been Dr. Smith's 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography.' As a mere topographical guide-book for hasty consultation, Smith's 'Dictionary' will not be superseded by Dyer's 'Athens.' The student who seeks for generally accepted conclusions with little care for the processes and discussions by which those conclusions have been reached, and who wishes concise statements rather than elaborate descriptions, will still prefer the 'Dictionary.' He will not secure these advantages, however, without some cost, for, notwithstanding the great merits of that work, the article upon Athens is in some respects not trustworthy, partly because of its acceptance of theories now disputed or discarded, partly because of the large additions to the literature of the subject from recent excavations. The present volume treats the subject much more exhaustively, and is more generally in accord with recent authorities such as Rheinhard ('Map of Ancient Athens, 1868'), Kiepert ('Atlas Antiquus,' fifth edition, 1869), and Dr. Smith's new 'Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography' (London, 1873-74), the classical maps of which are by Dr. Karl Müller. Not only are the results of earlier investigations given, but there is a full description of the discoveries of the last twenty years, especially that of the Dionysiac theatre in 1862. No account of the recent excavations has been attainable heretofore except in scattered notices in various periodicals and in different languages, and it is a great convenience to have all this information incorporated into one volume.

Among the topics treated may be mentioned the legendary history of the city; full discussions of its topography, including the course of the walls, the location of the gates and of the agora, and other disputed matters; the history of its public edifices from their building to their mutilation by earthquakes, Turks, early Christian fanatics, and modern Christian antiquaries; the route of Pausanias, with an attempt to locate some of the objects of interest which he mentions, but which have disappeared; a detailed description of the theatre of Dionysus in its present state, with the inscriptions still existing upon the marble chairs; and references, incidental though often copious, to Athenian history, religion, legislation, and courts of law.

Dyer rejects entirely Forchhammer's theory, accepted by Smith's 'Dictionary,' as to the extent of the city walls, and agrees with Kiepert, Rheinhard, and Dr. Smith's elaborate Atlas in restricting the city to the northern side of the Ilissus. He puts the agora in the hollow between the Theseium and the western end of the Acropolis, and also locates a later agora directly north of the Acropolis, while Smith's 'Dictionary' admits but one, which it places in the hollow directly south of the Areiopagus. Smith's Atlas and Kiepert agree with Dyer in locating the agora with its temples and stoæ, but the former also puts the inscription, *Vetus Agora*, in the hollow south of the Areiopagus, and the latter marks an agora directly

south of the Acropolis, no surrounding structures, however, being figured by either. The temple commonly called the Theseium has no name in Dyer's map, but in the text he advances the hypothesis that it was the Amazoneium. Smith's 'Dictionary' rejects the arguments of Ross against its identification with the temple of Theseus, while Smith's Atlas accepts them, and follows Curtius in calling it a temple of Heracles. Dyer differs from other authorities in removing Cynosarges from near the foot of Lycabettus to a point on the Ilissis just east of the Olympieium. On the other hand, Dyer agrees with Smith's 'Dictionary' as to the genuineness of the Pnyx, and supports his views against Curtius in an elaborate appendix.

The heights of the mountain ranges which bound the plain of Athens purport to be taken from the measurements of the British Survey, and ought to be correct, but they differ materially from those given in Smith's Atlas. Compare the following figures, taken respectively from Dyer and from the Atlas: Hymettus, 3,056, 3,369; Parnes, 4,193, 4,635; Pentelicus, 3,884, 2,559.

In an extended appendix, Dyer attempts to show that the arrangement of the logeium, orchestra, and thymele of the theatre, as given by Suidas and Vitruvius, is not applicable to classic times, and hence has been misinterpreted by Donaldson ('Theatre of the Greeks') and others. He maintains that Vitruvius is not describing the theatre of the great dramatists, but the theatre required in his own time to meet the recent demands of gladiatorial combats; that in the classic age, the stage and the first row of spectators were not elevated ten or twelve feet above the orchestra; and that the part of the orchestra in front of the altar was not covered with a raised wooden platform, called thymele, for the movements of the chorus, the term thymele being restricted to the altar. He is led to this position from an examination of the Dionysiac theatre, in which the stage is raised only four or five feet above the floor of the orchestra, and the first row of seats is on a level with that floor. With such an arrangement, if the chorus had stood upon an elevated platform, the view of the stage would have been wholly cut off from the priests and magistrates, whose reserved seats in the first row were considered the choicest of all. He believes, moreover, that the lozenge-shaped pavement, so conspicuous in all the photographs of the theatre, furnished guiding lines for the files of the chorus in their movement across the orchestra, and that these lines preclude the possibility of a raised platform, by which they would have been completely hidden. This reasoning is plausible, but it would be much more conclusive if the stage and its surroundings were not evidently of a comparatively late date, the remains of the earlier scena being still visible further to the south; and the reasons adduced for the hypothesis that the general arrangements of the classic stage and orchestra were reproduced in the restored theatre of Roman times, cannot be considered so weighty as to put the matter beyond dispute.

This book is a large octavo of 553 pages, well supplied with maps and plans, and illustrated with a few wood-cuts. The publishers have done their work well, and the typographical errors are not numerous. Moreover, the book was evidently written because the author was interested in his subject, and had something new to say upon it.

The Four Civilizations of the World. An Historical Retrospect. By Henry Wikoff, author of 'A Visit to Prince Louis Napoleon at Ham,' 'Political Essays,' etc. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874. 12mo, pp. 416.)—Mr. Wikoff would have done better if he had called his book 'The Fourth Civilization' rather than the "Four"; for the first three civilizations (including three pages of "A Mystery") occupy but 29 pages out of 416. Neither is the force of the definite article apparent, for we venture to say that nobody could guess off hand what the four are. When we come to examine them, moreover, we see no reason why they might not have been lumped together in one; for the characteristic of the first civilization, Asia, was "the concentration of all the power, wealth, and knowledge in the hands of the upper classes, whilst ignorance, poverty, and slavery were the lot of the lower class"; and as for the second civilization, Africa, "similar physical causes produced a state of society in all respects analogous"; and the third civilization again, Europe, only differed from the others in the fact that it, "intellectually, far surpassed those preceding it." By European civilization, by the way, is understood simply that of ancient Greece and Rome, the fourth civilization being that of Christianity. It will be seen that the substance of Mr. Wikoff's philosophy of history is that the one essential element and criterion of civilization is democracy; any other contributions to humanity made by Egypt, Greece, and Rome are of no account. It is a curious sense of proportion, therefore, which thinks fit to prefix this shallow and cumbrous introduction to a work the immediate aim of which was to "give a concise and intelligible exposition of the history of France, England, and the United States." If that is what Mr. Wikoff wished to do, why did he not do it?

The narrative portions of this work possess considerable merit, and the errors generally come from an insufficient acquaintance with the latest authorities. Page 28, the author speaks of the Roman centuries "consisting of 100 citizens each"; p. 44, we read of Charlemagne "of France"; p. 61 Robert Guiscard is called "another William of Normandy"; p. 153, we read, in connection with some very good remarks, that "the Saxon middle class [the common freeman] possessed no political or municipal privileges till the thirteenth century"; and again, p. 167, that the Parliament of 1265 was "the first appearance of the People on the political stage"; p. 291, that "none but Englishmen could have laid the foundation of a pure democracy" in America, for the reason that the French and Spanish colonists "knew nothing of the representative system."

Sea and Shore: A Collection of Poems. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1874.)—This is a pretty volume, from which some visitors to the salt sea waves will miss some poems which they will think the compiler should not have omitted; and in which also they will find some pages which they would willingly tear out and cast overboard; but although no great severity o taste has guided the compiler, the collection nevertheless contains much welcome poetry. Glancing over it, one thinks that it might well have begun with Mr. Emerson's "Seashore":

> "I heard or seemed to hear the chiding Sea
> Say, Pilgrim, why so late and slow to come?
> Am I not always here—thy summer home;
> Is not my voice thy music, morn and eve,
> My breath thy healthful climate in the heats,
> My touch thy antidote, my bay thy bath?
> . . . . . .
> "My paths lead out
> The exodus of nations: I disperse
> Men to all shores that front the hoary main."

The reader may partly judge of the character of this collection by looking at some of the names, good and not so good, represented in it: Henry Abbey, Elizabeth Akers, Bret Harte, Matthew Arnold, Thomas G. Appleton, William Allingham, T. B. Aldrich, Barry Gray, C. P. Cranch ("Virgil"), Felicia Hemans ("The Breaking Waves Dashed High"), Cowper, Lord Derby and Mr. Bryant ("Homer"), Julia Ward Howe, Allan Cunningham, Harriet Prescott Spofford, Celia Thaxter, Wordsworth, Lockhart, Swinburne, E. C. Stedman, D. G. Rossetti, Longfellow, Lowell, John Wilson ("Christopher North").

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Annual Report of the Secretary of the Navy on the Operations of the Department in 1873. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1873. 8vo, pp. 628, and three maps.

This volume is one of unusual interest, in a scientific point of view, from the official details which it gives concerning surveys and explorations for a canal between the Atlantic and Pacific, the transit of Venus, and the *Polaris* expedition; all of them subjects, also, to which the public attention has been strongly directed. The general results of the examinations of the Darien and Nicaragua regions, made with reference to an interoceanic canal, under Commanders Selfridge and Lull, are already familiar to our readers from our notice of the reports of these officers. The whole matter has lately been referred to a Government board for final decision as to what appears to be actually the best route and the best method of accomplishing the object in question. Whether anything will be done by the United States towards constructing the proposed canal is somewhat questionable; if it be undertaken at all, it will probably be by some European nation, in which event the American exploration will be extremely serviceable.

The *Polaris* expedition is treated of at great length, no less than 404 pages of the 628, and three maps, being devoted to this subject. The report gives the full history of the rescue of the Tyson and Buddington parties. On the arrival of the rescued men in Washington, a Board of Investigation was appointed by the Secretary of the Navy, consisting of Commodore Reynolds of the Navy Department, Captain H. W. Hawgate of the Signal Service, and Prof. S. F. Baird of the Smithsonian Institution, the Secretary himself acting as Chairman of the Board. A careful enquiry was entered into as to the history of the voyage, the circumstances attendant upon Captain Hall's death, the separation of the party from the vessel, and their rescue. In the meantime, the steamer *Juniata* was sent, *via* Newfoundland, to Greenland, with a view of preparing the way for the *Tigress*, which it was thought might be obliged to winter in the north, and which followed very soon after. The *Polaris* party that remained on the vessel spent the winter of 1872–73 on the shore at Lifeboat Cove, in latitude 70° 23′, and on the 3d of June, abandoning the *Polaris*, started in boats which they had built, in the hope of reaching the region visited by whalers; and they were actually picked up by a British whaler, the *Ravenscraig*, and carried into Dundee. From this place they returned to Washington, where the Board of

Investigation already mentioned renewed the enquiry on the 11th of October, including the inquest made by the Board of Investigation at Washington, which resulted in the opinion that the death of Captain Hall was caused by apoplexy, and due entirely to natural causes; and that the general results of the exploration of the *Polaris* were of a high value, both geographically and otherwise. Of the maps, the first gives the track of the *Juniata* from Godhaven, Upernavik, etc., as well as that of its steam launch the *Little Juniata*. In the second, we have the tracks of these vessels repeated, as well as that of the *Tigress;* while the third shows the route of the *Polaris*, in its movements between latitudes 78° and 82° 26′—the highest point attained—with the geographical features as corrected or observed for the first time by the *Polaris* party. The most important points of geographical advancement consist in the discovery of a deep fjord, or possibly even a strait, cutting off the northern extremity of Greenland; and an indication of open water north of 82° 15′; and also of points of land further north, the northernmost being estimated at about 84° 40′. Land was also traced nearly as far as this to the west side of Robeson Channel, and of what has been termed the Lincoln Sea. A comparison of this map with Dr. Hayes's chart, published by the Smithsonian Institution, will show the large amount of additional information thus brought to light.

The American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for the year 1875. Published by the authority of the Secretary of the Navy. Second edition. Bureau of Navigation, Washington. 1874. 8vo, pp. 528.

It is not many years since vessels of the United States, belonging both to the national and to the merchant marine, depended upon Great Britain for the nautical almanacs used in their voyages. In 1849 an act of Congress was passed authorizing the preparation of an American Ephemeris, which commenced with the volume for 1855, and has ever since been continued. The work is now under the charge of Professor J. H. C. Coffin, Professor of Mathematics, U. S. Navy. The present volume, for 1875, is a second edition, the first having been published in 1872.

Almanac for the Use of Navigators, from the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for the year 1877. Published by authority of the Secretary of the Navy. Bureau of Navigation, Washington. 1874. 8vo, pp. 268.

This portion of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac for 1877, adapted to the meridian of Greenwich, is designed for the special use of navigators. It contains ephemerides of the sun and moon; the distances of the moon from the centres of the sun and the four most conspicuous planets, and from certain fixed stars; the ephemerides of the planets Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn; and the mean places of one hundred and ninety-eight fixed stars for the beginning of the year 1877. An account of the eclipses of the year, with charts of the solar eclipses, is also given.

Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, United States Army. In three volumes. Volume III.: Supplement; I. Anonymous; II. Transactions; III. Reports; IV. Periodicals. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874. Large 8vo, pp. 320.

The library of the Surgeon-General's Office of the United States Army is rapidly advancing to the first rank among the special libraries of this class, at the present time numbering not far from 30,000 volumes, of almost exclusively medical publications, and a very large number of pamphlets. It is contained in the fire-proof building of the Army Medical Museum, formerly Ford's Theatre, and is under the special charge of Dr. J. E. Billings, Surgeon U. S. A. An appropriation is made annually by Congress of $10,000 for the purchase of books and for the support of the Museum; and by an arrangement with the Library of Congress, certain classes of medical works in its charge are transferred to this establishment, among them the medical theses of foreign universities received by the Smithsonian Institution through its foreign exchanges. It forms indeed the medical branch of the Congressional Library, as no purchases of medical books, with the exception of a few general treatises, are now made by the Congressional Library, but are left to that of the Medical Department of the Army. A precisely similar plan of cataloguing is adopted by the two establishments, and it would be purely a mechanical work, of a comparatively slight degree of labor, to melt the smaller into the larger at very short notice.

Senate Report 307. Part I.: Report of the Select Committee on Transportation Routes to the Seaboard, with Appendix and Evidence. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874. Part II.: Testimony taken.

After a general enquiry into the statistics of the production of cereals in the United States, and all other bulky articles requiring cheap transportation for long distances, and the course of trade in this respect, the Report takes up the consideration of actual competition between water and rail transportation; the defects and abuses of the existing systems of transportation; the constitutional power of Congress to regulate commerce among the several States; the competition between railways and its promotion by the construction of additional lines; direct regulation by Congress; indirect regulation and reduction of charges through the agency of one or more railway lines to be owned or controlled by the Government; and the improvement of natural and construction of artificial water-ways. The water-ways extensively considered are those embracing the lakes and the New York and Canadian Canals, the James River and Kanawha Canal, the Atlantic and Great Western Canal, the Mississippi route, the Ohio River, Kanawha River below the Great Falls, Wisconsin and Fox Rivers improvement, and Rock Island and Hennepin Canal. Other water lines, referred to by the Committee with less detail, are the improvement of the Illinois River, the canals of Pennsylvania, the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, the Florida Ship Canal, and the improvement of the natural water-ways of the Pacific coast. The Committee recommend that all railway companies engaged in inter-State commerce be required to publish rates and fares, and to receipt for quantity, and account for the same at its destination, and be prohibited from charging more for a less than for a greater distance. Various methods of preventing combinations, consolidations, stock inflation, etc., are also indicated. The construction of double-track freight railways is urged, but the greatest reliance is placed by the Committee upon the improvement and maintenance of reliable water-routes.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
About (E.), The Notary's Nose	(Henry Holt & Co.)	$1 25
Eastman (E. C.), White Mountain Guide-Book, 11th ed.	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Gould (T.), The Bride of the Broken Vow: a Poem, swd.	(W. H. Young & Blake)	
McPherson (E.), Handbook of Politics for 1874	(Solomons & Chapman)	
Stoddard (R. H.), Anecdote Biographies of Thackeray and Dickens	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Sime (J.), History of Germany	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Thalheimer (Miss M. E.), Manual of Mediæval and Modern History	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)	2 50
Walker (F. S.), The Indian Question	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 50

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 3.

THE money market has remained easy at the rates last quoted—2 to 3 per cent. on call—and, judging from the present outlook for increased activity in the different branches of business, the prospect is that very little change will take place in rates until the latter part of the month or early in September. The indications are that money will be easy throughout the fall, notwithstanding the demand which will arise for the purpose of "moving the crops." Commercial paper is in good demand at low rates, especially for firm names having a short time to run. Paper running 60 and 90 days has been placed during the week at 5 to 6 per cent.

There is a somewhat firmer feeling in the London market for money, the Bank of England having raised its minimum discount rate from 2½ to 3 per cent., owing to a heavy loss in bullion for the week ending on Thursday last.

The weekly statement of the New York banks on Saturday was very favorable, showing a still further gain of $1,144,100 in the surplus reserve. The excess of reserve now held by the banks over the legal requirement is $30,427,275. The following statement shows the changes in the different items:

	July 25.	August 1.	Differences.	
Loans	$284,168,100	$282,012,600	Dec..	$2,155,500
Specie	26,646,700	25,293,700	Dec..	1,353,000
Legal tenders	63,714,800	65,818,900	Inc...	2,104,100
Deposits	244,313,300	242,741,300	Dec..	1,572,000
Circulation	25,767,600	25,762,200	Dec..	5,400

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	July 25.	August 1.	Differences.	
Specie	$26,646,700	$25,293,700	Dec...	$1,353,000
Legal tenders	63,714,800	65,818,900	Inc...	2,104,100
Total reserve	$90,361,500	$91,112,600	Inc..	$751,100
Reserve required against deposits	61,078,325	60,685,325		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	29,283,175	30,427,275	Inc...	1,144,100

The stock market has been very dull. Prices, however, have remained quite strong, and the quotations on some of the speculative stocks show an improvement at the end of the week over those current at the commencement. To-day the market opened strong, and was at times quite active in Lake Shore, Western Union, and Union Pacific. The sales of the day foot up about 80,000 shares. The market was never so free from speculative influences as it is at present. The large operators, including Mr. Gould, have been absent from the city during the week, and the result was, that for several days the Stock Exchange was almost entirely neglected.

Nothing official has been published regarding the negotiation of the new fives by the Treasury. So far as is known, the total award of bonds made was $55,000,000—$10,000,000 at par in gold and accrued interest to private investors, and $45,000,000 at par and interest in gold, less ¼ per cent. commission, to the Syndicate composed of the Messrs. Seligman and A. Belmont & Co., together with the foreign houses which they represent and the First National Bank of this city, with the option of a "call" for the remaining $124,000,000 at the same price for the period of six months. The Secretary of the Treasury on Monday issued a call for the presentation of 25,000,000 5-20's of 1862 on or before the 1st of November next for redemption, after which date interest upon them will cease. The people have not been able to understand as yet why the Treasury rejected the bids, amounting to nearly $15,000,000, made at par, less ¼ per cent. commission, and accepted that made by the Syndicate; while the call of the Treasury for only $25,000,000 5-20's, when $55,000,000 new fives have been taken, has led to considerable discussion, and has given rise to the opinion that an understanding was had by the Secretary with the Syndicate before the Treasury issued its circular inviting proposals from the public for the remaining unissued 5 per cent. bonds, and that the circular was issued merely for the purpose of satisfying public opinion, while the real object was to treat with the Syndicate.

The market for Government bonds has been unsettled by reason of the Treasury operations. The following are the closing quotations this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118¼	118⅛	Registered 5-20, 1867, c	117¼	117⅜
Registered 5-20, 1862, c	111	112	Registered 5-20, 1868, c	118	118⅛
Registered 5-20, 1864, c	115⅝	115⅞	Registered 10-40's, c	113¼	113¾
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N	114½	115	Registered 5-20's of 1881	111½	112
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J	116	116⅛	U. S. Currency 6's	117⅛	117¾

The Secretary has ordered the sale of $5,000,000 gold during the present month. The following shows the fluctuations in the gold premium during the week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, July 27	109¾	109⅞	109⅝	109⅝
Tuesday, July 28	109⅝	109⅞	109	109⅛
Wednesday, July 29	109	109⅜	109	109⅜
Thursday, July 30	109⅛	109⅝	109¼	109½
Friday, July 31	109¼	109½	109	109⅜
Saturday, Aug. 1	109⅜	109⅝	109¼	109⅜

SPECIAL NOTICES.

TERMS: In advance, one insertion, four cents per word; five insertions, three cents per word, each. The enclosure of a stamped and addressed envelope will secure a numbered box, to which communications may be addressed.

A Graduate (with Classical Fellowship) of Princeton, who has studied abroad, takes in New York or vicinity private pupils preparing for college. References. Address Box 14, *Nation* office.

An Oxford M. A., of many years' experience in teaching in England and America, desires a situation as a Classical Master. Would prepare pupils for the English or American Universities. High references given on application to H. H., 1912 Latona Street, Philadelphia.

An Experienced Principal, College-bred, desires position. Address, stating salary, EXPERIENCE, *Nation* office.

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A Graduate of Brown University, of ten years' standing, desires a position as Professor of Botany or Natural Science generally in some College or similar institution. For information and references of the best character, apply to W. W. Bailey, B.P., Providence, R.I.

Finishing Governess.—An English Lady of several years' experience desires an engagement in a gentleman's family in New York or Boston. Acquirements: thorough English, French, German, Italian, Music, and Drawing. Address Miss JAMIESON, care of Rev. Gerald Lermit, D.D., Dedham, Essex, England. Preliminary enquiries can be addressed to Box 18, *Nation* Office.

German Language.—Having some mornings free, I wish to employ them in private schools, and am now ready to make arrangements for next fall. E. C. F. KRAUSS, 82 Waltham Street, formerly 53 Temple Street, Boston.

Art Anatomy.—Instruction given in all the higher departments of Art. Address W. RIMMER, [illegible] YOUNG, Cambridge, Mass.

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Two Young Ladies, Experienced Teachers, would like situations as teachers or governesses. Will teach Latin, French, Mathematics, and the English branches of education. Satisfactory references given. Address "J. C. G.," 312 Congress Street, Portland, Maine.

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Yale College—Law Department. Address Prof. FRANCIS WAYLAND, New Haven, Conn.

Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College. Information by addressing Prof. G. J. BRUSH, New Haven, Ct.

Massachusetts Agricultural College, W. S. CLARK, President, Amherst, Mass. Eleventh Annual Report gratis.

University of the City of New York.—Medical Department. Address Prof. CHAS. INSLEE PARDEE, M.D., 426 E. 26th Street., New York City.

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Mrs. and Miss Gilliat propose to open a Boarding and Day-School for Girls of the age of twelve years and upwards, on the 24th of September next, in Newport, R. I. References: Bishop Williams, Conn.; Bishop Clark, R. I.; Rev. A. H. Vinton, D.D., Boston; Rev. I. P. White, D.D., Newport; Rev. Wm. S. Child, Newport; Alex. Duncan, Esq., Wm. Butler Duncan, Esq., N. Y.; Augustus Hoppin, Esq., Providence. For particulars, apply during the present summer to Mrs. JOHN H. GILLIAT, Pomfret, Conn.

Miss Marie Hilken's Institute for Young Ladies, located at Feldstrasse, No. 6, Hanover, Germany. References: John Stellmann, Esq., Baltimore; Christian Ax, Esq., Baltimore; Dr. D. W. Brickell, New Orleans; Rev. A. P. Perfect, Rector St. John's sub Castro, Lewes, England; Lt.-General Lewis, [illegible] Chester [illegible] Austin Friars, London, England.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 13, 1874.

The Week.

BECAUSE of the dull times—only relieved for the newspapers by the local scandal case—the election in North Carolina has been made to assume something of the importance as a matter of news which it had two years ago. At that time guns were fired in honor of it not by one party alone, but by both; by the Democrats, who were induced to be joyful by the first returns; by the more worldly-wise Republicans, who knew how slowly returns would come in from the mountain counties, to say nothing of certain other counties. There has been little reason, however, why there should be excitement this time, as Thursday's result was a foregone conclusion. It is doubtful if more than a minority of persons who have an ordinary knowledge of the facts suppose that in 1872 the Republicans carried the State by eighteen hundred and odd majority, or, in fact, by any majority; and it certainly is not surprising that the majority now should be several thousand the other way. The Civil-Rights Bill discussion would alone be enough to account for such a result, for doubtless that measure is unpleasing to many of those Southern Republicans, of whom North Carolina has thousands, who are Republicans from principle and not from official mock-zealotry. We wish to be understood as speaking only of Southern white Republicans. It is said that of the eight Congressmen the Democrats will have seven, instead of five as they have now. It is not said whether either of the new men is of special ability.

Mr. Daniel W. Voorhees has formally opened the Democratic campaign in Indiana in a speech at Terre Haute in reply to Senator Morton, said to have been delivered to a large and enthusiastic audience. The most interesting and original part of Mr. Voorhees's speech was naturally that in which he discussed the financial question, he being not merely a repudiationist, but a repudiationist on principle; he says not only that the United States had the right to pay the five-twenty bonds in paper, but that it would be an infamous swindle to pay them in anything else; and the act of 1869, by which Congress declared them payable in gold, he characterizes by saying that "with the incoming of Grant's Administration, bonds to the amount of fifteen hundred millions, which were confessedly payable in currency by existing laws, were changed into gold bonds—as far, at least, as such a crime against the people can be successful—thus fraudulently adding to the national debt from thirty to forty per cent. on every dollar we rightfully owe;" he declares that a "greater iniquity than this has hardly happened in American history. A government that thus plunders its own laboring masses and repudiates its own laws in order to still further gorge the rich, needs a change of officials at its head, to use no harsher expression." With regard to the currency, it need hardly be mentioned that Mr. Voorhees is no friend of the "monster of contraction"; but he says that "it must not be supposed that the Democratic party will do anything rash on the subject." What he proposes is, "to convert an interest-bearing bonded debt of twelve hundred millions into a non-interest-bearing circulating medium." This he thinks can be done "at such intervals and under such circumstances as not to derange or unsettle the legitimate currents of trade and commerce." There are, he says, "fifteen years" in which to carry out this plan; but there is probably a longer time than that. No one can read Mr. Voorhees's wild harangue, at the same time reflecting on the leading position he is always given in Democratic politics, without understanding the reason why Democratic reform seems so impossible.

We have received several communications from New Orleans in reference to the objects of the White League; the injustice of charging it with being a body of ill-judging men; and the probability that it will be successful in reforming the affairs of Louisiana. One correspondent informs us that the writers who drew up the Leaguers' address or platform are gentlemen filling in New Orleans the position of Mr. O'Conor and Mr. Evarts in this city; and that with these are associated business men who represent the enterprise, wealth, and integrity of the community, professional men of the highest character—in short, the best citizens, and all of them. He defends the platform as not being the work of impatient and headlong men, apparently ready for another 1866 riot, and by implication pronounces the document judicious. We are still of a contrary opinion as regards some of its language, having recently been confirmed in our own view by the comments of the Southern press upon the Southern elections. The Civil-Rights Bill is their chief topic, and that this is so suggests some reflections which we believe our friends of the White League will do well to keep still in mind. As generally looked at from the exclusively Southern side, and again as looked at by other eyes from the exclusively Northern side, civil-rights legislation seems a simple enough affair: the Southerner declares it a wilfully imposed sign of subjugation and a determined attempt to make the negro his equal and degrade him in the eyes of his former servants. The Northerner denies this, thinks the Southerner unreasonable, and asserts that civil-rights bills are legitimate results of the war, which it is only a duty to secure. He cannot sympathize with the Southerner in his social difficulty, nor can the Southerner believe for a moment in his humanitarianism.

It has been because of the difficulty of reconciling these two views of the facts that so many thousands of good men at the North have reluctantly but without real hesitation ranged themselves at all necessary junctures behind the Mortons and Chandlers. The Southern people would not reassure them; and there was never even so much as a watering-place congeries of Southern statesmen with the wit or the will to try. The Leaguers may have better information than we of a decay in the North of the feeling that, as regards the negro, the South will bear to be watched. Some decay there has been; how much, nobody yet knows; but how much there was of the feeling to be removed the Leaguers can partly guess by reflecting on the equanimity with which the North has now for years regarded the condition of Louisiana herself and South Carolina. Do the White Leaguers think this apathy had no meaning and no deep root? We hope better days are in store for them and are coming soon; but we still suggest that if only out of abundant and superabundant caution, and to leave the foe no chance, Southern political leaders should stop such utterances as this. It is from the Leaguers' platform:

"But it is worse than idle to reason with those people [the Louisiana colored voters]. They have become maddened by the hatred and conceit of race, and it has become our duty to save them and to save ourselves from the fatal probabilities of their stupid extravagance and reckless vanity."

How? As reasoning is given up, and the blacks are in a majority, what must this threat mean?

The curious mental as well as moral perversion which characterizes much of the attitude of the Grangers towards the railroads, finds a good illustration in a recent letter of a correspondent of the *Tribune*, who is giving some account of the state of opinion in Minnesota about the railroads and the currency. Speaking of what a projected extension of the Minneapolis and St. Louis Railroad would have cost if it had ever been constructed on the plan on which it was proposed to construct it (by a heavy issue of bonds), and of the

consequently high rates the farmers would have had to pay in order to furnish the required amount of interest, the writer says:

"I know that the capitalists, both at home and abroad, who have invested their money in railroad bonds, have very seldom been in these 'rings' or had anything to do with the stealing of which so much complaint is made, and that as innocent men they ought to be protected from loss. But the farmers reply that they too are innocent; they get none of the plunder; and to expect them to pay these high rates in order to enable the company to pay the interest on bonds that ought never to have been issued, seems to them like robbing Peter to pay Paul."

Here we see that the farmer, who has not put a cent or may not have put a cent into the construction of a road, claims in virtue of the fact that he lives near it, and may have to use it occasionally, all the rights and privileges of a proprietor; and unless he is satisfied with the amount of bonds the real originators and constructors of the road have issued, maintains that he may confiscate it all to his own use. If it is "robbing him to charge him high rates," however, it would be robbery in a still greater degree to stop working the road altogether. It seems, too, to follow from this that it is also "robbing the farmer" to refuse to advance money to construct a road in any place in which he needs one, because this is the same thing in effect as charging him more for transportation than he can afford or wishes to pay. *De non utilibus et non existentibus eadem est ratio.* Therefore, anybody who has refused to lend money to make a railroad is, or ought to be, from the Grangers' point of view, as great a rascal as the man who has bought bonds at seventy-five cents on the dollar. In both cases the farmer is hindered from getting his produce to market. In the latter case "Peter is robbed to pay Paul," but in the former Peter is stripped of everything. The difference is that the farmer cannot get at the man who would not lend, but, according to Granger logic, if he could get at him, he would be justified in taking as much of his dividends as would make it pay to carry Minnesota or Oregon corn to Liverpool.

The telegraph sends accounts of a negro war in Northern Mississippi, the story being that twelve hundred negroes have invested the town of Austin. Austin is situated in a county where, according to the last census, the negroes outnumbered the whites nearly three to one, and there may be no mistake as regards the strength in which the investing forces appear, but the telegrams remind one a little of the days just "after the surrender," when the Associated Press seemed to have taken into its employ at its Southern stations large numbers of disbanded Confederate officers. It is impossible to tell from the despatches sent exactly what has happened at Austin, or how blame is to be distributed, but apparently a certain amount of exaggeration has been done, and the importance of the affair is likely to be overestimated. It would seem that some weeks since a Dr. Smith "had a difficulty" with a negro, who, meeting him in the street, tried to shoot him. Dr. Smith returned the fire, but missed the man and accidentally killed a little negro girl standing by. This is said to have so enraged the colored population of the neighborhood that they attempted to apply lynch-law to the homicide, but were prevailed upon by the entreaties of Mrs. Smith and the mayor of the town to release him and let him go to jail instead of being hanged. But after a brief imprisonment "some friends came and carried him to Hernando." Upon this, we are informed, the negroes assembled, demanded Smith's return, and threatened, in case he was not brought back, to burn the town. The whites, it seems, answered the demand by barricading the streets as well as they could and telegraphing at once for aid, not to Governor Ames, but to the authorities of neighboring towns, and the response appears to have been prompt. We hear also of re-enforcements going to the negroes from the surrounding country, but we may safely expect to hear that the riot has turned out, in the result at least, like the old-fashioned ones in which the negroes used to advance precipitately on the woods, throwing away their arms and luring the terrified whites to follow them. The early part of this chapter of Southwestern social life—that in which Dr. Smith began operations—we shall probably not hear till later.

The Mayor's answer to the charges against him has been published by the Governor, but has not been well received. The Mayor says, first, that the Assembly Committee on Cities, which wanted him to investigate the condition of the Police Commission, brought no specific charges, and so he did not consider it necessary to institute any enquiry, particularly as in his own opinion the Police Board has never been so efficient a body as during his present administration; and that the Board of Aldermen's request that he should remove the commissioners was absurd, because it was based on nothing but the report of the Assembly Committee. Having thus disposed of the first charge, he proceeds to consider the second, and shows that the offence of which Charlick and Gardner were convicted (removing an inspector without a written notice) was a mere technical violation of law, and involved no moral guilt or violation of the oath of office; his reappointment of them to office being consequently not a crime, but a meritorious action—which is a view radically different from that hitherto taken in any quarter. He admits in another part of his defence that the aldermen did, on the 20th of June, make specific charges; but understanding that the same charges were covered by a pending indictment, and being pressed for time, he did not consider it necessary to look into them. The Mayor discusses the question at great length, divides it into appropriate heads, looks at it from the point of view of the good citizen, the good mayor, and the good governor, and from the moral as well as the legal side, and altogether makes his paper such an elaborate contribution to the science of government that the reader is almost inclined to believe that he is reading arguments in defence of eternal principles of right and justice, instead of a shrewd defence of the writer's support, maintenance, and patronage of two notorious, rascally politicians. More charges have been brought against the Mayor, but there seems little probability that the Governor will take any further steps in the matter, as the old gentleman's term of office expires in a few months. His usefulness to the cause of reform would appear—as we have heard it gently said of police officers discovered to have entered into doubtful relations with leading cracksmen—to be "a thing of the past."

The latest move in the municipal game is an attempt on the official life of Mr. Green, whose enemies have endeavored to have him indicted by the Grand Jury for "lobbying." The charge against him is that during the struggles at Albany over the charter he employed Mr. Dexter A. Hawkins, as special counsel for the city, to make arguments before committees for the purpose of preventing the passage of bills prejudicial to the city or to his own interest without warrant of law, or if with apparent warrant of law, then that Mr. Green sent Mr. Hawkins to Albany to keep him, Mr. Green, in office, and not for the alleged object of making arguments affecting municipal interests. To this Mr. Green's reply is, as we believe it always has been (for the charges are rather stale), that he had authority of law to make an agreement with Mr. Hawkins for precisely such objects as those to which that gentleman's arguments related. By way of a still more effective answer, however, he has suddenly filled the Deputy-Controller's office, which it appears has been kept vacant ever since the days of the Ring, by placing in it a Mr. Earle, who can be relied upon to manage the Controllership faithfully in case Mr. Green should suddenly be sent to jail or removed from office. The charges against the latter are frivolous to an extreme. The use of indictments as a political weapon is so convenient that it will probably be found necessary to guard it against abuse much more thoroughly than has yet been done.

The Beecher-Tilton case drags along slowly, but apparently seems to be drawing very near to its end. Mr. F. D. Moulton has been the principal figure this week, and the sum of what is to be said about him as a witness appears to be that he has practically refused to testify. It is very unsafe, however, to say anything positively about any part of this remarkable case. In all our acquaintance with newspapers, unless perhaps at the times when two

candidates for the Presidency have been up for election, we have never known the editorial fraternity pestered with the iteration of more mendacity, distortion of truth, and suggestion of falsehood than they have had to endure in this case. So far as we make out, Mr. Moulton, who has never spared to tell the committee in effect that as friends of Mr. Beecher they had better leave the Moulton deposit of letters alone, is still the custodian of his friends' secrets. He appears to have furnished the committee with full copies of so many of the original letters as will enable them to compare an entire original with each of the imperfect copies used by Mr. Tilton in making his statement.

The Ross case has advanced no further this week, except for the fact having come out that the father declines to allow any of the authorities to see the letters he has received from the kidnappers, a refusal which is supposed to point to some family quarrel as the origin of the abduction. The Philadelphia police, however, have distinguished themselves by a display of vigilance and ingenuity which has rarely been equalled. They have carefully searched every house in the corporate limits of Philadelphia, and, in order to prevent hard feeling, they gave notice some days before through the press that they were going to make this domiciliary investigation—a notice which enabled every one to prepare for it, so that all suspicious-looking valuables, or other evidences of crime, were removed, and the officers were received by the thieves, kidnappers, fences, counterfeiters, confidence-men, gamblers, and murderers of Philadelphia, in their various retreats, in the frankest and most cordial manner. Only one citizen, it is reported, made any objection, and he on the curious ground that the searching of private residences without warrant is illegal. This citizen is said to be an old man, and perhaps on that account does not keep up with the times. The police behaved in all cases with the greatest politeness and consideration, even going so far in houses in which people were lying at the point of death as to refrain from any of the loud shouting or boisterous profanity in which they might so easily have indulged, so that it is not believed that death will be hastened by the search in more than one or two cases. Strange to say, the boy was not found.

The correspondence between our Government and that of Great Britain on the subject of the "Three Rules" under the *Alabama* Treaty has been made public in England, and given rise to a good deal of discussion. The two Governments have been in correspondence on the subject since June 12, 1871, without coming to a sufficiently clear understanding as to the meaning of the rules to enable them to be brought to the notice of other powers, as intended by the Treaty. The general conclusion arrived at by the English press seems to be that, as the rules are likely to prove a serious embarrassment to neutrals, it is on the whole fortunate that the matter remains where it is. With regard to public feeling in this country on the subject of the "Three Rules," it cannot be said that there is any, public sentiment about the *Alabama* having had very little that was abstract or technical in its character, and having been mainly caused by the concrete injury suffered from a particular ship rather than by any wide or comprehensive interest in the duties of neutrals. We should almost be willing to go so far as to say, that if Lord Granville's successor and Mr. Fish should, by the adoption of some ingenious system of hermeneutics, arrive at the conclusion that the new rules amounted to nothing more than an explicit declaration of the old international law on the subject, not a hundred persons in the United States, except students of law, would care to remember what the rules were, and of those hundred ninety-nine would be glad of the result.

The coal and iron miners in England, after having had swimming times for three years, and having in vain striven by means of strikes to keep wages where they were before the collapse last fall, are now accepting from 20 to 40 per cent. reduction from their employers. There is, in fact, nothing left for the leaders to do but to counsel the men to make what terms they can, though this advice is sure to bring odium upon those who gave it, who are loudly accused of "selling out." As might be expected, so long as their executive and agents encourage the demand for higher wages, they retain the confidence of the members of the Union; but, as *Capital and Labor* remarks, when "the same men advise the miners to accede to a reduction, they rebel, and many of them challenge not only the judgment of their leaders, but even their honesty of intention." The same paper, in reviewing the behavior of the miners unions during the excited period 1871–73, shows that these bodies, "the more demand and wages rose, set themselves the more determinedly to prevent an increase of labor, and fenced the pit-heads all the more violently against new-comers. When wages are high, workmen will labor more steadily and actively than when wages are low. This is a doctrine based logically enough on the ordinary intelligent instincts of human nature. But under the action of the miners' unions it was completely reversed. The higher wages rose they worked less, restricting their days to five and four in the week; and nothing is more remarkable than that, under all the stimulation of mining industry in 1871, 1872, and 1873, the aggregate mining production of the United Kingdom has seldom increased in so small a ratio, and never so out of all proportion to demand, as in these years."

Algeria has always been a colony of rather questionable utility to France, having no other advantages than those of a training-school for soldiers, and, judging by the evidence of the Franco-Prussian war, not a very good training-school at that. An engineering scheme, however, is now on foot which may render it a possession of greater value than heretofore. This scheme is to let in the Mediterranean into the bed of an old inland sea, lying partly in Algeria and partly in Tunis, about 160 leagues long and 20 in width, and thus create a "Baltic of the Mediterranean." A staff officer selected by the Minister of War to study the subject has reported that this is feasible, and M. Lesseps is said to have expressed his opinion that it may easily be done at the expense of $2,500,000. The sea existed in former times, but the formation of banks intercepted its communication with the Mediterranean, the African sun dried up the water, and the sea became land. A cutting 18 kilometres in length would suffice, it is said, to fill it up again. The Superior Council of Algeria, presided over by General Chanzy, voted towards the end of last year funds for the preliminary work, and in the National Assembly a credit of $2,000 has lately been voted to continue them. It is supposed that the resources of modern science are quite equal to the task of keeping open the communication with the Mediterranean, and great expectations are formed as to the fertilizing effects upon the surrounding country of the admission of such a vast body of water.

The resignation of the well-known French Financial Minister, M. Magne, is explained by his failure to get the Assembly to agree to his proposals with regard to the repayment of the money lent to the Government by the Bank of France during the war. About $250,000,000 were borrowed of the Bank at 1 per cent., and when M. Thiers came into power he laid it down as a fundamental principle of his financial policy that this should be repaid as soon as possible, and from that time it has been accepted as a necessity that $40,000,000 should be set aside for that purpose annually. There was no obligation to do so, for the Bank has been willing, it is understood, that some other arrangement should be made; and even if that were impossible the money might be raised by a loan much more easily than by taxation. But the policy has been adhered to to the last, and his proposed taxes for the purpose of raising the $40,000,000, or for covering the deficit if the $40,000,000 were paid, all proving unpopular with the Assembly, M. Magne resigned. The Assembly seems now committed to a reduction of the payment to the Bank from $40,000,000 to $30,000,000.

AN EVERYDAY REMEDY AGAINST INFLATION.

THE clipping of the coin of the realm was formerly regarded as a very heinous offence against the peace and welfare of society, and there were certain painful and disgraceful punishments attached to it. Nevertheless, it was nothing more than what might be termed individual inflation. If the clippings had been carried immediately to the mint and recoined, and Parliament had passed an act requiring everybody to receive a clipped coin in payment of a debt due him as though it were unclipped, then the process would have been very nearly parallel to our present schemes of inflation. Another form of clipping was indulged in on behalf of the Government by some kings and emperors whom we are now pleased to designate as selfish or short-sighted tyrants, instead of calling them liberal statesmen or advanced thinkers. This governmental process of clipping was known as debasing the coin. The clipper filed off two shillings from the pound, and passed, or endeavored to pass, the remaining eighteen as though they were twenty; the government substituted two shillings of alloy for two of gold, and passed, or endeavored to pass, the debased coin as a veritable pound. Debasement of the coin was nothing more nor less than inflation, with two trivial points of difference: first, that the debased coin did not bear a broken promise of redemption; second, that when the government came to redeem, it possessed the advantage of being able to ascertain how much gold there was in the piece, and of redeeming at its real and not at its fictitious value. The one class of financiers regarded clipping the coin as a good way to get money without its costing anybody in particular anything; the other class of financiers held that debasement was an excellent method for raising revenue without the unpopular burden of taxation or the dangerous vexation of a forced loan. But notwithstanding the ingenuity of these devices, there never was a time when a prudent man was willing to take or an honest man to give eighteen shillings for twenty. This fact both classes of financiers knew perfectly well, and their hope of making money easy rested on their ability to get the cheapened coin off their hands before its real value should be found out.

Mankind is just as desirous to have "money easy" as it ever was; and in our own country, where there is a feverish desire to get money for speculative purposes, caused alike by the extraordinary number of unworked fields of wealth, by the nervous, energetic, intelligent character of our people, and by the universal modern desire for sudden riches, it is not astonishing that we have many financiers, public and private, desirous of debasing and clipping our medium of circulation. Nor is it astonishing that these old processes should be wrought into a new form, and be called by a new name, and possess novel advantages in detail, such as "moving the crops" and "reviving business." But it is astonishing that a piece of work which was formerly reserved for tyrants or criminals, and which was always found to be grievously prejudicial to society, should now be accomplished, or sought to be accomplished, through the legislative representatives of society. The persons of any intelligence who clamor for this, know perfectly well that the period through which a debased coinage or an inflated currency will carry its supposititious value must be exceedingly brief, and never so brief in financial history as it would be now in our own country, after all the practical teaching our people have had of the ability of paper to run down. Doubtless, if we were to break away the dam that prudence and economy and retrenchment have partially erected, there would be a flood at which Messrs. Butler and Morton would clap their hands and cry aloud, "Is not water plenty? Are not the times lively? Behold what enlightened statesmanship can do in the way of spending to-day what we must suffer for to-morrow!" The majority of the persons who are "backing up" Messrs. Butler and Morton in the work of breaking down the dam, know perfectly well that the wasteful flood must be exceedingly short-lived, that the natural flow of the stream will not be augmented, and that a drouth must quickly succeed in which the majority of men will find themselves stranded. Nevertheless, each of the schemers thinks that his personal adroitness or luck will bear him to the end of the voyage, and enable him to land himself high upon the bank before the waters go down. The philosophy of these people is that of the counterfeiter who expects to "shove" his "queer" before its worthlessness is found out; and the philosophy of Messrs. Butler and Morton is that they for a few years to come can get up successive floods by breaking down successive dams, and, before the general irretrievable low-water-mark is reached, be able to land their boats upon some political eminence.

That the legislative representatives of an intelligent and industrious people should be relied upon to give legal effect to such a scheme is, as we have said, the astonishing fact in the case. It is also the dangerous fact. This danger might be deemed fanciful if it had not been found that, notwithstanding party pledges, we have to depend upon an executive veto to save us from just such legislation. The needy, adroit, unscrupulous, and speculative elements of our wealth-seeking society who want money to carry schemes, together with those whose success depends upon a nominal advance of prices, in order that they may thereby make a nominal payment of their debts, will want inflation just so long as they believe inflation can be made effective and compulsory by a mere act of Congress. Therefore, the question which all men who have accumulated property, or who hope to accumulate it by honest industry, must sooner or later ask themselves, is, whether Congress has an absolute constitutional power thus to unsettle values, and in effect take one man's money and give it to another.

By the first "legal-tender" decision, the Supreme Court, through five judges, declared that the power "to coin money" given by the Constitution to the Federal Government, was in effect restricted to the precious metals commonly in use throughout the world as a medium of exchange. By the second legal-tender decision the Supreme Court, by a like number of judges, declared that the legal-tender act is constitutional, and that Congress could not only make money out of valueless paper, but that this paper could have an *ex-post-facto* effect, and be used retroactively to discharge a debt contracted before the legal-tender act was passed or thought of. That is to say, the Supreme Court decided that Congress could make a law whereby a man who borrowed a dollar in gold before the legal-tender act, could pay it after the act with forty cents' worth of Government paper. If the Supreme Court could be again reconstituted by the appointment of new judges, it might be said that one of these decisions of five judges is an offset to the other, and that the whole question is properly open for judicial review; but as there is no reasonable likelihood of such a change in the Court, we must for practical purposes accept the latter as a final exposition of the power of Congress.

But here it must be understood that the latter decision did not go further than the precise point at which we have stopped. In the cases before the Court, a man had borrowed a dollar in gold, payable in the lawful money of the United States. The Court held that a paper dollar is lawful money of the United States when declared to be so by Congress, and hence that it fulfilled the express obligation of the contract. The Court has never held that where a man borrowed a dollar in gold, payable in gold, he can pay it in anything else. Happily this suggestion does not rest upon inference. The inflationists do not seem to understand that the Supreme Court has expressly decided that we have in this country two kinds of "lawful money," and that the American people are free to deal in whichever they please. Further than this, the Supreme Court has given a valuable practical effect to its decision by holding that, where the contract is made payable in one of these kinds of money—that is to say, in gold—the judgment in a suit upon such a contract must be rendered for gold, and the sheriff must satisfy the execution by paying the judgment creditor the full amount in gold. For such contracts, there is in contemplation of law no paper money in existence.

There is, therefore, in every man's hands a final remedy against inflation. All that is necessary to make this remedy effective is to make it operative. If any person can doubt this, he has only to glance at the Pacific communities, where the resolute will of

the people has kept paper out of circulation as completely as though it were forbidden by the Constitution of the United States. There are no inflationists there; for every man, no matter how much he may want money made easy, knows that a nominal dollar cannot be legislated into a real dollar, and that a real dollar cannot be liquidated by a nominal dollar, and that if he borrows the latter it will be worth no more to him than he can sell it for at a broker's. Inflation has no temporary advantages for him, and seems as childish a proceeding as for the Government to print TWO ($2) on the corners of a greenback, which says below, "The United States will pay *one* dollar to the bearer"; and then for everybody to take such notes and call them "twos," while they really estimate them as "ones." Parenthetically, we would suggest to Messrs. Butler and Morton that this would be a cheap method of inflation, by which the best currency in the world might be doubled or trebled in volume without the Government's being put to any extra present cost for paper, or to any ultimate loss when the time for redeeming comes around.

The error of capitalists, and indeed of the entire business community, has been that they were willing to speculate upon the supposed progress of contraction, and have so managed financial matters that every "time transaction" has been a bribe to the debtor to be for the time an inflationist. If New York, Philadelphia, and Boston were to agree that all loans and credits henceforth are to be in gold and for gold, a borrowing community like Indiana would speedily change front and be heard declaring that irredeemable Government notes are little better than their former "wild-cat" currency, and that the interests of the West demand that paper must be put up to gold. But so long as these people are left to believe that mere legislation can give them all the money they want, and that the lending, credit-giving part of the community will apathetically take paper in payment of debts, no matter how little it may be worth, just so long there will be active, earnest, dangerous inflationists. In the meanwhile, without waiting for a general agreement among business men, it is in every lender's power to do a great deal towards stamping out a danger which is constantly threatening and disturbing the whole country; and all that he has to do is to insist on the simple honesty of loaning and being repaid in a money which has some stable value, and does not fluctuate with the ignorance or unscrupulosity of Congress.

THE RAILROAD REFORMERS' MAIN QUESTION.

IN saying last week that the Senate Transportation Committee had failed to make known to the public its views of the "Postal-Car" controversy, we did an injustice, it seems, to the committee, for, though Congress did nothing about it at the last session, the committee did appoint a sub-committee, and their sub-committee made a report to the Senate, which on the 23d of June was recommitted and ordered to be printed. This sub-committee consisted of Mr. Mitchell of Oregon, formerly known as Mr. Hipple of Oregon, a gentleman who is quite rich in names, being said to belong to a class in society at the West of whom it is frequently asked on their arrival at a new place, "What was your name where you lived before?" and whose knowledge of the railroad question is said to have been derived from an intimate familiarity with the affairs of a certain corporation in the extreme Northwest, which has thus far proved a greater source of profit to the gentlemen who built it than to either the public or the private persons at home and abroad whose funds furnished the means. However, Mr. Mitchell, in his character of sub-committee, has thoroughly investigated not only the postal-car question but another and profounder one, and by means of the testimony taken, the arguments heard, and the discussions called out, his investigations have cast a flood of light upon the whole subject of railroad reform. Into the details of the postal-car controversy our readers would probably not care to plunge, but this report has important general bearings.

The railroad question, as we have often had occasion to observe, is a very complicated and intricate problem. It involves not merely the question of cost of construction, equipment, and transportation, but the relations of several distinct classes of persons directly interested. It is also closely connected with questions of taxation which are not very easy of solution. Nevertheless, it must have struck a good many people of a reflective turn of mind, that however complicated the railroad question may seem to them at the outset, it no sooner begins to be explored by Congressional or legislative committees than it assumes a charming and attractive simplicity. Under what clause of the Constitution of our State, or of the United States, as the case may be, have we the right, and does it become our duty, to seize and convert railroads to our own use? This is evidently the railroad reformer's main question. What is the actual cost of transportation; such paltry matters as the price of iron and coal, change of grade, width of gauge, do not interest him. Somebody else must grapple with these details. What he wants to know, and feels it to be his duty to know, is under what clause of the Constitution he can seize the roads. In the Western agitation for cheap freights, to begin with, the primary question to an ordinary mind seemed to be what the actual cost of transportation might be, and the ratio of profit to this expense; but the Grangers did not consider this a question of any importance whatever. The extortions of the roads they took for granted, and immediately proceeded to the elaboration of an argument, founded on the roads being "public highways," to show that any rates which the legislature might provide for them they must necessarily adopt, and, if they did not, the right and duty arose of seizing them for violating their charters. In the next step which the discussion took (when it was carried to Washington), the same process was gone through. The railroad question, it was said, was obviously one which could not be dealt with by the separate States, for the lines of railroad cross and recross State lines; there would be a continual and deplorable conflict of jurisdiction, which would end by leaving the question worse off, if possible, than it already was. Obviously, the only thing to do was for the General Government to undertake the roads. Here, too, one would have supposed that the first question to be settled was what abuses were to be reformed; but here, too, for the most part, the abuses were taken for granted, and the reformers proceeded to discuss the main issue: under what clause of the Constitution could Congress give and alienate the property of the roads? Obviously, under that giving to Congress the right to regulate commerce between the States. Commerce between the States was carried on by railroads; nothing could regulate it more than the rates of freight; therefore, Congress had the power to seize and run pretty much all the railroads in the United States.

It remained for Mr. Mitchell of Oregon, in his postal-car report, to give the most convincing proof of the generality of the tendency of railroad investigators to go to the bottom of the matter. The postal-car question, as everybody knows, is simply a question between the Government and the companies as to the rate of payment to be allowed for a particular kind of service. Formerly, the mails all went like ordinary freight, and so it was perfectly fair to compensate the roads by paying them by weight. Now, however, on the lines on which the postal-cars are used, the weight is no criterion of the expense, the chief cost to the company being the room occupied by the new railway post-office. It has always been admitted, too, by the Government that the old system was wrong, and laws on the subject have been twice passed. On the surface of the matter, the thing to be done seemed to be to ascertain what the rates fairly should be; the Government does not want to give up the postal-car system, and the railroads are perfectly willing to continue the service; the only question for Mr. Mitchell to consider seemed to be what arrangement, satisfactory to both parties, could be made. Mr. Mitchell, however, was far from entertaining any such narrow view of the nature of his functions. The very first task to which he addresses himself is to discuss whether, under the power "to establish post-offices and post-roads," Congress has the right, under any circumstances, first, "to take absolutely, without the consent either of the owner or of the State within

which such road may be, any railroad, its rolling-stock and equipments, within the United States, for the public use of the transportation over the same of the United States mails; second, to take the temporary use of any such road and equipments on like terms for a like purpose." And he decides, after a careful examination of authorities, that on paying just compensation Congress has this power, and may exercise it. We must do Mr. Mitchell the justice to say that his report also discusses the question at issue between the Government and the roads; but it is only after first settling the main question that he allows himself to proceed to those trivial questions of fact which he appears to have been appointed to investigate.

We noticed the fact last year that in the discussions carried on by the farmers as to "public highways," they were involving themselves in difficulties of a somewhat profound character, inasmuch as when they desired to avoid railroad-aid bonds, issued by towns in which they lived, they maintained that a railroad had not a public character; but whenever they desired to have their corn and wheat carried more cheaply for them, they maintained that the roads had not the character of private property—in this view of the law of corporations taking a ground directly opposite to that taken by the judges and courts, who have been supposed to know it, from the foundation of the Constitution. Since then this law, as expounded by railroad reformers, has received several important additions. We have established not only the principle that a railroad is not a piece of private property created and maintained for public ends, but a piece of public property diverted to private ends, but also the principle that any railroad may be reclaimed and converted to the use of the public in these three ways: under the power to "alter or amend" a charter, the State may fix rates at any limit it pleases, and thus make it impossible for the corporation to do anything but sell out to the highest bidder, on which the State may easily become the owner of the road on extremely "reasonable" and therefore "just" terms; second, under the right to "regulate commerce," Congress may do the same by any inter-State roads; and, third, under the power "to establish post-offices and post-roads," Congress may condemn and seize any road with which it is not able to come to an agreement on the postal-car question.

It may be that this new body of law which the railroad reformers are incorporating into the stale and antiquated system of jurisprudence handed down to us by our ancestors will prove a great blessing, but in view of the litigation between the companies and the State authorities going on in the West, it is important to call attention to the necessity of harmonizing the various divisions of the new code. For instance, there might be a conflict between State and Federal authorities, arising out of a laudable but simultaneous attempt to establish just rates on the part of the local and the General Government. The State having established by a board of railroad commissioners what it considers reasonable rates, and then having been forced by the non-compliance of the company to take away its charter, might find that the rates it subsequently established, as owner of the road, for carrying the mails did not seem just or reasonable to the United States, on which, under the right to "establish post-offices and post-roads," the Government of the United States might at once become the owner of the road and fix the rates for all transportation to please itself. Or, if we suppose that the Government has seized under this provision of the Constitution any line chartered by a State, does it become the owner of the road, subject to the right of the State to alter or amend the charter?—for if it does, what becomes of the right of the people locally affected to fix freights? Suppose a State proceeds against a road for forfeiture of its charter on account of not complying with the schedule of freights authorized by its railroad commissioners, and seizes the road, and it afterwards turns out that the schedule was not just or reasonable, can the railroad bring a suit in the United States Court to recover damages and its charter, or both, or is the State the final arbiter of what is just and reasonable under its right to alter or amend the charter? This point was not touched upon, we believe, in the Dartmouth College case, but it surely is important. Mr. Matthew Carpenter might employ his summer profitably in the consideration of it, as also the question what effect, if passed, the Civil-Rights Bill and the XIVth and XVth Amendments would have on these new branches of corporate law. There is clearly a great field for acute speculation here. Meanwhile, we are glad to see that a simple principle has been evoked and adopted by those who discuss the question, which does indeed contain an undoubted truth, but the importance of which we believe has never before in the history of railroads been so thoroughly grasped—and that is, the great maxim cited by Mr. Mitchell in his report with full and sincere approval in these words, that "there is nothing that the Government wants which it cannot take."

Correspondence

ORIGIN OF THE JOHN BROWN SONG.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I can vouch for the fact that some verses of the John Brown Song were familiar in the camp of the Second Massachusetts Infantry at West Roxbury before the Twelfth Regiment, afterwards organized at Fort Warren, Boston Harbor, came into existence, the first-named regiment being mustered May 11, and the latter June 26, 1861. The verses sung by our men were: "John Brown's body lies mouldering in the ground," "John Brown's knapsack is strapped upon his back," and "He's gone to be a soldier in the army of the Lord." Whether the two latter are among those of which Mr. Hall claims the authorship, I do not know. The first evidently antedates the existence of either regiment. The tune we always regarded as an old camp-meeting air, and certainly is the same to which in former years graceless bacchanalians were accustomed to chant their favorite ditty concerning the "old whiskey-bottle" which "stood empty on the shelf." In Mr. White's ears it may also have a "blackberrying" character, whatever meaning that epithet may have been intended to convey.—Very respectfully,

S. M. Quincy,
Late Captain Second Massachusetts Volunteers.

Boston, August 9, 1874.

Notes.

McPHERSON'S 'Handbook of Politics for 1874' (Washington: Solomons & Chapman) covers the two years ending July 15, 1874, and has unusual value as a record of political action, both State and National. The history of the salary-grab, all the financial measures of Congress, its coquetting with the transportation question, the supplementary civil-rights bill; the President's messages, orders, and proclamations, his dealings with the troubled States of Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas; proposed amendments to the Federal and State Constitutions; Geneva and San Juan awards; and a great variety of election and fiscal statistics, are presented in this compact volume, making it as indispensable as any of its predecessors.——A transcript of the classification and English-Latin terminology of the provisional nomenclature of diseases, drawn up by the Royal College of Physicians, London, and now officially adopted for the use of medical officers of the United States Marine Hospital Service, has been prepared by the supervising surgeon, Dr. John M. Woodworth, with the assistance of Dr. Frank W. Reilly, and just printed at Washington. It will undoubtedly be regarded by the medical profession at large as a very valuable and very convenient aid to the uniform statistical registration of diseases. The French, German, and Italian equivalents of the original are omitted from this transcript.——Roberts Bros.' fall announcements consist mainly of reprints of English publications—Hamerton's 'Etching and Etchers' and 'Sylvan Year'; Tyrwhitt's 'Our Sketching Club'; Mätzner's 'English Grammar'; Besant's 'French Humorists'; 'Madame Récamier's Correspondence'; 'Correspondence of Rev. Dr. Channing and Lucy Aiken'; Bates's 'Naturalist on the River Amazons'; Helps's 'Life of Thomas Brassey'; and a new Christmas story by Christina G. Rossetti. The American list includes one translation from the French (by S. R. Crocker), viz., George Sand's 'My Sister Jeannie'; and three juveniles, by Robert T. S. Lowell, "Susan Coolidge," and Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton.——The Fifth Cincinnati Industrial Exposition will be opened September 2, and con-

tinue till October 4. The directors say of it that it will be the largest ever held in the United States, and the most representative of the country at large. We have also received notice of the Second International Exhibition of Chili, which will be opened at Santiago September 16, 1875. Intending exhibitors from this country should address the president of the Exhibition not later than the first of next December. All necessary information can be had of the Chilian consuls in our leading cities. Special premiums are announced as follows: $1,000 gold for the best style of narrow-gauge railroad and equipment; the same for the best system of measuring and distributing water for purposes of irrigation; $500 for the best exploring-drill adapted to mining operations.——H. O. Houghton & Co. have secured the contract for publishing the 'United States Official Postal-Guide' for five years. This is a guaranty of its being done well. The publication will be quarterly, beginning October 1.

—It may be helpful to those who have made private collections in the vast field of works illustrating the history of slavery and its abolition in this country, to learn that the completest one now accessible to the public is probably that in the library of Cornell University, the nucleus of which was deposited by the late Rev. S. J. May; and, so far as our information extends, it is the most deserving of future increase by similar accessions. We understand that Prof. Willard Fiske contemplates printing a condensed one-line catalogue of this department, for which, however, there are no special funds at his disposal. Contributions for this purpose would doubtless be very acceptable, and would serve the useful end of making known the richness and the deficiencies of the Cornell collection. Meantime, books and pamphlets of all sorts, and particularly files of the anti-slavery periodicals, bound or unbound, would be as thankfully received. There is an especial lack of the representative literature of the Pennsylvania abolitionists.

—President White of Cornell University reads on Wednesday, the 5th instant, before the National Educational Association at Detroit, an address on the American college system, which deserves attention, not so much for the conclusions which he reaches, as for the criticisms which he makes and the manner in which he makes them. We have, it seems, in the United States three hundred and sixty institutions bearing the name of "college" or "university"; but, according to Mr. White, "with very few exceptions, these colleges and universities are without anything approaching complete faculties, without libraries giving any idea of the present condition of knowledge, without illustrative collections for study, without laboratories for experiment, with next to no modern apparatus and instruments. This is true of the whole country, but it is more sadly true of those States outside the original thirteen." American colleges he declares emphatically to be mostly "a multitude of little sectarian schools with pompous names and poor equipment, each doing its best to prevent the establishment of any institution broader and better." A stranger arriving in one of our new university towns would be surprised to find, Mr. White says, the railroad station, the lunatic-asylum, the poor-house, and the county jail all better buildings, better heated, ventilated, and equipped than "the dormitories, recitation, and lecture-rooms where live and move the young men who are to make or mar the state." Going further, "he finds that the inmates of the asylums have good food well prepared; he finds the inmates of colleges generally supplied with poor food badly prepared; he finds young men of sedentary and scholarly pursuits living in families where vinegar and grease are combined by the worst cookery in the world to form a diet which would destroy the stomachs of woodchoppers." A comparison of these institutions with Oxford, Cambridge, the University of Berlin, or the Ecole Polytechnique, naturally results in favor of the latter, particularly when we consider the misdirected and foolish endowments to which ignorant private liberality is continually leading. Mr. White mentions one or two cases which he says are well known—the gift to "a weak denominational college" in one State of a powerful telescope which is unfortunately useless, owing to the fact that no one has given or made any provision for an observatory or an observer; in another case a "splendid geological collection," which is useless for analogous reasons; in another case, an herbarium, and in another, a mineralogical collection, which, there being no professor of botany to use the first, nor of mineralogy for the other, are also useless. This is a dark picture, but overdrawn. By leaving out of view the two most really successful universities in the United States, Harvard and Yale, Mr. White reaches the conclusion that our college system is a complete failure, and that the time has now come for a national university free from sectarian control; and severely censures those who are continually "groaning over and scolding at everything supposed to contravene ultra doctrines of non-interference and the ultra *laissez-faire* policy." His continual reference to the barrenness of the higher education in the "States *outside* the original thirteen" is rather misleading; for it is certainly in the States *inside* the original thirteen that we should expect to find, and do find, the best universities, and why we should forget that these are in existence we do not understand.

—Before the same association Dr. Edward H. Clarke, author of 'Sex in Education,' read a paper on the "building of a brain"; the question being the consideration of the means necessary for the production of the best brain consistent with the highest physical development of the race. The address contains nothing which those familiar with Dr. Clarke's views as to the education of the sexes will find very new, though it may be well enough to notice the fact (inasmuch as he is continually referred to as a rabid opponent of the higher education for women) that he declares himself of opinion that to carry on a proper investigation into the effect on education which "periodicity" ought to be allowed, "the community must be provided with a class of intelligent and well-educated female physicians." The lecture begins with this curious bit of speculation:

"No race of humankind has yet obtained a permanent foothold upon this continent. The Asiatics trace back their life in Asia so far that the distance between to-day and their recorded starting-point seems like a geologic epoch. The descendants of the Ptolemies still linger about the Nile. The race that peopled Northern Europe, when Greece and Rome were young, not only retains its ancient place and power, but makes itself felt and heard throughout the world. On this continent races have been born, and lived, and disappeared. Mounds at the West, vestiges in Florida, and traces elsewhere, proclaim at least two extinct races. The causes of their disappearance are undiscovered. We only know that they are gone. The Indian whom our ancestors confronted was losing his hold on the continent when the Mayflower anchored in Plymouth Bay, and is now rapidly disappearing also. It remains to be seen if the Anglo-Saxon race, which has ventured upon a continent that has proved the tomb of antecedent races, can be more fortunate than they in maintaining a permanent grasp upon this Western world. One thing, at least, is sure—it will fail, as previous races have failed, unless it can produce a physique and a brain capable of meeting successfully the demands that our climate and civilization make upon it."

Those who find their spirits affected by this gloomy view of the future of the great American people, may console themselves by reflecting that in Europe also there have been prehistoric races, while the disappearance of the Indian must be credited rather to the superior vitality, craft, and strength of the whites, particularly those connected with the Indian Bureau, than to any inherent deadliness of climate or of soil.

—In an address delivered on the 24th of June at New Haven, Dr. Woolsey gave an interesting history of the Yale Law School. The address is an admirable example of what such a paper ought to be at the present time, when there is an effort going on all over the country to purify and elevate not only the tone of colleges and universities but of professional schools as well. That the law schools have hitherto been regarded by all concerned rather as a training-ground for the pleading of causes, giving advice to clients, and the defence of criminals, is, as Dr. Woolsey intimates, only too true. But the opportunity has unquestionably come for awakening in the minds of students interests higher than these; for making such schools "the place of instruction in all sound learning relating to the foundations of justice, the history of law, the doctrine of government, to all those branches of knowledge which the most finished statesman and legislator ought to know." The multiplication of flourishing scientific and technological schools makes the following remarks on a subject which was discussed some time ago in the *Nation* highly valuable; they deserve wide reproduction:

"The sciences of nature have grown immensely in theoretical and practical importance during the last century, and for a long time to come it is probable this growth will be unobstructed. Our system here is such that all new discoveries, all new sciences, with their practical applications, must form a part of it, and an increasingly important part. Now, these sciences have to do with natural law only, and their applications affect the development of the material side of civilization. There is danger, therefore, that the balance between body and spirit, the natural and the moral world, will be disturbed, which would be a state of things fraught with danger to the best interests of man. For this reason, I desire to see all the sciences flourish side by side; the moral in their full power by the side of the natural in theirs. Only so can the best interests of society and of the individual man be promoted and a harmony be maintained in human culture."

—It must be very seldom that criticism produces so good a result as it has just wrought among the Oneida Community. Its efficacy we dare say may be due to the fact that the person subjected to examination was to the end unaware of his having been criticised at all, and that his critics had furthermore the exceptional advantage of being able to keep him under duress, and if necessary to employ coercion in the enforcement of their conclusions. Every week, as we understand it, the Oneida people meet together for a full and free discussion of each other's manifestations of character, and for hearing suggestions as to the amendment of each other's faults. If, for instance, D appears to C to be engrossing himself too much in worldly affairs, C so affirms in the assembly, and the matter becomes the subject of debate. So it goes throughout, and we do not hear of any ill consequences,

though it is not difficult to conceive of circles which it would take about one monthly meeting of this general description to rend asunder for years—perhaps for ever. At one of the late meetings of the Oneida critics the case was brought up of a lad designated as B. B has seen but ten summers, and it is hardly surprising to learn that among the traits which have been observed in him are selfishness, heedlessness, an inability to understand the nature of obedience, and a marked determination at all times to indulge his appetite for food with an entire disregard of ensuing consequences. But these native dispositions of boyhood have in the instance of this boy been developed to such excess that to the whole house his case appears one of genuine possession, and it was judged by the meeting that, though at times the boy was seemingly under a good influence and behaved as he ought, he still required the united prayers of the community and something more besides. Only two suggestions made at the meeting appear to have been thought important by the recorder. One was of so general, desultory, vague, and useless a character that it is easy to see that the true American criticism has an abiding-place in Oneida also; the brother making it thought that B might seek "to learn self-respect"; this being attained, the various points in B's affair, which it was the sole business of the meeting to discuss and settle, would fall into harmony. Brother N was less broad and more particular; he thought from things which he had noticed that what ailed B was that his alimentiveness was inordinate. He was a greedy eater. It was probable, then, that the devil controlling B was one of those of whom it is said that "this kind goeth not out but by prayer and fasting"; abstinence from food was therefore the regimen for B. The other members agreed with Brother N. From B personally nothing whatever is now heard; it is, however, asserted by Brother K that already he is much more docile—a result which may well be credited.

—We have been permitted to make the following extract from a private letter, addressed by Mr. Bonamy Price, Professor of Political Economy of Oxford, to an American friend who had sent him a copy of Mr. Schurz's speech on the currency—the second of those two remarkable efforts which did so much at the last session to delay and baffle the designs of the inflationists:

"I consider Mr. Carl Schurz's speech to be the ablest one ever made on banking in any parliament. Its range and its solidity are wonderful. The subject all the world knows to be most intricate, and to be singularly exposed to all kinds of arbitrary but very pretentious theory. Mr. Schurz has followed the only scientific method—rigorous analysis; and the result is a body of detailed doctrine which almost throughout will bear the test of the closest examination. I conceive that he has rendered a great service to his country as well as to political economy."

We are happy to be able to state that Professor Price is about to visit the United States, leaving England on the 20th of September.

—There seems to be no doubt left that Mr. James Greenwood, a London journalist and man of letters whose name is known on both sides of the water, has really destroyed his reputation in a very graceless manner. At first it was hoped that he might be able to extricate himself from his difficulty; the latest accounts, however, leave but little for the hope to go upon. The charge against him is his having either made out of whole cloth, or else vamped up from a newspaper article a generation old, a horrible story of a contest which, as he alleged, took place a few weeks ago at a place called Hanley, in Staffordshire. As he described it, this contest was a fight between a bull-dog on the one side and a half-witted dwarf on the other. Among the conditions of the fight was one to the effect that if the man should knock the dog senseless for sixty seconds victory should be considered as belonging to him, while if the dog on his part should "pin" the man so as to endanger his life and disable him from rescuing himself, victory should be the dog's, who, however, should in no case be allowed to make an end of his antagonist. Mr. Greenwood's story pictured the revolting appearance of the misshapen dwarf, the eagerness of the dog, the brutish bloodthirstiness of the spectators, the fierce onslaught of the combatants upon each other, and did it vividly and, to say the least of it, at all necessary length. He professed, however, to be horror-stricken at the sight of the ferocious details, and as long as his story was supposed to be a truthful one, there was assuredly no dearth of people, both gentlemen and ladies, to sympathize with him in this creditable feeling, and to say that it was no wonder that after half an hour of it he felt as if he should like to quit the room, could he have managed to do so. But since it has been more than suspected that his whole account was fabulous, some of his readers have rather doubted about this delicacy of his, and indeed have thought that in reality he was content to stay as close to the ropes as he could get, and probably to offer five shillings for a better place. To tell the truth, some of Mr. Greenwood's former writings are of a kind which, as the reader looks back at them in the light of this revelation, are seen to be entirely in keeping with the willing invention or utilization of this latest horror. We remember in one of his books descriptions of life among the remote islands of the South Sea which give a most ghastly illustration of the truth that the dark places of the earth are full of the habitations of cruelty. Compared to Mr. Greenwood's writing, other writings of the same general character as those of his which belong in the list we have in mind, are as the cruelty of an ordinary homicide is to the fiendishness of the boy Pomeroy. This is perhaps rather strong language; but if we may trust our memory it is not very much out of the way. The London paper in which Mr. Greenwood's article was published was the *Telegraph*, a sensational journal which has more than once been similarly victimized—if that term may be used to indicate its relations to the affair. We suppose it may be so used; but some of the *Telegraph's* rivals in London may probably have come to such a view slowly. The police and other local authorities of the village where Mr. Greenwood placed his arena, before long gave an indignant denial of the whole story, and so far Mr. Greenwood has failed to make it appear that he can find the house where the combat is said to have taken place, or can in any way strengthen his case as it stands. Meanwhile, it is reported that an occurrence such as he narrated did take place in or about Hanley many years ago, and that it got into print. It may be forgotten by some; but Mr. Greenwood is the reporter who years ago brought a leading London journal its first journalistic success, as we say on this side of the water, by spending a night in a London "casual ward," and writing out a very graphic narrative of his experience, bath and all.

—A writer in the *New Quarterly Review*, who evidently has had access to new facts about Lord Macaulay, makes an interesting if rather disappointing article about that author. Mr. Gladstone's quoted remark that the English public has an insatiable interest in everything belonging to Lord Macaulay probably strikes rather oddly on an American ear; but there is no doubt that anything about him new and really worth telling would be gladly heard in this country as well as in England. Mr. Matthew Arnold's much-approved German shopkeeper, who reads Macaulay's 'History of England' after the shutters are up, could, we think, be fairly matched in each individual case by an American of the shopkeeping variety—or, as we say, storekeeping variety. This we venture to assert without committing ourselves to any opinion at all in regard to the numbers in which the German shopkeeper, as above described, may exist. Mr. Arnold finds him very commonly; but although the world has been extremely German for the last two or three years, and the reaction has not yet set in, observers have nevertheless not been wanting who have found in the hands of the burghers nothing like so many 'Histories of England' as Mr. Arnold might lead one to suppose. There is no doubt, however, about the steadiness of his lordship's reasonable popularity among Americans. Our *Quarterly Review* writer has not in his repertory very much that is new, but among other things he brings to light a scrap of literary history which fits in neatly with a portion of the fabric already known to the public. It is in the shape of a copy of Lord Orrery's 'Letters on Swift's Life and Writings,' which, judging by the pencilled dates on the first page and the last, Macaulay read through on the 23d of July, 1835, and in the margins of which he wrote critical comments as he went along. Macaulay has not forgotten to remark with his customary softness and suavity on this sort of marginal notes, and "it is pretty to observe" how well their usual character is illustrated by these of his own now before us: On one page he writes "A most prodigious ass"; on another, "Really this book makes one ashamed of being a human being." Lord Orrery, writing about the voyage to the Houyhnhnms, says that it is a real insult to mankind, and Macaulay scribbles over against Orrery's remark, "This book is a real insult to mankind"; at the end of the first chapter, he comments "wretchedly written"; at the beginning of a letter in which Orrery addresses his son (Hamilton Boyle) as "Dear Ham," Macaulay writes: "One would think this was a letter from Noah"; "I am induced to believe," says Orrery: "What induced you?" says Macaulay; again, we have "Trash," "Folly," "Shame, shame." It may be worth while to cite this rather trivial array as making for the comfort of such readers as can recollect similar records of opinions of their own inditing, now irrecoverably scattered here and there up and down the world.

—Some of Macaulay's annotations are not of the kind above-quoted. Thus this one is suggestive: Orrery having said something about Swift and his position as a leader among the Tories, Macaulay says: "Orrery was very ill-informed. The minister would doubtless have been glad to do anything for Swift, but I am inclined to think that the place which Swift occupied in the Tory party, though far higher than that which Orrery assigns to him, was below that which he stated and perhaps fancied that he occupied." A useful part of the article is that in which some attempt is made to do justice to Macaulay's Indian career, which, "bumptiously" as it was managed and much as it has since been decried in all its parts, has here its merits insisted upon. Among these was certainly not the set of imaginary

cases which he drew up to illustrate his Code, and which is in many instances very funny. Several of the cases relate to practical joking, from which form of wit Macaulay is said to have often derived great suffering and furnished corresponding entertainment in his somewhat priggish youth. Mindful of these, the lawgiver, when he came to frame his system, devised or supposed various arrangements of circumstances in each of which A, the practical joker, pursues Z, the victim, but by-and-by discovers that

"These violent delights have violent ends."

Thus A, having assured Z that the dog which A then has in charge is an exceedingly savage dog, and will to a certainty mutilate or destroy Z in case Z continues to go along a certain path, if Z thus persuaded does not proceed on his way by that path, although he might have done so, the dog being really one of the mildest dogs in the world, it is held that A nevertheless wrongfully restrains Z. On two other finely imagined occasions it is held that A assaults Z, and altogether A is closely watched after.

WINCHELL ON THE DOCTRINE OF EVOLUTION.*

AMONG the numerous persons who have of late examined the doctrine of evolution is Prof. Alexander Winchell, of the University of Syracuse, and late the chancellor or presiding officer of that institution. Prof. Winchell was better prepared than most who have attacked the doctrine, by previous preparation in practical biology, having labored in descriptive geology and palæontology with tolerable success, and having also some knowledge of zoölogy and botany. Thus armed, he compiled and delivered "a couple of lectures before the Drew Theological Seminary, on the 10th and 15th of December, 1873," and these were subsequently embodied in the essay now under review. Prof. Winchell discusses "evolution" in a very systematic manner: First, "(A) evolution in the physical world," and, second, "(B) evolution in the organic world"; and, under the latter head, he considers the "facts of coexistence" and "facts of succession," thence infers that "an evolution of ideas exists," asks, "Is there a genetic evolution of organic types?" and examines at considerable length the facts bearing on the question; reviews the assertions made respecting "spontaneous generation," and concludes the systematic argument with a survey of the "theistic bearings of the doctrine of evolution." An appendix, however, is added, in which he gives and endorses the arguments of "Barrande *versus* Darwin."

"Evolution," says Prof. Winchell, "in the language of Spencer, is the transformation of the homogeneous, through successive differentiations, into the heterogeneous. *The type of the process is the development of the embryo within the egg*, but it is supposed to be exemplified in all progress, whether in the development of the earth, or of life upon the earth," etc. In other words, according to Spencer (and scientists generally), evolution is the expression of phenomena determined in progressive sequence, and whose factors are found in the pre-existent stages of such sequence. Yet, according to our author, "evolution is thus a mode of succession of phenomena—a law of sequence. It is not a force, but a plan, in accordance with which force acts. We may also say, it is the total result of the action of the evolving force." And he continues: "No one can recognize the steps of an evolution without recognizing the operation of some force acting upon matter and producing motion. Evolution, therefore, implies force. Hence the question which presents itself is twofold: 1. As to the *fact* of such a succession of phenomena as constitutes an evolution; 2. As to the nature and mode of action of the force causing evolution."

It will thus be seen that the idea of the existence of factors in previous conditions of the sequence is not, in Prof. Winchell's opinion, an integral element of the doctrine of evolution. According to his interpretation of evolution, he is an evolutionist; but he applies diametrically opposite modes of interpretation to the consideration of the facts relating to the inorganic and those relating to the organic creation. In the one case he concludes that "no determined opposition is likely to be manifested to the doctrine of evolution [in the usual sense] as applied to the physical world. At least, no such opposition is likely to come from well-read thinkers. It is within the domain of organic nature that the modern controversy chiefly exists" (p. 27). In the other case, "it is believed and generally admitted that no reflecting person can survey the phenomena of palæontological history without being impressed by the conviction that the succession of forms is in the main such as constitutes a method of evolution" (p. 36); but it is not the result of successive genetic relations. On the one hand, he insists on the elementary similarity of all inorganic matter and compounds, from the earth and its (inorganic) contents to an assumed cosmical vapor (pp. 21, 22). He exults in the range of variation of the heavenly bodies: "from the most attenuated vapor to the habitable earth, and even the frozen and fossilized moon," he remarks, "all possible stages and conditions of cooling are gradually held forth to view in the aspects which the mighty firmament presents to the eye of science" (p. 25). He dilates on the correspondence of the successive changes which each planet has undergone from youth to age with more etherealized bodies (p. 24), and on the identity of the primitive condition of each with a universal "star-dust," and he finds the factors of such evolution in physical forces. On the other hand, he explicitly, or by implication, admits the homological similarity or identity between species of the various groups of animals and plants; the range of variation in such groups, at one extreme, tending to specialization, and at the other to generalization, or greater likeness to older forms; the correspondence of the successive changes which each form undergoes, in its actual development from the egg to the adult condition, with more generalized forms; the correspondence (but with some limitations) of the earlier inhabitants of the earth with the earlier embryonic conditions of existing forms; the similarity of contiguous faunas, in time as well as in space; and the variability of species, and their capacity to deviate largely under certain conditions (the influence of man) from the typical form; but he finds it necessary to invoke constant divine interference in accordance with plan.

He not only admits the propositions to which we have referred, but exaggerates some of them to an absurd degree. Passing over his acceptance of "four categories of fundamental structure," and his remarks on them, the following passage meets us: "Every vertebrated animal resembles every other vertebrated animal in a hundredfold more particulars than enter into its resemblance to a molluscous or an articulated or a radiated animal. These vertebrates are all constructed on a particular plan, insomuch that, differ as they may—as widely as a fish from a bird—we find limb answering to limb, cranium to cranium, bone to bone, and, to a great extent, nerve to nerve, and muscle to muscle," and so on (p. 28). Professor Winchell's studies have indeed been of little value if we may measure his knowledge by such remarks; and with such evidences of want of conception of the nature of homologies and delusion respecting "plans" and "archetypes," we need not be surprised at his failure to appreciate the significance of morphological facts. The same misconception and ignorance prevail in his remarks on embryology, the "geological succession of organic types," etc. Thus, the antiquated errors that "the chick in the egg assumes in succession the aspect of a fish, a snake," etc.; that man "assumes in succession the aspect of a seal," etc. (p. 29), are repeated, and analogous errors are abundant. Only one, however, need be specified, and that only because of the strangeness of the logic and the diametrical contrariety of the inference to facts. "*The action of the physical influence is often, if not always, against the development of the organic modification which appears in correlation with it*," says Professor Winchell (the italics are his own), and, applying this proposition to the giraffe, he asserts that "it is not conceivable that physical forces should conduce to an organic modification which proceeds in a direction diametrically opposed to the direction of those forces. Now, no one can deny that the elongated forelegs of the giraffe stand in as intimate relation to its wants as its elongated neck or tongue. But the *physical* force acting upon the legs is the weight of the animal, which tends rather to shorten than to lengthen them" (p. 72)! But it is notorious that exercise calls into more active development the parts exercised, as the arms of the blacksmith, the legs of the dancer, etc.; and observation of his own or neighbors' children would have shown Professor Winchell that the legs of the new-born and crawling infant are much shorter, relatively to the trunk as well as to the arms, than in the erect youth or full-grown man, and that they grow with the demand for use; indeed, the increase in size of the posterior members is to such an extent co-ordinated with tendency to the vertical position that it has been even formulated into a generalization or "law" to that effect.

The confusion of ideas in the appreciation and arrangement of facts is evinced even in a simple "conspectus of theories of the origin of species." After a primary division into believers in "immediate creation" ("in single pairs," and "in colonies—Agassiz") and believers in "derivation (mediate creation)," he groups the latter in three primary subdivisions: in one ("through a force which is a mode of the Unknowable"), we have Herbert Spencer alone; in the second ("through external forces"), De Maillet, Darwin, Haeckel, Huxley, and Wallace are ranked; and in a third ("through an internal force, influenced by external conditions"), Lamarck, Hyatt, and Cope, Owen, Mivart, and Kölliker, are grouped. As a matter of fact, although several of the scientists referred to (*e.g.*, Lamarck and Cope) invoke the

* 'The Doctrine of Evolution: its Data, its Principles, its Speculations, and its Theistic Bearings. By Alexander Winchell, LL.D.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

'Trilobites. I. Résumé général de nos études sur l'évolution des Trilobites. II. Distribution verticale des Trilobites, dans le bassin silurien de la Bohême. III. Parallèle entre les Trilobites et les Céphalopodes siluriens de la Bohême. IV. Epreuve des théories paléontologiques par la réalité. Extrait du Supplément au Vol. I. du Système Silurien du centre de la Bohême. Par Joachim Barrande.' Chez l'auteur et éditeur. A Paris; à Prague. 1871.

active agency of appetency, or acquisition by endeavors, all acknowledge that the main cause of being and variation is "a force, which is a mode of the Unknowable," or, if it is preferred, a manifestation of the divine power, and differ chiefly in their estimate as to the origin of "new" forms, whether by insensible gradations or abruptly, and as to the extent to which characters persist or become transmitted and disseminated on account of the superior adaptation of such characters to the surrounding conditions, and their consequent survival when a "struggle for existence" arises. All even, practically, admit the operation of natural selection to a greater or less extent, for the biological aphorism that teleology (or structural adaptation) is, in comparison with morphology (or structure independent of function), a very unsafe guide in classification, involves the admission of the influence of natural selection in the long run.

While such errors in the appreciation of facts and their relations exist, errors of logic are evident in Prof. Winchell's presentation of objections. Thus, it is stated that "the great stubborn fact which every form of the theory encounters at the outset is that, notwithstanding variations, we are ignorant of a single instance of the derivation of one good species from another" (pp. 53–54), and reference is made to the persistence in time of certain forms, and the assertion ventured that "specific flexibility exists only within limits." A *petitio principii* in this case is involved, and the existence of species as a fixed category assumed. Thus, as long as two distinct forms exist between which no intermediate ones are known, those forms are called "species"; but as soon as intermediate forms are discovered, those previously called "species" (although still preserving the same characters in their extremes) are degraded to the rank of varieties, and as it is assumed that "species" are "created" as such, while "varieties" are simply modified descendants of the created specific types, the creationist bases his faith entirely on negative evidence. From the nature of his standpoint and assumptions, he is proof against any evidence, and accounts for everything by attributing to some species great uniformity, and to others excessive variability. He nevertheless practically admits that, except as to creation and natural birth, there is only a difference of degree between species and varieties. Those conversant with the history of science can recall countless examples illustrating this logical fallacy. And here reference may properly be made to the assertion that all domesticated races revert to their original "specific" type as soon as they become feral. The assertion is unfounded, the fact being that we are even unable to recognize in wild animals the originals of some of our domesticated forms; and in the diversity of the feral breeds of horses, cattle, etc., in the pampas of South America and the steppes of Asia, we have refutation of the trite error. It is quite true that in many cases characters peculiar to domestication are gradually eliminated, and for the very good reason that characters which may be objects of cultivation by man may be of no service, but the contrary, to the animals, and when his fostering care is withdrawn those characters will disappear. But complete reversion, in the cases of much modified types, is not attained.

Great emphasis is laid on the sterility of certain hybrids and comparative fertility of domesticated races among themselves (p. 54), the author, in common with most objectors, having overlooked the fact that the sterile hybrids in the cases chiefly invoked (*e.g.*, mules between horses and asses) are the offspring not of different species, but different genera. Again, there are differences in degree of fertility, and this towards both extremes—for if, on the one hand, distantly related species tend to barrenness, on the other hand, especially among plants, too closely related members of the same species also are disposed to become sterile, on the principle that "nature abhors close fertilization." But, in truth, all the clamor respecting hybridity is out of place, since our knowledge either way is as yet very slight, and hybrids between the most diverse species exist in a state of nature, as, for example, between different *generic* types of Cyprinoid fishes, as recognized by Siebold and other European naturalists, while, in our own country, we have a notable case of hybrids of every degree between two species of woodpecker (*Colaptes auratus* and *C. mexicanus*) at the confines of the ranges of the two. It is true, however, that such cases are exceptional, and the rule is that brutes prefer the society of their own kind—in which they very much resemble the human race.

A considerable portion of the volume is devoted to a summary and endorsement of an argument by M. Barrande against evolution. M. Barrande, as Prof. Winchell remarks, "is one of the most eminent of living geologists. Almost a lifetime has been devoted by him to the study of the Silurian rocks of Bohemia." By the most assiduous personal endeavors and a lavish outlay of money, he has collected vast material, which he has elaborated with considerable manual and literary skill, embodying the results of his studies in several large and finely illustrated volumes. His reputation as a careful and conscientious worker and detailer of facts of observation is irreproachable, but he does not enjoy an equal reputation as a systematist, and his work indeed too plainly evinces a want of systematic ability. Nevertheless, he has published an argument which has not only received the approbation of Prof. Winchell, but arrested Principal Dawson in his progress toward evolution, and converted him into a bitter antagonist. It is well, therefore, to ask what there is in his argument so striking and convincing.

M. Barrande essays to contrast palæontological theories with the reality ("Epreuve des théories paléontologiques par la réalité"). After a preliminary reference to the insufficiency of our knowledge of the ante-primordial era, he very reasonably postulates that the indispensable criterion of every law is that it should be in accordance with the facts; and then, admitting *Eozoon* as the first representative of animal life on the globe, and assuming that if the doctrine of evolution were true, we should have a graduated manifestation of life in the rocks, he proceeds to enquire if there is a concordance between the assumption and the reality. He examines the zoölogical composition of the primordial fauna; notes the absence of foraminifera and polyps in all the stages of that fauna; the absence of acephalous mollusks during the same period, and the contrast with the development of the brachiopods; the absence of heteropod mollusks up to one of the last stages of the period; the absence of cephalopods during the entire primordial epoch; the discordance between the numbers of trilobites in this fauna and (assumed) theoretical laws of animal evolution; and the absence of intermediate forms between the types represented in the primordial fauna; describes the zoölogical composition of the Cambrian (or next succeeding) fauna; and concludes with a contrast of what *he* thinks should be if evolution were a verity, and what are the facts according to his knowledge. His view of what should be if evolution were true is most remarkable, and would, it is safe to say, be repudiated with derision by every scientific evolutionist, and his arguments, so far as they are to the point, have been presented more forcibly by evolutionists, and especially by Prof. Huxley, in his articles on the persistence of types. It is of course entirely true, as M. Barrande says, that "the indispensable criterion of every law is that it should be in accordance with the facts," but if all the facts known are in such accordance that should suffice. M. Barrande's argument, however, (and that of his disciples) is based entirely on negative evidence. How unsatisfactory such evidence is a very slight acquaintance with palæontology will assure one. And the question is really, Which alternative is the more probable?—for there are practically only two prominent hypotheses of the origin of life on the globe. On the one hand, it is contended that all animals and plants were created with their actual characteristics, which should be invariable, so that, when changed conditions arose, they should succumb, to be succeeded by other created beings. On the other hand, it is asserted that all animals and plants are and have been the descendants, with more or less modifications, of pre-existent forms, and that they were endowed with a variability which should enable them, in certain of their descendants, to find their fitting place under all the natural conditions which the world in its changes might undergo. It is further urged (and more or less admitted by anti-evolutionists) that the various categories of subordination in the relations of animals, the embryological development of the individual, the geological succession of forms, the geographical distribution of animals, the correspondence of these series, the existence of rudimentary structures, the subordination of teleology to morphology, and the adaptation of the form to its surroundings, are such as would result from descent with modification; and the power of procreation, and the greater or less variability of the offspring, are the factors and efficient causes of evolution—and in these phenomena, the subject of daily observation, we have rational explanations of the facts of the relationship, development, and succession of organic life.

The problems of the origin of organic beings are, in fact, simply these: Have all forms primarily resulted from the miraculous combination of elemental atoms into living tissues; or, have they been born of previously existing forms? One or other *must* be the case, and any repudiation of direct creation and admission of derivation from a preceding form under any condition, is to that extent an admission of actual evolution. It is true, the breaks in the animal and plant series are numerous—extremely numerous—and of great extent; and, if evolution be true, the origin of life must extend back so far that the present known representation from the primordial to the present epoch can only be the smaller portion. But we have simply to ask ourselves, which is the more probable—that the phenomena so exactly (so far as they go) accordant with theoretical evolution are the result of periodical and miraculous combinations of "elemental atoms into living tissues," in accordance with a "plan" without evident purpose; or, that we have much to learn of former life, and that, for example, instead of knowing "more than fifty" (number of epochs, according to Agassiz)

times 250,000 (known living) animals, we only know about 100,000. One hypothesis (direct creation) is against every analogy of nature, against all experience and observation, and inconceivable in its nature; the other (evolution) is in accordance with every analogy of nature, the subject of daily observation, and perfectly comprehensible to our senses.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS AT ST. PETERSBURG.*

THIS second volume of the diary of John Quincy Adams comprises in six hundred and sixty-two octavo pages his life at St. Petersburg, the Russian mediation, and the opening of the negotiations which put an end to the War of 1812. As in the first volume, the editor has confined himself to selection and occasional omissions, leaving the author, for the most part, free to tell his own story in his own way.

It is the story of a trained diplomat, conscious of the dignity and importance of his task, and guided in every part of it by a full sense of responsibility. We have already spoken of the literary character of the work. We can but repeat our first judgment. The style is diffuse and wanting in vigor. It has none of the vivacity and freshness of the best works of its class; has no happy touches of a master's pencil, and none of that mastery of characterization which imprints the peculiar traits of a distinguished man indelibly upon the memory. The best painting in the volume is the writer's unconscious painting of himself. Of the men and women with whom he is brought into contact we do not learn much. They come and go, but leave no strong impression. Yet there is a genuine faithfulness of portraiture, which gives a favorable impression of the writer. Though a skilful diplomatist, he manifests no fondness for the crooks and tangles of diplomacy, but seems rather like a clear-headed man, bent upon the performance of his duties and familiar with them in all their extent and bearings. It may well be doubted whether, with the exception of Henry Wheaton, the United States ever sent so thoroughly trained a public servant to a European court. We have already seen him at St. Petersburg as secretary to the unaccepted legation of Mr. Dana. None of the lessons of that first school were lost upon him. His journey back to Holland, through Sweden and Denmark, was equally useful. He acquired a knowledge of that part of Europe which few had the means of acquiring, and his early-formed habit of recording the acts and experiences of each day as it passed must have been invaluable to him as an observer and a negotiator. The most important work of the diplomatist is done, not in the cabinet with both parties on their guard, but in the drawing-room and at the dinner-table, in the by-play of a lively conversation, when the attention is thoroughly aroused and revelations drop unconsciously from unguarded lips. The want of men able to bear their part in this form of negotiation has been one of the great defects of our diplomacy. Mr. Adams was a thorough French scholar, and perfectly at home in a European salon.

The Russian mission began in August, 1809, and was entered upon with a deep sense of its importance. "At this commencement of an enterprise," says the first entry in the diary, "perhaps the most important of any that I have ever in the course of my life been engaged in, it becomes me to close the day by imploring the blessing of Providence upon it, that its result may prove beneficial to my country, prosperous to my family and myself, and advantageous to all who are concerned in the voyage." One of the most interesting parts of this volume is the passage from Boston to Cronstadt, beginning amidst the heats of August and ending amid the ice of a Russian October. What food did the active mind of Adams find to feed upon while cooped up seventy-five days in the crowded cabin of a merchantman of those days, when a ship of four hundred tons was considered large? Two previous voyages—four passages across the Atlantic—had secured him against sea-sickness; but most of his companions were compelled to pay the landsman's tribute. Meanwhile, Mr. Adams reads Massillon and Plutarch. Massillon he reads like an emeritus professor of rhetoric; Plutarch he comments, with no apparent doubt that the legends of Lycurgus and Solon are genuine history. He uses his pen also, and writes letters to his children. But his pen is heavy, and, though his advice is excellent, no one would be likely to read it more than once. At last land appears—the Orkney Islands, one of them seeming about two miles long, a bleak, lonely dwelling-place. It is war time, and English naval officers are in the full tide of their insolence. A little brig compelled their ship to try to send a boat on board, although the sea ran so high as to sweep it out of its course and almost swamp it. The next morning they make land on the coast of Norway, but new obstacles await them, amounting almost to adventures. The Danish flag is an unwelcome sight, the English still more so. There is a strict blockade of the coast of Zealand, and the English admiral enforces it rigidly. As a minister, Adams is entitled to pass. He goes on board the admiral's ship to urge his claim, which, after a good deal of higgling, is allowed. In the interview he takes note of a trait of English character. "Admiral Bertie," he says, "paid all due respect to the law of nations. He said nothing uncivil or offensive; but during the whole time we were with him *he never offered us a seat.*" Mr. Adams is at a loss to decide whether the slight was accidental or intentional.

St. Petersburg is reached at last. Ministers, like common travellers, must have houses, and the weary search begins. Dinners and balls and official receptions follow; and, mixed with the gossip which characterizes such scenes, is a cautious beginning of diplomacy. The new minister is feeling his way, studying his ground, preparing himself for the serious work of his mission. He touches the key-note of it skilfully in his first audience of the Emperor. We must remember that the country represented by a United States Minister in 1809 was not the country of a United States Minister of 1874. It was a republic, which was not in its favor. It had a very small army, a still smaller navy. It had been obliged to hire a common merchantman to convey its first minister to Russia to the place of his official residence. All Europe was represented there, and with a display of wealth, a profusion of expenditure, which threw the United States Minister into the shade. There was but one way by which he could hold his ground, and that was by superior intelligence and pecuniary independence. Fortunately for himself and for his country, Mr. Adams understood his position perfectly, both all that it required and all that it imposed. He lived with a dignified propriety which commanded respect, and, instead of aiming at a rivalry of equipages and entertainments for which he had not the means, he claimed and maintained among his colleagues a rank second to none for intelligence and official distinction. He was soon on a friendly footing with most of the members of the diplomatic corps, and with some on a familiar footing. His society was courted and his opinions listened to with respect. He was welcome everywhere. Still, he was not altogether satisfied with the irregular life he was compelled to lead, and his diary contains the record of his discontent:

"We rise seldom earlier than nine in the morning," he writes, "often not long before ten. Breakfast. Visits to receive, or visits to make, until three, soon after which the night comes on. At four we dine; and pass the evening either abroad until very late, or at our lodgings with company until ten or eleven o'clock. The night parties abroad seldom break up until four or five in the morning. It is a life of such irregularity and dissipation as I cannot and will not continue to lead."

Great things were going on in Europe during Mr. Adams's mission to Russia. Napoleon reached the summit of his power and fell. The war of 1812 between the United States and England began and ended. It was the duty of Mr. Adams to watch carefully every opportunity for furthering the interests of his own country. In his first audience of the Emperor he struck, as we have already said, the key-note of our relations to Russia—friendship on the basis of a liberal commerce; Count Romanzoff had taken the same ground.

"Je dois vous prévenir," he said, "que nous sommes ici de grands Anglomanes; that the prejudices in favor of England were founded upon old habits and long-established commercial intercourse; but that the English exclusive maritime pretensions and views of usurpation upon the rights of other nations made it essential to them, and especially to Russia, that some great commercial state should be supported as their rival; that the United States of America were such a state, and the highest interest of Russia was to support and favor them, as by their relative situation the two powers could never be in any manner dangerous to each other; that he had been many years inculcating this doctrine at this Court; that the Emperor had always manifested a favorable opinion of it, and he had had the satisfaction of perceiving the sentiments of his Imperial Majesty daily becoming more confirmed in this system."

If the English were loved in Russia, the French were hated; and this, also, the American Minister learnt from various sources, one of the most important of his informants being the former Minister of Sardinia, the Comte de Maistre, celebrated for his defence of Romanism in the 'Soirées de St. Pétersbourg,' and who, like his sovereign, was living on a Russian pension. "He is a Piedmontese by birth," says Adams with unwonted sprightliness; "a Frenchman by character, a man of sense and vivacity in conversation, and, as a victim of the French Revolution, keenly smarting under the present order of things. He says he shall die here, and he has, in fact, neither home nor country to which he can return." In one of Mr. Adams's conversations we find, in a new form, Napoleon's characterization of the Russian: "Grattez le Russe, vous y trouverez le Cossaque dessous"—"Scratch a Russian and you will find the Cossack under him":

"Some Frenchmen were speaking in high terms of [the Emperor] Paul's politeness and accomplished manners. Says Diderot: 'Vous êtes bien bons de croire à cela. Ouvrez la veste; vous verrez le poil'—'You are very simple to believe that; open his vest and you will find the hair.'"

* 'Memoirs of John Quincy Adams, comprising portions of his diary from 1795 to 1848. Edited by Charles Francis Adams.' Vol. II. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

Here is a passage from a diplomatic dinner:

"The Count's dinner was very elegant, and his house is quite magnificent. I had conversation upon Spanish affairs and upon Homer with General Pardo; upon German literature and the German language with Count Einsiedel; and with Mr. Six upon the new monarchical constitution of Holland, which, he says, was principally made by himself; and upon the general situation and prospects of Europe."

But the American Minister was not always so lucky in his company. At a great dinner at the French Ambassador's, he "endeavored to amuse some of the tediousness of the day by conversation with some gentlemen of the company; but," he adds, "there are very few topics of conversation upon which I can talk with them. General Pardo, the Spanish Minister, has understanding, literature, and taste, and, withal, is perfectly accomplished in the science of cookery." We have alluded to Mr. Adams's fondness for pictures. He does not forget to note down in his diary that General Prado "had offered at Paris, for Charles the Fourth, King of Spain, three hundred and fifty thousand livres for a Death of Adonis, by Giorgione, the master of Titian, and could not get it; but that he did purchase, for one hundred and ten thousand livres, an original picture of Christopher Columbus, taken from the life by the same Giorgione."

But nowhere does Mr. Adams appear to more advantage than in his official conferences. His habits of mind were in a large degree controversial, and led him to connect his own statements by a simple but natural logic, without derogating from those of his opponent. His own ground he holds firmly but courteously, and, when the conference closes, you feel that all that the occasion warranted has been said. His thorough knowledge of his own country—then little known even to well-informed Europe—illustrated by an equally thorough knowledge of Europe, stood him on these occasions in good stead. He could talk with M. de Laval of the interests of the iron trade; he could enlighten Count Waranzoff as to the quality and abundance of American cotton and the real nature of American commerce. He could discuss international law with his colleagues, and always on an equal footing. It was his duty to make Russia feel the importance of American commerce, and if we go back to the condition of European commerce at that time we shall see that it was no easy task. Napoleon was at the height of his power, and still confident of closing the Continent to English manufactures. England was all-powerful on the ocean, and overbearing in proportion to her strength. Few as yet foresaw the marvellous change so near at hand. Meanwhile, the seeds of our own war of 1812 were ripening, and we needed sympathy if not actual aid. If Russia, at a critical juncture, used her kind offices with Denmark in our favor; if the emperor and his minister took every opportunity of expressing their interest in our prosperity, something of this good-will was owing to the good diplomacy of Mr. Adams. When war came, the sympathies of Russia, which were still with us, assumed a more definite form by an offer of mediation. England declined; but there was a moral weight in the offer which still made itself felt. The history of the "mediation" forms one of the most interesting chapters in this volume, and deserves to be thoughtfully studied. In it we meet another trained diplomatist—Albert Gallatin. Of the negotiation for peace, this volume gives us but the opening; it will form the subject of the next.

CHORLEY, PLANCHE, YOUNG, DICKENS, THACKERAY.*

THE second volume of the books for summer reading which go under the name of the "Bric-a-brac Series" has just appeared, and consists of "anecdote biographies," as Mr. Stoddard, the editor, calls them, of Thackeray and Dickens. Much more of the book is devoted to Thackeray than to Dickens—which for all reasons seems well. Freshness of interest is a thing worth seeking in volumes of the lightest and laziest of light literature; and Mr. Forster's biography so recently published, the profuse comments called out by it, and the disagreeable and disappointing light in which it sets the once idolized popular favorite, taken altogether have certainly dulled the edge of interest in Dickens, and in a great many cases have caused the interest to cease to be a pleasant and composing one. The public has in short recently heard a great deal of him, and has been surprised by finding much of what it has heard not such as it could like. With Thackeray the case is different. There is no life of him. He appears to have been from some cause or other strongly opposed to having any biography of him given to the public. We gather, indeed, from what is said here that he made it almost a dying wish that his family should, so far as they were able, prevent any publication of the kind. We may be the more pleased, then, at seeing collected together those fugitive memorials of him published scatteringly at the time of his death eleven years ago, and already much forgotten by the readers who saw them in one and another magazine. Furthermore, we may say that whatever we hear of him is pleasant, and, altogether, that to revive his memory in a couple of hundred brief pages is indeed a service to summer readers. Mr. Stoddard might have made these pages more and not been found guilty of the charge of favoritism as between Thackeray and Dickens, in spite of the scanty allowance of room accorded the latter. One source, by the bye, from which he might have taken materials he has expressly declined to approach. That is, Mr. James T. Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors,' a work of which, as it seems to us, Mr. Stoddard's remarks might create too harsh an impression. Speaking of his own collection of Thackeray papers—the collection before us—he says:

"It contains at least everything that has come within my own observation, with the exception of a lively sketch in Mr. James T. Fields's 'Yesterdays with Authors,' which I cannot accept as a faithful portrait of Thackeray, although it may perhaps reflect one side of his nature with tolerable accuracy. The writer obtrudes himself too much, and his tone, if I am not mistaken, is one of condescension towards the robust-minded gentleman who honored him with his friendship."

We suppose there is no denying Mr. Fields's obtrusion of himself to a rather trying extent in every chapter of his 'Yesterdays,' no matter who the author under consideration may be. The chapter on Miss Mitford is the least offensive in this respect, but perhaps only because in that case the curse is partly taken off by the large number of Miss Mitford's good-natured, agreeable, sometimes absurd letters. In the other chapters it is beyond denying that there is plenty of obtrusion of the author's friend. But we suspect Mr. Stoddard's depreciatory expressions are in good part based on the fact that Mr. Fields, in giving his recollections of Thackeray, was not endowed with the grace to keep to himself such stories as that of Thackeray (on a certain public occasion) making faces, and thus nearly being the death of Mr. Fields, who could see him although the rest of the audience could not. It is quite credible that to such little monkey-shines, as the sailors call them, Thackeray was not averse. That Mr. Fields has so much to say of this fun-making and roystering side of Thackeray's character, and so little of the other, is probably due to the fact that to him more of that side than of the other was shown, and it probably is fair to relieve him from the charge of entertaining a condescending feeling towards the author of 'Vanity Fair.'

We see little that is new in this volume, and miss nothing or next to nothing, we believe, of what we have read in the way of tribute to our author's memory and recollections of his life and character. Mr. Stoddard we imagine to be too great an admirer of his subject not to have been a good gleaner. Some of his matter, however, has not had so good a chance as other portions of it to escape sudden oblivion. Such are the three articles copied from *Lippincott's Magazine*, including one of no small humor, entitled "A Friend of my Childhood." This, we believe, is by a son of Mr. William B. Reed, of Philadelphia, a gentleman with whom Thackeray was on warm terms of friendship. "A Friend of my Childhood" thus begins:

"I suppose I must have pulled the bell very hard that day, for otherwise I don't think she would have kept me waiting twenty minutes, as she did. *She* was only my mother's servant-woman, whose duty was to wait upon the dinner-table and the door, the latter function being the more onerous one. Looking back at my conduct over the lapse of eighteen years, I am disposed to acknowledge that she was right in the abstract in punishing the inconsiderate impatience which made me keep the door-bell upon a continuous ring till I was let in. But how wrong did the event prove her! Scarcely was I warmed up to my work, when, turning my head, I saw a tall gentleman with broad shoulders and a round face, whose look, at first one of enquiry, and perhaps bewilderment as he tried to distinguish the house he was in search of from among a dozen, all characterized by that unity of design which in Philadelphia strikes forcibly the intelligent foreigner, suddenly changed to one of amusement, not, I thought then, unmixed with approval, as he caught sight of me at my reprehensible employment. And as I rang with a persistency which nothing can now call from me, he stood on the bottom step (for it was my mother whom he had come to see) with that expression in which I found so little discouragement."

This gentleman was Mr. Thackeray, and his acquaintance with the bell-ringer soon ripened into a good deal of intimacy.

Of the sort of writing such as is here collected, that which is produced on occasion of the death of distinguished men of some letters, is usually produced by friends and acquaintances and some by other men of letters, of more or less distinction. The fault of the first class of momentary biographers and eulogists is the venial one of warm and indiscriminate praise. That of the other—and both faults are exemplified here—is of making a professed critical estimate of the distinguished man's character and genius, an estimate which is largely a vehicle for vague language in which the author glorifies his subject and incidentally himself, and has little to say that is really accurate or worth saying. Thus, to illustrate with extreme brevity: a gentleman engaged in making reminiscences for Dickens's honor and glory and his own satisfaction and complacency will utter a manly sentiment or two, and then

* 'Bric-a-bac Series. I. Personal Reminiscences of Chorley, Planché, and Young. II. Anecdote Biographies of Thackeray and Dickens. Edited by Richard Henry Stoddard.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.

ask the reader to pause for a moment and think of the effect which it must have had upon the invalid Lady Jane to hear the noble tones of Dickens as he cheerily entered her sick-room. Whereas, according to another cited witness, if the truth was known, a mark of Dickens's speech was that he talked as if his tongue was slightly too large for his mouth. As the sort of wordy, unsubstantial, and we fear half-heartless eulogy of which we speak is still practised on due occasion by an active school of writers in England, it is worth while to recall recollections of the exuberant, high-flown way in which various kinds of people have talked of the unflagging delightfulness of Dickens, for example, in his intercourse with his daily companions, and then to contrast these recollections which we owe to incompetents and enthusiasts with the testimony of an eye-witness. In the animal spirits demanding horse-play for their expression, and in the dulness of the exhaustless humor, we seem to ourselves to get a glimpse of truth for which we suspect we should wait long and in vain from the pens of the Salas and Theodore Taylors and Blanchard Jerrolds. The narrator is a young lady, a violent admirer of "Boz," whom she met at Broadstairs:

"We then strolled farther down to watch by the fading light the tide come rippling in. The night grew darker, starless, and moonless; the only light being a lingering, lurid gleam, which touched the crest of the waves with a phosphorescent glimmer. Dickens seemed suddenly to be possessed with a demon for mischief; he threw his arm around me and ran me down the inclined plane to the end of the jetty till we reached the tall post. He put his other arm round this, and exclaimed in theatrical tones that he intended to hold me there till 'the sad sea waves' should submerge us.

"'Think of the sensation we shall create! Think of the road to celebrity which you are about to tread! No, not exactly to *tread*, but to flounder into!'

"Here I implored him to let me go, and struggled hard to release myself.

"'Let your mind dwell on the column in the *Times* wherein will be vividly described the pathetic fate of the lovely E. P., drowned by Dickens in a fit of dementia! Don't struggle, poor little bird; you are powerless in the claws of such a kite as this child!'

"By this time the gleam of light had faded out, and the water close to us looked uncomfortably black. The tide was coming up rapidly and surged over my feet. I gave a loud shriek and tried to bring him back to common sense by reminding him that 'My dress, my best dress, my *only* silk dress, would be ruined.' Even this climax did not soften him; he still went on with the serio-comic nonsense, shaking with laughter all the time, and panting with his struggles to hold me. . . .

"'Dress!' cried Dickens, with withering scorn. 'Talk not to me of *dress!* When the pall of night is enshrouding us in Cimmerian darkness, when we already stand on the brink of the great mystery, shall our thoughts be of fleshly vanities? Am I not immolating a brand-new pair of patent leathers still unpaid for? Perish such low-born thoughts! In this hour of abandonment to the voice of destiny, shall we be held back by the puerilities of silken raiment? Shall leather or prunella (whatever that may be) stop the bolt of Fate?' with a sudden parenthetical sinking from bombast to familiar accents, and back again."

The first volume of the "Bric-a-brac Series" is, if anything, more agreeable reading than the second. It is made up of extracts from the recently-published personal reminiscences of Henry Chorley, the well-known musical critic; J. R. Planché, the playwright and manager; and Julian Young, son of the celebrated actor. Mr. Stoddard, we see, has so contrived it that each of his reminiscents throws some light on the other; several of the people mentioned by one of them coming in also for mention by another, and the one taking one view of them, the other another. Thus Rogers, the poet, was an acquaintance of Mr. Planché's, who liked him, and in a way was an acquaintance of Mr. Chorley's, who may have liked him. For instance, he thus speaks of the old gentleman: "Few old men have ever shown a more mortifying behavior to a young one than Mr. Rogers from the first to the last displayed towards me," and it appears that almost from the first to the last "the banker-poet," whether at the concert, in the opera-box, at the dinner-table, or wherever the two might be, in a voice loud enough to be heard, would set on foot a conversation such as this:

"*Rogers:* 'Who is that young man with the red hair?'
"*X:* 'Mr. Chorley,' etc., etc.
"*Rogers:* 'Never heard of him before.'"

Again Mr. Chorley says:

"I have always considered myself the person to whom Rogers made his most gratuitously ill-natured speech, as under. It was at the *Antient Concerts*, on a night when the room was crowded, owing to a royal visit, and when every seat was occupied. Mine was at the end of a bench, by the side of the Dowager Lady Essex (Miss Stephens that had been). She was one of Rogers's prime favorites; even though she is in private as in public one of those gracious and gentle women against whom no exception can be taken. He loved to sit next her, and pay her those elegant and courteous compliments, the art of paying which is lost. When I saw the old gentleman creeping down the side avenue betwixt the benches, at a loss for a seat, I said, 'Now I shall give up my place to Mr. Rogers; good-night.' While I was stooping for my hat: 'Come,' said she, in her cordial way, 'come, Mr. Rogers, here is a seat for you by me.' 'Thank you,' said the civil old gentleman, fixing his dead eyes on me, as I was doing my best to get out of the way; 'thank you; *but I don't like your company.*'"

In Mr. Planché's recollections he speaks of Rogers as long known to him and as having never within his knowledge said an ill-natured thing of any one. But he himself by no means denied the accusation. "When I was young," he observed, "I used to say good-natured things and nobody listened to me. Now that I am old I say ill-natured things and everybody listens to me"—a simple philosophy, at all events, of social life and its duties. We do not know if it is new with Mr. Planché, but a better story than any here told, either of Rogers's wit or his ill-nature, is that of an incident which fell under his notice once in Paris:

"My old friend Maltby, the brother of the Bishop, was a very absent man. One day at Paris, in the Louvre, we were looking at the pictures, when a lady entered who spoke to me and kept me some minutes in conversation. On rejoining Maltby I said, 'That was Mrs. ——. We have not met so long she had almost forgotten me, and asked me if my name was Rogers.' Maltby, still looking at the pictures, said, 'And was it?'"

As to the taking character of these handsome little volumes the reader can make a guess at it by looking at the names which figure in the anecdotes. These are some of them: Edwin Forrest, Landor, Moscheles, Sydney Smith, Mr. Grote, whom Mr. Chorley thought one of the four finest gentlemen he had ever seen, Theodore Hook, Byron, De Vigny, Rachel, Miss Landon, Lablache, Sheridan Knowles, Madame Vestris, Sir William Molesworth, Hawthorne, Edmund Kean, J. W. Croker, Wordsworth, Bowles, and half a hundred more of literary or social mark and distinction. We might add that, although one might suspect it, these anecdotes are not commonly of the regulation kind. The men who relate them or make them are persons quite capable of taking their own views of persons and things.

Horæ Hellenicæ: Essays and Discussions on some Important Points of Greek Philology and Antiquity. By John Stuart Blackie, F.R.S.E., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.)—Professor Blackie is well-known as a philologist of the older English school. He would probably not accept this classification of himself, for he speaks disparagingly of English scholarship in some of these essays; yet the essays themselves reveal the peculiarities of method and limitations of judgment that characterize the school to which we have referred him. He is a man of extensive reading and of strong convictions, and expresses himself with a liveliness and vigor which do not increase one's confidence in the scientific value of his statements. His 'Four Phases of Morals,' as well as some of these essays, shows how his studies of antiquity are interpenetrated by an interest in moral questions, and illustrates fairly his strength and his weakness. Similar faults of style appear here as there, as in the needless use of such words as "subsume," "self-exenteration," and "I most potently believe."

The present volume is a collection of essays which were written at various times and have been published in various places. In justice to himself, the author should have given with every essay the date of its original publication, for a reader's judgment of particular points is often influenced by that knowledge. For instance, the essay on the Prometheus of Æschylus seems from internal evidence to have been written before 1850, but if one did not notice this he would reasonably censure the author for omitting to consider such books as Kuhn's 'Herabkunft des Feuers' and Klein's 'Geschichte des Gr. Dramas,' not to speak of Preller's 'Griechische Mythologie.' Still, the essay on mythology, which is recent enough to refer to Max Müller's 'Chips,' gives no indication of knowledge of Preller's handbook. The Prometheus essay gives an interesting review of the controversy about that sublime tragedy; but we doubt whether any scholar has been inclined to accept Professor Blackie's view as a solution of the difficulty. He ascribes to Hesiod an influence upon the Athenian mind which can hardly be proved or rightly assumed for that rather sordid-minded old Bœotian. The theology of Hesiod as well as his morality is as much open to criticism as that of Homer, and we think more so, from a modern standpoint, and it does not appear why Professor Blackie makes him so valid an authority for the belief of the Greeks in the time of Æschylus, after distinguishing so clearly in the previous essay between the theology of Homer and that of the tragedians.

Two of the essays are attacks upon views advanced in Grote's 'History.' The one on the character of the Sophists is a fair though not an exhaustive discussion of a difficult question, which involves a judgment of moral influences where the materials are from partisan sources and somewhat scanty; the other essay, an attempt to establish the historic truth of the tradition that ascribes a division of land to Lycurgus, is of little or no value, because it does not fairly present Grote's argument. It makes no mention of his strongest point, that down to the time of Plutarch there is no authority for

the tradition, while the nearest contemporary authorities (*e.g.*, Alcæus, Hellanicus, Herodotus) are inconsistent with it.

It is manifest, from the preface as well as from the style of the essays, that the book is designed for scholars, and is therefore reasonably to be estimated as a contribution to exact scholarship in Greek philology. In this point of view it will not be found to have permanent value. The author's method is too superficial; he is too easily contented with expressing his own opinion and stating only the arguments that favor it, and too lively in his contempt for a differing opinion, to inspire confidence in those who read critically and do not depend upon him for their knowledge of the subject. His principles of scholarship, too, show the same narrowness of view and positiveness that he seems himself to condemn in English scholars generally. He has little in common with the Germans, whom he accuses of preferring "what is remote to what is obvious, what is conceptional to what is sensational, what is fanciful to what is real, what is mystical to what is plain." In the essays on "English Hexameters" and on the "Place and Power of Accent in Language," while we agree with his general conclusions, especially as to the pronunciation of Greek according to the written accent, we are constantly as we read protesting against his reasonings. His four "grand principles of the general doctrine of accents," significance, euphony, variety, and convenience, really explain nothing, and rest upon nothing. They do not explain why the speakers of Greek never accented a syllable before the antepenult, nor why the speakers of Latin accented a long penult. They have no foundation in any ancient writer, nor in the facts of language, except as viewed by individual taste or opinion. When one recalls to mind the late Professor Hadley's essay on accent, it does not seem as if the two men could have lived in the same century.

Professor Blackie's treatment of the "Theology of Homer" shows the same insular method in its inadequate presentation of the subject. Though he refers several times to Nägelsbach, he does not seem to have mastered clearly his central thought, which is a solvent of most of the difficulties of the subject, that the whole representation is an effort, involving the necessary inconsistencies of such an effort, to imagine a world of immortal beings with the conditions of this earthly world so far modified as they probably would be by that immortality. The distinction which Professor Blackie draws between Hellenic (it should rather be Homeric) and Christian humility —that the former rests on the sense of dependence, the latter primarily on the sense of guilt—seems true so far as it goes, but not so fruitful in inference and illustration as this, that the former has for its object the gods only; the latter, both God and man. Professor Blackie rejects Ihne's distinction between the representations as to the gods in the Iliad and those in the Odyssey on very insufficient grounds. We do not insist that he should accept it, though it seems to us, as to many others, well-founded; but we do insist that in thus publicly attacking a widely accepted view, he should consider the passages fully and give something more than a mere assertion of opinion.

The essay on the modern Greek dialect is on the whole the most valuable one in the book, because it contains a good deal of matter that cannot be found elsewhere, at least in English, and in so compact a form. But it too is marked throughout by erroneous views or careless expressions that detract greatly from its value. Thus, on p. 134 the writer speaks of a present active infinitive in modern Greek without the final letter, and of a first aorist passive infinitive without the final syllable, of the ancient forms; and then on p. 147 deplores at length the entire loss of the infinitive mode. But if those forms are infinitives in meaning and use, the mode is not lost; if the mode is lost (which is the fact), those forms ought not to be called infinitives or derived from the ancient forms. Again, on p. 146 there is an illustration which might be thought by sentimentalists to be of as doubtful truth as the statement illustrated would be by scholars. "It may be said with perfect truth that the dropping of the optative is in the end an improvement rather than a corruption of the language; as it is better that a person should be dead altogether than that, being alive, his occasional presence should serve only to remind us with the more acute pain of his habitual absence." The author overestimates, as we think the late President Felton did, the purity of the modern spoken Greek measured by the Attic standard. No one who observes carefully in families and in the streets of Athens or elsewhere in the country, will find that "the best type of the Greek actually now spoken in Greece is contained in the newspapers destined for general circulation." The Greeks themselves admit that their principal newspapers, as well as the university lectures and public addresses, are in a style beyond the understanding of the mass of the people. There are a few less-known papers in the popular dialect, but their language differs so far from the form discussed in this essay that they would be utterly unintelligible to one who depended upon it as a guide.

The book is handsomely and in general accurately printed, but for another edition the Greek should be more carefully corrected, and such misprints in the English as Hyphæstion and Klepths, Klepthic (which last go all through one essay) ought not to be overlooked in a book of scholarly discussion.

Shakespeare-Lexicon. A Complete Dictionary of all the English words, phrases, and constructions in the works of the Poet. By Dr. Alexander Schmidt. Vol. I. A–L; pp. 678. (Berlin: George Reimer; New York: F. W. Christern.)—Unlike Mätzner, whose masterly English Grammar has had to be translated into the language of which it treats, Dr. Schmidt discards German except in the preface to his truly monumental work. Purely practical considerations, he says, determined his choice in this matter; and chief of these, we may suppose, was the certainty that a Shakspere Dictionary would find its largest pecuniary support among English-speaking peoples. But doubtless, too, we have here another symptom of the growing conviction that English is to be the dominant language of the future, and that already the time has come to employ it as an original means of communication with the learned of all nations, or of acquiring a lasting and world-wide reputation. In any event, English readers must congratulate themselves upon Dr. Schmidt's decision, which, from the scholarly point of view, can hardly be deemed less than courageous in a foreigner; and, owing to the fact that the work was printed and published, as well as compiled, in Germany, there is additional cause for congratulation in its cheapness—five dollars a volume being the importer's price.

The first question which the compiler had to ask himself was, What, for the purposes of my dictionary, is "Shakspere"? Dr. Schmidt recognizes as genuine (*ächt-shakespearisch*) the works which have been commonly printed together as Shakspere's, namely, the thirty-six plays of both the first folios, together with "Pericles" and the so-called Poems. The apocryphal pieces of the later folios, and the stage directions throughout, he disregards. As for the various readings of the folios and quartos, he gives them all excepting such as occur in the spurious quartos, and he follows the Cambridge editors in adopting the modern orthography unless a difference in the sense is denoted by the older spelling. The scientific order which is nowadays observed in the etymology of dictionaries of the first class has seemed to Dr. Schmidt out of place in dealing with a limited period in the development of a language; and he has accordingly given to his definitions a natural rather than an historical arrangement. Obscurities which had their origin in the poet's train of thought (*Gedankengange*) are left, without contention, to the commentators. Words of constant recurrence are not indicated for every passage in which they are to be found, but the rarer words are completely indexed, and in practice the 'Shakespeare-Lexicon' will, we believe, be found nearly or quite as serviceable (if not quite so convenient) for reference as Mrs. Clarke's 'Concordance.' The space gained in the 'Lexicon' by substituting (say under *Letter*) 44 references for about 340 in the 'Concordance,' is returned with interest in the case of words like *a* (*an*), *do*, and *come* (five columns each), and *from* (more than three columns). A clear advantage over the 'Concordance' lies in the arrangement of references and quotations not under the several plays in which they occur, but under similar meanings. For example, the parallel passages cited under *Level* (subst. 2) remove all ambiguity from the line in 'Winter's Tale,' ii. 3, 6:

"My life stands in the *level* of your dreams."

Dr. Schmidt gives the line of the play (or poem) as well as the act and scene; Mrs. Clarke only the latter. But we need not push this comparison further, since its use as a concordance is secondary to the main object of the 'Lexicon,' which is to help to a better understanding of Shakspere and to infuse more method into the criticism of his text. We might point also to the grammatical features of the 'Lexicon,' but they too are subordinate. A Shakspere grammar was, indeed, part of the compiler's original plan, but he was abundantly anticipated by Mr. Abbott in his well-known work, and by Mr. Sidney Walker ('Critical Examination of the Text of Shakspere'). A few grammatical remarks are reserved for the appendix to the second volume, in which will also be collected the foreign and dialectic words used by Shakspere.

The typography of this 'Lexicon' is deserving of all praise, and the economy of room by abbreviation and punctuation such as only Germans know how to attain with clearness. We cannot do better than quote a specimen article entire:

Footing 1) s t e p, t r e a d: *the earth, in love with thee, thy f. trips,* Ven. 722. *I hear the f. of a man,* Merch. V, 24. *the wooden dialogue and sound 'twixt his stretched f. and the scaffoldage,* Troil. I, 3, 156. *to set* f. =a) to arrive, to step on, to touch: *set no f. on this unkind shore,* H6B III, 2, 87. *when she set f. here,* H8 III, 1, 183. b) to get a firm position, to gain ground: *who strongly hath set f. in this land,* R2 II, 2, 48. *when Talbot hath*

set f. once in France, H6A III, 3, 64. *that so degenerate a strain should once set f. in your generous bosoms*, Troil. II, 2, 155.

2) landing: *whose f. here anticipates our thoughts*, Oth. II, 1, 76.

3) dance: *and these fresh nymphs encounter in country f.* Tp. IV, 138.

4) the ground to tread on: *there your charity would have lacked f.* Wint. III, 3, 114. *shall we, upon the f. of our land, send fair-play orders to arms invasive?* John V, 1, 66. *on the unsteadfast f. of a spear*, H4A 1, 3, 193. *upon the giddy f. of the hatches*, R3 I, 4, 17. *blind fear finds safer f. than blind reason*, Troil. III, 2, 77.

5) footprint: *dance on the sands, and yet no f. seen*, Ven. 148.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Senate Executive Document, No. 45. Message from the President of the United States, transmitting a Communication from the Secretary of State, and the report by which it is accompanied, upon Samoa, or the Navigator's Islands.

In March, 1873, the State Department commissioned Mr. A. B. Steinberger to visit the Samoan or Navigator's Islands, with a view of determining their character and the advantages likely to result to the United States from closer commercial and other relationships; and the present document is the result of his enquiries. It contains much valuable information concerning the condition of the natives, and the animal, vegetable, and mineral products of the islands, as well as their agricultural and industrial resources. Large collections of the animal and vegetable life of the islands were brought back by Mr. Steinberger, as well as various objects of ethnological interest.

Mr. Steinberger declares that he has obtained a living specimen of the dodo, which he preserved in alcohol after its death on the journey home, and presented to the National Museum. He is, however, quite in error, as the species referred to is the dodo pigeon, a bird collected on Captain Wilkes's expedition, and described by Mr. Peale as *Didunculus strigorostris*, the type being now contained in the National Museum. Although very rare, this bird occasionally finds its way to European museums; the true dodo (*Didus ineptus*) was an inhabitant of the Mauritius, but appears to have been extinct for several centuries. It was of huge size, and at one time was supposed to belong to the family of the vultures. But the discovery of the *Didunculus* first suggested its relationship, and it has latterly been considered as belonging rather to the pigeons than to any other family.

Forty-third Congress, First Session. House of Representatives. Executive Document No. 193. Reconnoissance in the Ute Country. Letter from the Secretary of War, transmitting a Report and Map of a Reconnoissance in the Ute Country made in 1873 by Lieut. E. H. Ruffner, of the Corps of Engineers. Presented March 19, 1874. Referred to the Committee on Military Affairs and ordered to be printed. 8vo, pp. 102.

The origin of this reconnoissance was due to the disturbance of the relations between the Ute Indians and the miners of the so-called San Juan District, reported as embracing the claims located on the Animas River and on the Lake Fork of the Grand River. These districts, formerly opened and abandoned, had become the centres of wild speculation, and prospectors were said to be rushing in from all quarters. This, of course, was extremely distasteful to the Ute Indians, who occupied a consolidated reservation, including one part of the field and possibly all, and they earnestly protested against it. An attempt to secure a cession of the territory from them in 1872 was a failure, and the prospect of a collision between the two parties in 1873 became so great, involving the danger of war with a powerful tribe, that orders were issued to the military authorities to keep the miners out of the limits of the reservation, if necessary by force. To do this it was essential to define with accuracy the boundaries of the reservation, the eastern border of which was constituted by the 107th meridian. The difficulty, and perhaps danger, of running an instrumental line was fully appreciated, and Lieut. Ruffner was detailed to accomplish the work. Before the survey was begun, however, a new treaty was made with the Indians, by which they relinquished the area desired, and the survey was conducted without the necessity of marking with the same precision the boundary line referred to—a line 525 miles long, passing over five high mountain-passes. The country was meantime explored pretty thoroughly, and the various approaches to it from the Arkansas were marked out, of which detailed accounts are given in the report. As is customary with Government expeditions, the party was accompanied by several civilian specialists. In the general report, with the sub-reports from the various assistants, we have much valuable information in regard to a region comparatively unexplored.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bachelder (J. B.), Popular Resorts, and How to Reach Them	(Lee & Shepard) $1 50
Bezold (Dr. E.), Das Versicherungswesen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Bucher (B.), Ueber ornamentale Kunst auf der Wiener Ausstellung, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Blake (E. V.), Capt. G. E. Tyson's Arctic Experiences	(Harper & Bros.)
Burke (E.), Select Works, Vol. I.	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Cowper (W.), The Task	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Doehler (D.), Entstehung der religiösen Kunst bei den Griechen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Engel (Dr. F.), Sinnen- und Seelen-Leben unter den Tropen, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Esselen (Hofrath), Das Varianische Schlachtfeld, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Essex Institute Historical Collections, Vol. XII., Part 3, swd.	(Salem)
Flint (Dr. A., jr.), Physiology of Man, Vol. V.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 4 50
Grimm (Dr. W.), Die Lutherbibel und ihre Textes-Revision, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Hirsche (C.), Thomae Kempensis De Imitatione Christi	(L. W. Schmidt)
Journal of Social Science, No. 6, swd.	(Hurd & Houghton)
Lambert (E.) and Sardou (A.), All the French Verbs at a Glance	(Albert Mason) 0 50
Masson (D.), Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Möhl (H.), Erdbeben und Vulkane, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Neumann (Dr. F. X.), Die Theuerung der Lebensmittel, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Neaves (Lord), The Greek Anthology	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 00
Philosophy of Literature	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)
Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Vol. XXII., swd.	(Salem)
Ritter's Geographisch-statistisches Lexikon, Vol. I. Part 6, Vol. II., Part 6, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Richter (Dr. H. M.), Die Piccolomini, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)
Stricker (W.), Die Feuerzeuge, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 10.

THE money market has remained quiet throughout the week at 2 to 2½ per cent. on call loans. Time loans are quoted as follows: sixty days, 4 per cent.; four months, 6 per cent., and 7 per cent. for loans running till the end of the year.

The Bank of England raised its minimum rate of discount on Thursday from 3 to 4 per cent. The bank lost £938,000 during the week ending on Thursday last. The Bank of France gained during the week ending on Wednesday 23,307,000 francs in specie, and reduced its rate of discount from 4 to 3 per cent.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks on Saturday was favorable, showing an increase of $1,176,900 in the total reserve, and a decrease of $479,700 in deposits.

The following are the figures:

	August 1.	August 8		Differences.
Loans	$282,112,600	$280,534,300	Dec..	$1,478,300
Specie	25,293,700	25,740,000	Inc..	446,300
Legal tenders	65,818,900	66,549,500	Inc...	730,600
Deposits	242,741,300	242,261,600	Dec..	479,700
Circulation	25,762,200	25,805,760	Inc..	43,500

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 1.	August 8.		Differences.
Specie	$25,293,700	$25,743,000	Inc...	$446,000
Legal tenders	65,818,900	66,549,500	Inc ..	730,600
Total reserve	$91,112,600	$92,289,500	Inc..	$1,176,600
Reserve required against deposits	60,685,325	60,565,400		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	30,427,275	31,724,100	Inc...	1,296,825

The stock market has been steady on a moderate amount of business. The chief event of importance during the week was the sharp decline in Columbus, Chicago, and Indiana Central Railroad stock from 16⅛ to 11⅞, caused by the default in the payment of interest, due August 1, upon some of the second mortgage bonds of the company known as "general second mortgage." The general market has shown no special features. The St. Paul and Chicago and Northwestern stocks were weak at one time—influenced, no doubt, by the pending litigation in Wisconsin in which the State is trying to enforce the Potter railroad law. Milwaukee and St. Paul Common dropped from 35⅞ to 33⅞, and Northwestern Common from 38⅞ to 36⅞; at the close of the week the two stocks had rallied from ½ to ¾ per cent. The market to-day showed considerable weakness and closed at about the lowest figures of the day, the following being the range of quotations:

	Highest.	Lowest.	Sales.		Highest.	Lowest.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. Con...	101	100¾	1,100	Mil. & St. Paul pref	53¾	52¾	800
Lake Shore	73⅛	72¾	7,000	Pittsburg	88¾	88¼	100
Rock Island	99⅛	99	800	Pacific Mail	46⅜	45⅞	13,900
New Jersey Central	106	106	100	Erie	32½	32¼	2,000
Wabash	36	35⅝	1,500	Ohio and Miss	24⅝	24	1,700
Western Union Tel.	75¼	74¾	10,300	Union Pacific	29⅝	28¾	11,300
Northwestern	37⅞	37¾	700	C., C., and I. C.	12⅝	12¼	1,300
Milwaukee & St. P.	34¾	34½	1,100				

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, August 8, 1874:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R.	100¼	100⅜	100⅜	100½	100⅝	100¾	100⅜	100⅜	100⅜	100⅝	100¾	101⅛	11,300
Lake Shore	73	73⅜	73	73½	73	73⅝	72⅜	72⅝	72½	73⅛	73⅛	73⅜	80,000
Erie	32	32⅜	32½	32⅝	32	32½	31⅞	32	31⅞	32	32½	32⅝	19,900
Union Pacific	29	29¼	29¼	29¾	29	29⅜	28⅜	28⅜	28⅛	29¼	29⅜	29⅜	96,200
Chi. & N. W.	38½	38¾	37¼	38⅜	37¾	38⅜	36⅜	37½	37⅜	38	38	38⅜	25,600
Do. pfd.	56½	56¾	55½	56⅜	....	....	....	55⅜	55½	56	....	....	1,700
N. J. Central	....	106	....	106⅜	....	106	....	106	....	106	106	106¼	600
Rock Island	99⅜	99½	99	99½	99	99½	98⅜	99	99	99¼	99¼	99⅜	3,700
Mil. & St. Paul	35⅜	35⅞	35	35⅜	34⅜	35⅛	33⅞	34⅜	34¼	35½	34⅜	35¼	18,700
Do. pfd.	....	55	....	53⅜	53¼	54⅜	....	....	52⅜	52⅞	52⅜	53	1,900
Wabash	36½	37⅛	36⅜	36½	36¼	37	35½	36½	35⅜	36⅜	36	36⅜	16,100
D., L. & W.	....	107	....	107½	....	107½	....	107⅜	....	107⅜	107⅜	107½	300
O. & M.	....	25⅜	25⅜	25½	....	25⅜	24¾	25¼	24¼	24⅜	....	24⅜	9,900
C. C. & I. C.	15¾	16¼	15¼	15⅜	13½	15⅜	11⅜	14	12¼	13	12⅜	13¼	26,300
W. U. Tel.	73	74⅛	74½	75⅜	74⅛	75½	74¼	74⅜	74⅜	75¼	75¼	75⅝	125,900
Pacific Mail	44⅞	45½	44⅞	44⅜	44⅞	45⅜	45	45¼	45⅜	45⅜	45½	46⅛	42,800

Beyond the purchase of 1,000,000 10-40's for account of the State of New York, the government bond market has been free from any event of importance. Prices have been steady and the transactions light. Nothing further has been made known in regard to the syndicate operation with the Treasury in the way of "calls" on the new 5's. The following are the closing quotations of government bonds this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118¼	118¾	Registered 5-20, 1867, c	117⅜	117¾
Registered 5-20, 1862, c	111¾	...	Registered 5-20, 1868, c	117⅜	...
Registered 5-20, 1864, c	115¾	115⅞	Registered 10-40's, c	113¾	...
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N	117	117⅛	Registered 5-20's of 1881	111⅞	112
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J	116	116¼	U. S. Currency 6's	117½	118

Business in railroad bonds has been light, except in those of the older and sounder companies. Central, Western and Union Pacific Railroad bonds have been in better demand. The recent calling in of U. S. 5-20's has stimulated an enquiry for these bonds, which have always had a quick market for large lots. Very little is doing in bonds of roads which are in default upon their interest; the condition of the affairs of most of them is unsettled, and while such is the case buyers will be wanting.

Gold has been firm all the week, and advanced from 109¼ to 110¼. The firmness in the gold premium is due to the advance in the Bank of England rate of discount and the large shipments of coin to Europe. The total shipments for the week were $3,521,442, making the total export for the year $37,588,870 against $37,496,546 last year, and $35,237,324 in 1872.

The following shows the fluctuations in the gold market during the past week:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday, Aug. 3	109¼	109⅜	109¼	109¼
Tuesday, Aug. 4	109¼	109⅜	109¼	109⅜
Wednesday, Aug. 5	109⅜	109½	109⅜	109⅜
Thursday, Aug. 6	109½	110	109½	109⅞
Friday, Aug. 7	110	110¼	109⅞	110¼
Saturday, Aug. 8	110⅛	110¼	110	110

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 20, 1874.

The Week.

THE candidates are busy writing letters, and the nominating conventions for setting up future Congressmen are now going on all over the country, or are in active preparation. Some of the cases have attracted more than usual attention—some for reasons honorable to the person in whom the public takes an interest, and some not so honorable. The genuine regard which Judge Hoar has secured by a high private character and a political course not without crotchets, but marked by the active and warlike virtues as well as the passive ones, has been shown in the general desire that he should not refuse the nomination in his district. He persists, however, and has written a letter to that effect addressed to his constituents. It is not a merely official document. He takes occasion to make some remarks on the character of Congress, and seems to think that a great deal of idle, flippant accusation has been brought against it. This is no doubt true, but the amount of scandalous matter revealed by Congressional committees, and admitted as proved, would afford the newspapers a far better justification for their too numerous inaccuracies than Judge Hoar could readily find for his implied charge against the press. Judge Hoar's assertion that Congress accomplishes well some excellent work, and that most Congressmen are honest men, is not really questioned, and to make it seems needless. But perhaps Massachusetts politics may explain his putting in that plea, when further on we come to what the boys call a side-winder for a gallant Massachusetts general, as thus: most Congressmen are good; and they showed it last winter by making short work of corruptionists and their friends—of the tribe of "office-jobbers, contract-jobbers, informers, moiety-men, plunderers of the Treasury, and their promoters and allies."

Politics in Massachusetts are in a state which beggars description. Not only are the questions of the governorship and of the senatorship delicate matters, but there is a general break-up among the Congressional delegation—members resigning, declining re-election, and in every direction confusing matters dreadfully. Butler, who appears to have come to a sudden conclusion that after all silent statesmanship is the best, declines to state whether he will run for governor or go back to Congress, or go to Europe, or allow himself to be elected senator in the place which Mr. Washburn will make vacant this winter. The cloud of mystery which surrounds the movements of the General seems to breed lesser hazes or mists in all quarters. Mr. Dawes is going to retire from public life, and at the same time is going to run for the senatorship, with the advice and consent of Butler. At the same time, it is said that if the General, disgusted with the turmoil and strife of political life, should determine really to withdraw, he will be succeeded by General Cogswell, an old foe of his, and, on the other hand, his warm friend and supporter. The principal candidates for the governorship are Governor Talbot, who would like to be governor, and Mr. Henry L. Pierce, who would not. The position of Governor Talbot at the present moment is a significant illustration of the natural effects of what is known as management. He is a commonplace man of little weight and no general reputation, who, on one of the occasions when Butler failed of the nomination for governor, by that sort of good-natured compromise which one often sees in political conventions, was put on the ticket as lieutenant-governor, being supposed to be not a Butler man, but one of those who was not an anti-Butler man either. The death of Mr. Sumner, and the election of Mr. Washburn as senator, made Talbot governor, and Talbot turns out to be a determined prohibitionist, whether from policy or principle is not certain, and his sentiments on the Butler question are involved in mystery. In other words, as the result of the compromise, or the heedless thoughtlessness of the nomination, the State has in its most important office a man whose sentiments on one of the most important questions of the day were not enquired into, and on another are not known.

In all this obscurity, one thing seems tolerably clear—that General Butler has not abandoned his ancient game of gaining control of the party organization, and that his opponents are groping about in the dark as to his intentions, and with a very dim light as to their own. The General, we are happy to say, does not appear to have the slightest chance of getting the nomination for Governor, even if he attempts it. We may observe as another hopeful sign in Massachusetts the rise in power and influence of Mr. Henry L. Pierce, one of the General's most uncompromising enemies, who has served the public well in every office he has filled, and about whom the only regret which seems to be felt in Massachusetts is that he cannot be Governor of the State and representative at the same time. Not remotely connected with Massachusetts politics, too, is the news of the renomination of Mr. Foster of Ohio, who, we hope, and do not doubt, is preparing himself during the long quiet summer days for a repetition of the manly warfare in which he engaged last winter.

The report of the Arkansas Investigating Committee appointed by Congress at the last session promises to be of a very lively character, though we imagine that the gentlemen of the committee are not going to find it an easy matter to reconcile all the evidence. But judging by what we hear from excellent authority, one committeeman, Mr. Ward, will have less difficulty than his fellow-members in coming to a conclusion; his method of reaching it will, however, call for an explanation. This impartial investigator—who has already expressed his opinion as favorable to the Brooksites, and has been so reported in the public prints—went to Little Rock in company with Dorsey, one of the precious Arkansas senators, was met at the railroad station by Brooks and some Brooksites, was taken to Dorsey's house and there remained during all of his stay in the town, was each morning driven in from there to attend the sessions of the committee, was met there by Judge McClure, formerly Brooks's man on the bench, Clayton, the leader of all this gang, Oliver, and others like them. The statements which these gentry imparted to him are supposed to be what Mr. Ward is now retailing to the Northern public as information derived from "leading Arkansas Republicans." This behavior would have done better in the Thaddeus Stevens and James M. Ashley days, but is now late. Still, with Mr. Ward and Judge Poland for two members of the committee, there is danger of some old-fashioned whitewashing. Everything looks, however, as if Clayton and his friends would have to rest content with what money they have got.

One specimen of the evidence before the Arkansas Committee will give this Southwestern, Baxter-Brooks iliad in a nutshell. The witness is a Mr. Bartlett, a New England man, once a judge, and a Republican who at the election of 1872 scratched in voting, giving Baxter his vote for Governor, but casting it for the inferior officers on the opposition or Brooks's side. He is therefore a kind of a neutral: *Question.* "State what you know as to the origin of the difficulties between Governor Baxter and the leaders of the party that elected him" (Clayton, Dorsey, etc.) *Answer.* "As I understood it at the time, it originated with an effort on the part of the Republican party proper to carry through the railroad bill. It originated with his opposition to this bill, or with his declaring that he would defeat it." *Question.* "What was the nature of this bill?" *Answer.* "There had been $5,200,000 State-aid bonds issued, and the object

of the bill was to make the State assume that indebtedness and take in lieu of it railroad bonds." *Question.* "Was that considered a fair equivalent?" *Answer.* "It was considered that it would have been of no value at all." To another question, the answer will be readily anticipated by any one who knows what has been the ss nce of reconstruction in the opinion of the carpet-bagger. It has been very simple, and consisted first in getting himself into the legislature by negro votes, then pledging the State credit to one and another railroad for its relief or its construction, then selling the guaranteed bonds and as many counterfeits of them as possible. North Carolina, South Carolina, Louisiana, Arkansas, and other reconstructed States know this history. The Committee's question to Mr. Bartlett was as follows: "What was the general opinion about these bonds; that the State had the benefit of them, or the roads, or individuals?" *Answer.* "The impression on the public mind is that the bonds were divided up between the managers of the different roads" (Clayton, Dorsey and "leading Republicans of Arkansas," who fear for the social future of the black man). As a development of the sort chronologically latest, but entirely congruous, it is telegraphed that the State Constitutional Convention now in session is considering the propriety of repudiating $9,300,000 worth of railroad, levee, and other bonds.

A good deal of surprise, for which we hardly see the reason, has been expressed in the newspapers at the announcement by the Texas Grangers of their intention to ask the General Government for a subsidy for the Texas Pacific Road. It is exactly what we should have anticipated from their attempt to get hold of the inter-State lines last winter in Congress, from their demand that the Government shall build them a line of railway to the West, and from the impudence which has characterized their whole proceedings from the beginning. It is peculiarly characteristic of them, too, that their first demand for a subsidy of a particular line should be in the case of the Texas Pacific, for this road has already received a subsidy in the way of a land-grant to the amount of 6,750,000 acres—one of those land-grants which has been so vigorously denounced by these very reformers. What the Granger wants is cheap transportation; whether by confiscation of or lobbying with the roads is a matter of complete indifference to him. If we turn from Texas to Minnesota, we there find him, in his character of commissioner, looking into the question of "just and reasonable" rates in the case of the St. Paul and Sioux City roads. These roads are unable to earn enough to pay interest on their funded debt, but nevertheless reduced their rates voluntarily on the 1st of July in the hope of attracting traffic, which must in any case be light, as they run through the country devastated by the grasshoppers. The commissioners, on learning these facts, immediately decided that the rates were too high, and ordered a further reduction.

The late Bishop Whitehouse was probably spared a pang by his dying before the recent decision of the Cheney case in the United States Circuit Court at Chicago. The Bishop was a man of a high spirit, who, as we are led to suspect, had a way of magnifying his office, natural in him, and sufficiently to his honor and credit; but the habit of mind from which it sprang was not calculated to make Judge Williams's recent decision palatable to him. It is a decree based on an application for an injunction which was made last spring by the Whitehouse side. Mr. Cheney—who, by the way, is no longer a Churchman, having gone away and helped to found a new church—the Whitehouse party wished to restrain from keeping on with the use of the Christ Church property. Judge Williams refuses the application. We have not space for all his points; but he says that Mr. Cheney on his original trial consented to be tried by the canons; that according to these he should have been tried by five assessors; that the court so affirms because these trials by canons (which really are trials under stipulations made between the parties) closely resemble trials by arbitrators; that in trials by arbitrators the law requires every one of them to be present and assisting; that Mr. Cheney was tried, not by five arbitrators or assessors, but by four; and that the proceedings of such a tribunal are null and void. At the second trial there was want of jurisdiction in the court. As, then, the sentence of the Bishop was based upon two void processes, it falls to the ground, and Mr. Cheney has all the time been rector of Christ Church. Leaving these special points, we may say in general that the court declares, in regard to the strictly societary regulations of religious societies, that for cause shown it will enforce them, as may seem legal and equitable. We have no intimation as to whether the case will be carried further.

We once more mention the Ross abduction case in order to say a word for the *Herald* correspondent. He is still working away at the other end of the telegraphic wire between here and Philadelphia and giving advice as if Solomon were a fool to him, and the latest falsehood about the Rosses which this has made it necessary for him to send on is as follows: On his theory, if Mr. Ross had at the beginning given to the public at large all the letters which he has received from the abductors, and of course had the correspondent got the early copies for the *Herald*—had Mr. Ross done this instead of keeping them secret and hidden, the missing boy would now have been found. This course the correspondent thinks so obvious that he evidently reserves in the depths of his mind a lurking suspicion that Mr. Ross is playing false. About this our friend makes an enormous uproar. An informant writes us from Philadelphia that so far at least as regards using concealment, there has been none except of a proper kind; that Mr. Ross has shown the letters received from the child-thieves to every one who had the right to see them, including friends and lawyers, thus disposing of the rumor which we noticed last week, giving it too much weight; and he adds the thought which the *Herald* man will not vastly care for, that "probably the sight of them has been refused to some meddling reporter who with his race infests the store and residence of the afflicted father." Indeed, this case and the Beecher case have really suggested new possibilities in the way of "interviewing." The Beecher case was, indeed, almost too big a blessing to be handled. For one thing, the subject was sensational to the last degree; and, for another, if you were to rake every port in the United States—and we are not afraid to add Europe—you could not have got together a company more eager to be interviewed than just this same set of people who have been filling the newspapers with their revelations and recollections. It is meat and drink to them. Keeping their names in the newspapers has been the making of half of the regiment of them, men and women, and certain quarters of New York and Brooklyn never in the world were happier than they have been for the last six or seven weeks.

The lockout of the farm laborers in the eastern counties of England has come to an end, the employers having found a sufficient supply of labor outside the Union. The Union has accordingly advised the men that they must look out for themselves or emigrate. The condition of the labor question in England has given rise to a good deal of discussion and correspondence about emigration, some of which has made its appearance in the columns of the London *Times*, under the head of "Emigration to a Free Country." The beginning of it was a letter to the *Times* from a gentleman signing himself "A Bohemian," who appears to have made a tour of the world in search of employment. He describes himself as young and strong, as "having received a good education," being "a thorough arithmetician," and "able to write and converse in most of the modern languages." Having resolved to try his fortunes in the United States, he succeeds after much trouble in finding a situation as a lawyer's clerk with a salary about equal to the average earnings of a Dorsetshire laborer. Finding, however, the professional tone in New York so disgustingly low that he cannot even perform the services of lawyer's clerk and maintain his honesty, and having perhaps casually come upon some person who advised him that the only thing for him to do was to "go West," he immediately leaves New York, and gets such employment as he can

in the country at rail-splitting and wheeling bricks; and, being treated with uniform hard-heartedness and brutality by everybody, he goes back to England. He next tries Canada, with as little success; and then New Zealand, where he finds very little sympathy, even when in "trouble or distress." All this seems to point not merely to a bad state of things in a "free country," but even to a bad state of society in the enslaved European colonies.

The "Bohemian," therefore, has probably not been very much surprised to find his letter replied to, first by a gentleman (Mr. Edward T. Bridges) who says that New Zealand is a country of which he knows something, and this knowledge leads him to suspect that the "Bohemian" has not been to New Zealand at all—New Zealand being a country where 5s. a day is paid for the lowest class of unskilled labor, and from 12s. to 15s. for skilled labor; and where it is not only possible, but "certain, and will be for years to come, that an industrious and steady man, who sticks to his trade or work, will be able in the course of but a few years to save enough out of his wages to buy a small section of land, erect a house thereon, and thus, with the additional help of his wages, attain a comfortable independence"; and thinks that the "Bohemian's" reference to the want of sympathy he found when in "trouble or distress" may be a veiled allusion to the melancholy absence of workhouses in New Zealand. Besides this, an "Anglo-American" writes to the *Times* to say that whatever may be the truth about New Zealand, the "Bohemian's" adventures in the United States must not be taken to be typical; that he himself had been an emigrant in his day, and found everything here exactly the reverse of what was discovered by the "Bohemian"; that he landed in New York with fifty dollars in his pocket in the middle of winter; went that night to an hotel, and engaged board at fourteen dollars a week without difficulty; went the next day and got a situation without having any references, in an office on Broadway; and on the next day found himself in a position of trust and confidence, sent on a mission to deposit $1,350 in a bank for one of his employers. By cultivating "the true American principle," he describes himself as having thriven, and as mixing always in "superior society."

The news as to the condition of the harvests all over the world is very good. There is every reason to anticipate a year of cheap food, and, as the general revival of business depends in the long run on cheap food, it is not unreasonable to believe that we have seen the worst of the dull times, which certainly could not well be duller than they have been during the past few months. A comparison of prices in 1873 and 1874, made by the *Economist*, shows a considerable fall in leading commodities since last year, and, prices being now favorable to consumers, we may fairly infer that the improved tone in the iron trade, which is attracting attention in England, is prophetic of improvement in other branches of business, here as well as there.

The railroad question in England has been lately discussed from a different point of view from that which has been occupying public attention in this country—that of the excessive number of passengers maimed and killed by the roads. A "society for the protection of railway travellers" has now been formed, under the leadership of several influential men, the terms of subscription being very low in order to make the membership large. The object of this society is stated to be the diminution of risks arising out of causes within the control of the roads, such as unpunctuality, insufficiency of "permanent-way," inadequacy of establishments, and the neglect to adopt the various means of safety constantly recommended by the Board of Trade, the correction of defects and discomforts in travelling accommodation, the introduction of more humane arrangements for the conveyance of cattle, and other similar objects. Of course a great deal depends on what amount of vigor is put into the work; but these are certainly the kinds of things on which supervision, if vigilant, would be likely to have some effect. You cannot tell how much it is fair for a company to charge for transporting a passenger a particular hundred miles, but you can tell whether he gets to the end of his journey, whether maimed or dead, or alive and well, whether the train in which he travels runs "on time" or without any regard to the prescribed time, and whether cattle are tortured into disease and unfitness for human food by a more than brutish disregard of the creatures' wants. Such a society, in taking up the cases of the poor and unfriended, might do much good in any country.

Most of the chief European Governments have recognized the Spanish Republic, the lead in the affair being taken of course by Germany. The ostensible reason is the unhappy condition of the country and the Carlist atrocities. How far intervention will be carried remains to be seen, but no doubt far enough to prevent any possibility of the Ultramontane party in Spain deriving any material aid from their friends in France. The recent attempt on his life at Kissingen has had the effect of greatly strengthening the hands of Bismarck in his war on the Church, and it would not be a very far-fetched hypothesis to explain the recognition of the Republic in part by the renewed resolution of the Germans to keep their war upon the Pope an unhesitating one. The Carlist atrocities are, of course, denied by the Carlists, who in turn declare the Republican troops a set of savages. We fear very much that there is little reason to rejoice in this new addition to the area of freedom. A Spanish Republic protected by the great military powers against an intestine revolution, with foreign fleets policing her waters, is too shadowy a political structure to pin our faith to. It is greatly to be hoped that the recognizing powers may put an end to the barbarous warfare which is distracting and completing the ruin of Spain. The interests of humanity and civilization demand that the country should not be entirely free to give itself up to rapine and murder; and if a protectorate is needed to accomplish this object, the sooner one is established the better.

Two French prisoners, half-political and half-criminal, who have acquired a world-wide notoriety, are now at large again—Rochefort and Bazaine. The secret of the latter's escape from the Isle Ste. Marguérite is only partly explained, and evidently there are those on the other side of the water who are willing to keep it an entire mystery. Eight persons are said to have been arrested on suspicion of having aided his escape, the charge of treachery playing in this the important part that it usually does in the explanation of French events. A spirited attempt has been made, or is in process of being made, to throw an air of romantic adventure over the escape of the Marshal, as there was in Rochefort's case to convert the escaped convict into an old-fashioned refugee—a martyr to the tyranny of princes and emperors. Thus, in Bazaine's case we learn that the prisoner languished (if we are to believe the London *Telegraph*, which we certainly do not mean to do unless under compulsion) in the very cell "in which the Man with the Iron Mask languished so many years, and from the window of which the unknown prisoner flung into the sea the silver plate on which he had previously scratched his name and history"—this cell, however, being unlike most cells, as it is a "lofty apartment," and contains "a fire-place and large window." This we suppose is the same room elsewhere in the account described as a "small sitting-room," "plainly furnished," with a fine likeness of the Pope on the wall, with a Latin autograph. No such luxuries as these, we fear, were furnished the Man with the Iron Mask, nor was he permitted to have a valet, nor the companionship of an old staff-officer, nor to receive frequent visits from those nearest to him. This is probably the reason, too, why he did not walk out of prison one fine night and take boat for Italy. The fact is that the Marshal was not in prison long enough, nor was his character as a victim well enough established, to make him a very romantic object, and the learned discussion now going on in some of the newspapers as to whether or no he is an extraditable convict will not tend to make him more so.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE FALL ELECTIONS.

IN the history of Congress the present bears many indications of becoming an extraordinary year. The last Congressional election sent to the House an unusual preponderance of new members; but the old members thus supplanted were for the most part of the unknown class. So much so was this the case, that the change in the material of the House was somewhat of a surprise to the public, being discovered by means of newspaper statistics rather than by the absence of familiar names. The front ranks of both parties showed very little change, and continued to be filled chiefly with well-known men. By the coming elections this condition of the House will probably be reversed. The number of new members may not equal that of last year, but a very noticeable disappearance will take place of names with which the people of this country are now well acquainted. The new members in the present House have been for the most part a mere following. With little legislative experience to guide them, with little intellectual training to fit them for doing what they have never been specially taught to do, they have been largely overawed by their own practical ignorance, and not a little intimidated by the manual dexterity of the "experienced leaders." Leaving home in the belief that their newly acquired office was one of great power and consequence, they have found that in Washington it of itself makes a man no more distinguished than that of constable in their native town. Supposing at first that national legislation is a plain highway along which men might walk and talk in a common-sense manner, and be allowed to vote upon measures when they have maturely considered them, just as at any public meeting of intelligent men, they have been dazed by finding that Congressional practice has been worked up into a thoroughly artificial maze, whose labyrinths require two or three sessions of practice before the new member can master the doublings and windings, or be on his guard against or ready to take advantage of its many indefinable "short cuts."

The larger part of the Republican "new members" seem to have passed through three stages of desire: 1st, they wanted to do right; 2d, they wanted to do something; 3d, they wanted to do anything. It was perfectly natural that such men thus circumstanced should pass through these phases of intention. It was almost inevitable that they should take to introducing bills on the solitary occasion when anybody is allowed to get the floor, if only to let their constituents know that they were still alive and actually in Washington. Later, as they became accustomed to the bedlamlike confusion of the House, it was to be expected that they would make speeches to the reporters on the popular side of the "salary grab" or other prominent topics. But when these preliminary efforts at individuality had been tried, it was just as natural and inevitable that a hundred and more of untrained and practically ignorant and incompetent men should sink into a following. If there had been one truly powerful statesman on the floor of the House—one person in the party, there, who was really reverenced as a great man, or if there had been a few able and experienced members thoroughly united in knowing what their party's policy was and in holding the mass of members up to some predetermined work of legislation, it is probable, it is reasonably certain, that the mass of new members would have made an efficient and respectable party majority in Congress.

Such being the material of the rank-and-file, it is necessary merely to glance at their leaders to account for their conduct. The chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means is the member who is supposed to be the leader of his party in the House. In this case he is also the senior member of the House and possessed of an experience largely in excess of that of any other Republican upon the floor. But Mr. Dawes came into this Congress with a reputation impaired by his connection with the Crédit-Mobilier transactions, and well-nigh shattered by the disingenuous letter whereby he sought to mislead and deceive all who trusted his assurances on that subject. He also soon appeared to have entered into a tacit compact with the worst man in the House, or at least to be in such fear of him as not to venture, when he could possibly avoid a collision, to oppose his schemes or thwart his designs. Apart from these hindrances, he was at best fitted to be, not the leader, but at most the censor or balance-wheel of the House. Hence the new members found in him, not the person who was directing and urging, but the person who was perpetually holding back. Repeated and constantly recurring injunctions and warnings and threats against extravagance soon had about as much effect on them as the stereotyped advice of a schoolmaster ordinarily exercises on the minds of a throng of ardent, restless boys. If Congress were a board of audit, whose sole business is to cut down estimates and adjust accounts, Mr. Dawes would have been in his place. But in a legislative body like the House of Representatives, he bore about the same relation to a leader that the drag of a coach does to the driver. The chairman of the second committee in importance, that on Appropriations, on the contrary, possessed many of the characteristics of a leader, and, moreover, had subjected himself to a more comprehensive and thorough mental training for legislative work than any other man in the House; but unfortunately for himself, and indeed for the country, he was in a position which might be termed "the personal defensive." He had been censured by the Crédit-Mobilier Committee, though the censure rested on slighter evidence than that of any other person inculpated—the mere word of Oakes Ames, unsupported by any of his usual memoranda—and he had been blamed for his unwilling part in the "salary-grab" enactment, and the Sanborn-contract resolution soon after required explanation. With three such defences on his hands, no man could suddenly become a leader in Congress, or expect to control and mould the opinions of the public, upon which every legislative leader must sooner or later rely. The chairman of the third committee, the Judiciary, it is needless to say, was General Butler. Very ready was he for the situation, and very well did the situation suit him. Readiness and audacity are tolerably sure to sway a crowd wanting to do something yet doubting what to do; and readiness and audacity are the two qualities which General Butler possesses in such excess that one may well doubt whether he possesses any other worth naming. Very quickly he made himself the leader of the majority in the House; and to what point of folly he might not have led them no man can surmise, if providentially the Sanborn disclosure had not come to arouse the country so thoroughly that even General Butler had to stop, like men who value their characters, and stand upon the defensive.

Such being the peculiar weakness of the present House, there is certainly ground for anxiety when we look forward to the fact that in all probability this weakness is to be greatly extended in the next Congress. Mr. Dawes having reached the highest position in the House, and then found that his reputation and influence were rapidly leaving him, has sagaciously determined that "retirement from office" and active work in home-politics are more likely to prove his stepping-stone than any public service which he can render. General Butler seems to have taken the same view of the duty he owes to his country. But neither his friends nor his enemies seem confident of his withdrawal, and the only thing certain is that there is no other place in the world where he can perpetrate so much mischief as in the House of Representatives. When it becomes absolutely certain that he will not be there to deride able men and bully and mislead weak ones, the decent part of the community may well thank God and take courage. But even if this restless element of positive evil be withdrawn from the next Congress, there will still be a long list of retiring members which includes the very best of the House. It seems, indeed, as if an epidemic for retirement had broken out in both parties, and that the greater portion of the men who really perceive the wants of the country had suddenly grown conscious of their inability to raise Congress to the dignity of a working body, and in weariness and disgust had simultaneously given up the task. Generally, the losses are by voluntary retirement, but political conventions have not kept their mischievous hands off in all cases. If the integrity, moral courage, and good sense of Mr. Willard of Vermont reigned in Congress, everybody knows that that body would possess the

almost unlimited confidence of the country. But Mr. Willard has just been defeated in convention, and another new member is to take his place.

Yet the ground of solicitude does not stop even at this point. Not only does there seem to be an epidemic of retirement on the part of members, but also another epidemic of refusal on the part of prominent and respectable private citizens who may be solicited to go into Congress. As the Springfield *Republican* says: "It is positively becoming dangerous for a Massachusetts newspaper to mention the name of any conspicuously able and deserving citizen (Republican in politics) in discussing the political probabilities. The odds are that the gentleman named will at once sit down and write a curt note to the editor, signifying his inflexible resolution not to be a candidate." What does all this mean? Is the recent saying of Lord Lytton coming true, that the American is trying "to accomplish an experiment in government in which he will find the very prosperity he tends to create will sooner or later destroy his experiment"? Has the "conspicuously able and deserving citizen" perceived that our national legislature is properly a place for hard and unpretentious work—for study, training, caution, and reflection; but that it has become a place for ridicule, detraction, ignorant assumption, and mercenary combinations—a place which can only be ruled by an extremist like the late Mr. Stevens or a demagogue like General Butler? Very rarely, if ever, has there been a time when the public welfare so completely required intelligent honesty in Congress, and never has there been a time when the intelligent and honest seem so averse to going there. Raising the pay seems to have done a great deal toward bringing Congress down in individual estimation, and we have now to reverse proceedings by trying to restore to the position some of its former honor. When the educated, intelligent, and respectable citizen feels assured that in Congress he will be able to mingle and cooperate with educated, intelligent, and respectable associates, he will again deem the legislative service a distinction and a pleasure.

THE RATIONALE OF EMIGRATION.

WE have elsewhere made a reference to the curious correspondence on the subject of "Emigration to a Free Country" which has lately been going on in the columns of the London *Times*. The most ardent lover of the most minute facts cannot candidly say that it sheds much light on the relative merits of the different countries mentioned for those who are seeking a home. "The Bohemian's" whole story may be and very likely is false, and yet America may be a bad place at certain times for some kinds of emigrants; the New Zealander's representations may be perfectly true, and yet New Zealand may be very unattractive from some points of view. The "Anglo-American's" experience, pleasant as it is, is unlikely to be repeated. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, deprecating the efforts of those "who exultingly heap up evidence that the prospects of a laborer in Canada or Australia or the United States are no brighter than they are in England," says "single experiences go for little either way"; and at the same time is inclined to think that "more attention is to be paid to such letters" as one which has lately appeared in an Irish newspaper (evidently written during the depth of the depression consequent on the panic), by a Mr. Walsh, one of the Jesuit fathers in New York, who says that in every large city in the Union thousands of able-bodied men are standing idle and starving; that no roads or canals are being made; that the farmers "raise only as much as suffices for domestic consumption" and employ no hands; that even female servants are looking in vain for places; and, finally, that this is only the beginning, and that the United States are "likely to undergo a phase of misery the like of which no tongue can tell." This is the picture of a country going to pieces, and few people will recognize its truth. The *Pall Mall Gazette* admits, indeed, that it is very likely overdrawn, but thinks that it is entitled to credit as coming from a tolerably unbiassed source, and from one having probably a wide means of information. But until we know more of Father Walsh, we shall be inclined to believe that his letter is nothing more than such a one as any excitable man might have written in an exciting time—let us say, immediately after the panic of 1837, and that as a prediction of the industrial future of the country it is worth as little as such a letter would have been then. Most people in reading it will be inclined to begin with the reflection which the *Pall Mall Gazette* made apropos of the other letters, that what is needed now is a cessation of irresponsible correspondence and communications on this subject, and the accumulation of detailed and precise facts with regard to the labor markets of various countries.

The emigration question, however, is not one which, in the present state of the labor market and trade, can be definitely and for all time settled; indeed, it is one which, with every new steamboat line between here and Europe, and every new railroad line between here and the West, will become more difficult of final settlement. In modern economy, there is nothing more noticeable than the rapid creation and depression of trade in particular spots, and the ease and rapidity with which a trade which finds itself depressed in one place reappears in another shortly afterwards in a prosperous condition and with the necessary attendant labor. Sometimes it is a war which is the cause of the phenomenon, as when the shipbuilding industry was driven out of this country during the Rebellion; sometimes it is a tariff; in another case, it might be the condition of the currency which caused a change. New England has changed within the last generation from an agricultural to a manufacturing country; already since the war manufactures are springing up in the South; shipbuilding is reviving in Maine. Every one of these changes as it occurs has an influence of some kind, now depressing, now elevating, on the labor market, and the effect has been not to render the emigration question simpler, but much harder than it was before. So long as a trade once established was likely to remain in a country or city a hundred years, the emigrant could very easily make long calculations. But now, if he emigrates on account of a depression in the particular trade which he follows, ten years hence, perhaps, that very trade may be flourishing in the very place he left it depressed.

On the other hand, it is far more important for all but the most unskilled labor to remain steadily at the same occupation. Formerly, in this country, the theory and the practice both were that the European who came over here came ready to turn his hand to anything—saw wood, dig, be carpenter, blacksmith, mason, lawyer, or member of Congress, as opportunity might occur. But the increasingly minute subdivisions of employment are making it every year more and more dangerous for emigrants to attempt this old-fashioned rôle. Therefore, the question is not so much, Is there not plenty of land in the United States, and a welcome for all? as it is, Can a particular individual find in the United States the particular work for which he istrained? And where, and when? It is obvious that even those agricultural laborers who have been looking into the question for themselves, through Mr. Arch, want to find the same kind of work they have been doing in England. Even they are by no means jacks of all trades.

Again, the rise to power and influence of the unions makes the question more difficult. The trades-union is, as every one knows, a voluntary organization of a democratic character, which has a general jurisdiction over the particular labor-market related to a particular trade. It has a general fund, levies assessments, supports men during strikes, and exercises a general supervision over them. In the last resort, as in the case in hand, it advises and very likely furnishes the means of emigration. The result of all this is that the laborer learns more and more to rely on this organization, to be idle when it is idle, and to work when it works. Indeed, he subjects himself to great inconvenience, if not suffering, by remaining outside the union. Therefore, it is obvious that the question of emigration will now be considered with reference not so much to the happiness of the individual laborer as to the prosperity of the union to which he belongs; and in many cases when, if left to himself, he might very likely choose to emigrate, as he is not left to himself, he does not choose at all. In the agricultural laborers'

strikes, the men seem in process of being driven out of the country against their will, though by accepting their employers' terms last year they might have stayed, because their enforced idleness has exhausted the funds of the union.

We do not by any means intend to say that the emigration question is not one which deserves study. It needs more than it has ever received. What we desire to point out is that the discussions usually carried on on this subject are illogical and futile, because based on insufficient or inapplicable evidence; that the question will not be settled by a comparison of certificates of national character given or refused by individual emigrants; nor will it be settled once for all at any time. The sudden changes in trade and commercial centres, the growing facility of locomotion, the growth and importance of the unions, all make the question much more complicated than formerly. We shall have no solution of the vague question, "Is America, or New Zealand, or Canada a good country for the emigrant?" But what the laborer might fairly expect, and what he ought to have, is information of a detailed and precise kind as to the condition of the market in particular trades and at particular times and places. Last winter, when Father Walsh was taking so gloomy a view of the future of the country, and when no sane man would have advised the emigration of a laborer in any trade to this city, negotiations were going on, and very seasonably so far as one party at least was concerned, between our Government and the Russian sect known as the Mennonites—a simple agricultural people who merely needed a quantity of unoccupied land—for the cession of a large tract in the West. The laborer who did not emigrate to New York, and the Mennonites who are now on their way, both understood the logic of emigration thoroughly. A great deal of stress is now laid by the newspapers on the fact that there is an apparent tide of re-emigration to Europe from the United States, and this is supposed to point to a cessation of emigration from the other side. But apart from the difficulty of obtaining any reliable statistics, it should be taken into consideration that the rush to this country must be expected to fall off after a commercial panic. At the same time that we hear of this re-emigration, we hear of the emigration from England of two large bodies of men, one from the agricultural, the other from the mining districts.

THE GREAT SCANDAL.

MR. BEECHER'S explanation of the letters from which Tilton published extracts six weeks ago only appeared on Friday last. It ought to have appeared at the earliest immediately after Tilton's letter to Dr. Bacon; at the latest, immediately after Tilton's charges before the committee. Every day of the subsequent delay lent some force to Tilton's accusations by sapping the public faith in Mr. Beecher. This delay was, in fact, the crowning blunder of a series of blunders, the like of which we have never seen or heard of. It would only have been justifiable if the committee which was trying the case had been a body in whose discretion the public had confidence, whose judgment it was eager to hear and likely to respect. But the committee was made up in a way which from the outset deprived it of all weight. It was composed of Mr. Beecher's personal friends and adherents, selected by himself; and we think we are correct in saying that not a man of them had any experience whatever in the conduct of judicial enquiries, or any training likely to take the place of experience, or any such reputation before the world as would lead outsiders to rely on his opinion. Mr. Beecher's waiting, therefore, until such a tribunal had "got all the evidence" before he, the principal actor in the transaction, made his statement, wore to some people the appearance of child's play; to most people we fear it wore the appearance of something worse. In truth, it added one more fact to the case against him, and a fact, too, which has seriously increased the difficulties of his defence. His audience last week was by no means as indulgent as it would have been a month earlier, and the explanation which he has finally produced is not the kind of explanation which people are disposed to excuse a man for not producing hastily. It is neither a cold, careful narrative of facts, nor a technical or closely-knit argument. It is an impassioned, pathetic, somewhat effusive, and highly-wrought history of four miserable years, full of confessions of weakness and folly, of appeals *ad misericordiam*, and of descriptions of states of feeling—of the kind, in short, which is most effective when it is fresh, and over the composition of which the world does not permit a man to linger. If it is to carry conviction successfully, it must come hot from the heart at the first moment, and not after the witnesses have all been heard and the plaintiff has put in all his documents.

It must be observed, too, and we fear most people have observed, that there is not in Mr. Beecher's long paper a single good reason to be found for his not having answered the first day. None of the evidence taken has been such as to alter his line of defence since Tilton last spoke. Moreover, considering the depth of feeling with which he has deplored the effect on public morals of the prolongation of this wretched enquiry, we do not well know how the employment of a committee which could only sit two or three hours every evening is to be excused. If there ever was a case in which the court should have sat night and day until the work was done, it was this one. As matters have gone, the committee have had the air of men who enjoyed the dirty business in which they were engaged so much that they tried to keep it hanging on as long as possible, apparently unconscious that they had opened and were sitting over a cesspool the fumes of which were poisoning the whole country.

We mention all these things to show that we are fully conscious of all the weaknesses of Mr. Beecher's position. We have refrained thus far from expressing any opinion on the merits of the case, and have confined ourselves, in such references as we have made to it, to warning him against possible mistakes in his mode of meeting his accusers. We will add that the impression we received from the "apology" contained in the Tilton letter to Dr. Bacon was, that Mr. Beecher had possibly fallen into some indiscretion in his relations with Mrs. Tilton, which, in his morbid religious sentimentality, he had fearfully magnified and described to himself in unmeasured terms. The phrase, "he would have been a better man in my circumstances than I have been," was hardly explicable on any other hypothesis. But we felt, as every one felt, on the publication of his letters by Tilton, that in them lay the gravamen of the whole charge; that the explanation of them would no doubt be an exceedingly difficult task, but that it ought, if it was attempted at all, to be attempted at once; and that there was positive blindness in supposing that it could be safely laid over for even a day. We have accordingly read over Mr. Beecher's defence, not only without prejudice in his favor, but with a good deal of not unwarrantable disposition to judge him severely; and we are bound to say that we think he does furnish an explanation of his conduct which people outside Plymouth Church can comprehend, and that it does wholly relieve him of the graver imputations so persistently thrown on him.

The true story of the affair, when disentangled from the curious web of rhetoric in which he has enveloped it—and of which his comparing Mrs. Tilton on her bed, when he went to her to get her to sign her retraction, "to some forms carved in marble that he had seen upon monuments in Europe," is a striking and suggestive illustration—we take to be substantially this: Tilton's ill-treatment of his wife, combined with her own religiosity and Mr. Beecher's strong sympathy, led her gradually to contract an affection for the latter, which after a while presented itself toher own conscience as unlawful; and as she was frequently quarrelling with Tilton and then making up, she used a confession of this over-fondness for Mr. Beecher as the means of cementing one of her numerous reconciliations with her worthy husband, and at the same time of giving a little spice to the pietistic gush with which she appears to have been in the habit of deluging him, and of which he was doubtless, as he was a wayward gentleman, getting a little tired. This confession appears to have found Tilton in a bad way. He was losing his professional position, losing his credit with his friends, and his not very strong head was completely bemuddled by the multitude of new and strange doctrines which had risen on his path after his anti-slavery occupation was gone. In these great straits, being desperate and apparently shameless, the idea of turning his wife's relations with Beecher to worldly account seems to have taken possession of him, and for four years he treated it as a vein to be worked the more assiduously the more his fortunes were failing. To enable him to do this effectively, a go-between was of course necessary, and this was found in the person of Mr. Francis Moulton, an old classmate of Tilton's, of about the same amount of mental and moral culture, but a shrewd, smart business man of the Butler school—fond of intrigue—loving, like Butler, to do plain things in crooked, underhand ways—mixed up more or less in doubtful transactions, not at all scrupulous, making no pretence to be a Christian, and no more of a gentleman than the great Ben himself—a sort of person, in short, whom men of honor and refinement of feeling avoid and fear. Finding Tilton in trouble, and being fond of him, this person appears to have undertaken to extricate him by the means which had suggested itself to Tilton's own mind—viz., by exploiting, or, to use the slang of Butlerite circles, "striking" Beecher. In Beecher, it must be confessed, they found an easy prey. His story of Moulton's operations on him bears the unmistak-

able impress of truth, and it has never been our lot to read anything more pitiful. The two confederates appear to have kept the unfortunate man on the rack for four long years, harrowed by the most horrible terrors and anxieties, Tilton standing in the background as an injured and threatening husband, and Moulton running to and fro as a "mediator" and pacificator, extracting confessions and letters of contrition from Beecher by the handful, making him believe that his communications were all strictly "confidential," and then showing them or repeating their contents or giving copies to half the town, pretending to him that this or that cause of fear had passed away or was "buried in oblivion," and then setting it afloat among the friends and confederates of the pair as a rumor, in such shape and with such an air of authenticity as to plunge Beecher into fresh alarm and bring him once more to his knees.

Tilton and his friend finally connected themselves with Woodhull, Moulton inviting this woman to his house as a guest; and then they compelled or seduced their unhappy victim into meeting her, and there he was at first flattered and then actually threatened by her. They crowned his humiliation by trying to get him to preside at the meeting in Steinway Hall at which she proclaimed the gospel of lechery. In this they failed, and Tilton took Beecher's place. Tilton got his wife to sign a paper accusing Beecher of having made improper proposals to her, having apparently not at first made up his mind that it would be necessary to accuse her of actual adultery; and this he showed or talked of. In fact, throughout the whole transaction he appears to have been in constant danger of spoiling his own game through the pride and satisfaction he took in the éclat of having his wife's chastity assailed by so distinguished a man as Beecher. He was so eager in proclaiming this that he was frequently on the point of driving his victim to the wall, and causing a complete exposure before he had got all he needed out of him. Moulton appears to have backed him up with extraordinary skill and daring. When Beecher, almost driven crazy by the news that Mrs. Tilton had accused him in writing, made his way into her room and obtained her written withdrawal of the charge, Moulton actually pursued him to his own bedroom, and then and there extorted the paper from him, "opening his overcoat, and, with some emphatic remarks, showing a pistol, which afterwards he took out and laid on the bureau near where he stood." We suppose no decent man has read Mr. Beecher's statement without feeling his pulse quicken when he learnt that Mr. Beecher, instead of sending out for a policeman, or taking his friend by the throat and kicking him down-stairs, pistol and all, "gave the paper to him." After this incident, Beecher appears to have been on as friendly terms with Moulton as ever, and beslavers him in all his letters with expressions of affection and admiration. To sum up, they got all the "papers" they wanted from him and $7,000 in money, and then, by way of tightening the screw, raised the charge from improper solicitation to actual adultery, and at last, finding the orange was squeezed dry, they produced their budget of filth to the public. Moulton, then, though released from all obligation of secresy by both parties, declined to testify on grounds of honorable delicacy, but at the same time told most of what he said he knew—and this most damaging to Beecher—to the reporter of the Chicago *Tribune*, for publication in that paper, Tilton at the same time furnishing his wife's letters to the same journal, to show how happy his married life used to be before it was ruined by his pastor. A more revolting tale, as far as these two are concerned, is not to be found in the literature of crime.

The main question of interest for the public, however, is of course the possibility of accounting for Beecher's mental agony, as described by himself in his letters, by the circumstances of the case as he recounts them. We do not think this would have been possible if the letters had stood as Tilton produced them and there had been no others in existence; but the additions Mr. Beecher makes show clearly enough that the offence he had in his mind was much less grave than the one with which he was charged, and that he never got over the demoralization caused by learning that Mrs. Tilton, the "beloved Christian woman," as he described her, had not only confessed that she had given him too much affection, but that he had sought to seduce her. This clearly unmanned him, and we think had a great deal more to do with his subsequent misery than he admits. He is *now* evidently anxious to make it appear, and doubtless honestly believes, that what preyed most on him was his having helped to ruin Tilton by denouncing him to Bowen, his employer. But, odd and weak as he appears in the transaction, the fear of this last fact becoming known can hardly have reduced him to despair.

To make his conduct appear rational is no part of our present business. Nor need we add one word to the condemnation which he himself passes on it in his statement to the committee. He speaks of himself, as far as regards his dealings with Tilton and Moulton, as severely as any one else could desire to speak. But then he evidently fails to see, what most other thinking people see, that the calamity which has overtaken him, and bids fair to cloud his declining years, is the not unnatural result of his philosophy of life. He acknowledges that he acted in some sort as a father to Tilton after this man had left college, and he was mainly instrumental in pushing him into prominence. But in doing this he showed the same lamentable lack of judgment and discrimination which has in a higher degree marked his course in his late troubles, and has surrounded him with the noisome and unclean crowd of busybodies who have figured in the "Scandal." He found Tilton a smart young reporter, with little or no outfit in the way of knowledge or training of any kind, with a lively fancy, and the seeds of an inordinate vanity. He at once took him under his patronage, pushed him into a position on the *Independent* which, small as were its demands, was probably above his resources, made him at the age of twenty-six his confidential friend and companion, and then went off to Europe leaving him in what he calls "one of the proudest editorial chairs in the world." If Tilton's brain in this position was soon addled by vanity and ambition, and if when the abolition of slavery left him without a subject for his rhetoric he went crazy after novelties, we think Mr. Beecher more than any other man was to blame; for we greatly doubt if, when Tilton was humble and obscure and docile, he was ever honestly told by his Mentor that knowledge, study, and hard work are more necessary to fill editorial chairs than gaudy sentimentality. We will add that it was not until Mr. Beecher had rushed down to the Astor House with the impetuosity of a youth of twenty, and married a couple who did not belong to his church and had no legitimate claim on him, one of whom was dying from a wound inflicted by a jealous husband, and the other of whom was if lawfully, not truly divorced, that Tilton began the publication of those strange articles on marriage in the *Independent* which foreshadowed his present ruin. They appeared immediately after the Richardson tragedy, and in fact they grew out of it, and with characteristic fatuity the author allied himself on this occasion with John Milton. He was by this time separating himself from Mr. Beecher, and, in fact, had come to look on himself as the greater man of the two; but it was soon painfully evident that he had not enough substance in him to stand alone. Yet Mr. Beecher, who knew him as nobody else knew him, seems never to have found him out. Nay, at a still earlier period, in 1863, when Mr. Beecher was in England, one of the foremost men in America, with a fame that filled both worlds, he had, it appeared, nobody to whom to pour forth his inmost soul on this side of the water but this flighty and half-taught boy. His letter to Tilton on that occasion has been published; so has a later one of Tilton's to him. They read like epistles of Hattie to Minnie, and Minnie to Hattie, from two distant boarding-schools, and they make one wonder that Mr. Beecher should have so long filled the position he occupies without falling into some such scrape as the present, and prepare one for his friendship with Moulton, and with certain of his adherents in Brooklyn whose manœuvres in his behalf have so disgusted the public during the past year.

We will not say all that might be said of the tendency which this affair has clearly revealed in Mr. Beecher to prefer the society of his inferiors to that of his equals, for it is a fault into which all clergymen are more or less liable to fall. A very successful minister becomes inevitably an object of homage to a large body of women and of uneducated men; and it is a homage so sweet even to the strongest heads that nothing but great vigor of character prevents a man from gradually avoiding all circles in which he is not likely to receive it, and in which his sayings are likely to meet with irreverent handling. And yet no position is more full of moral and intellectual danger than that of "king of one's company." Nothing is more necessary for moral and mental health and discipline than the society of one's equals; and anybody who finds that he shrinks from it may be sure that he carries within him the seeds of decline, and he may be thankful if some fine day he do not find that he has, like Mr. Beecher, passed into the hands of a crowd of religious sharpers, ready to trade on his fame and get distraction out of his agony.

This tendency has been aggravated in Mr. Beecher's case by peculiar views of social obligation, to which we have had occasion to make some reference once or twice before. He has long held a theory, and has, we believe, honestly tried to live up to it, that it is man's duty, as he expresses it, "to look at the world as God looks at it," or, in other words, to govern himself, in his dealings with his fellows, by inferences of his own as to the manner in which God would act under similar circumstances. As his God is wholly love, and is no respecter of persons, attempts to imitate Him result simply in the deliberate and systematic suppression of all discrimination touching character and conduct, and the cultivation of a purely emotional theology, made up, not of opinions, but of sighs and tears and aspirations and unlimited good-nature. As God loves and forgives the sinner, why should not we? In his sight there is after all little or no difference between

Bishop Potter and Bill Tweed, why should we, His creatures, try to make any? As Christ associated freely with publicans and sinners, why should we attempt to indicate the existence of moral superiority on the part of one man over another? Moreover, since our religious life consists largely of expression—that is, the communication by one to another of what he or she feels about death and judgment—and in fact the church exists for the promotion of this expression, ought we not to take each person's account of his moral condition, and not look too nicely into the conduct of his life? We do not think we exaggerate when we say that Mr. Beecher has tried this system fully and faithfully in Brooklyn, and we do not fear to add that the events of the last three months were not necessary to satisfy people of its failure. It makes a state of society in which the self-respect of the honest, the manly, and pure-minded is lowered or destroyed, and in which that of the foul, the unscrupulous, the shallow and tricky, is raised and strengthened; and in which the good and bad and indifferent, by "pooling" their character, as the railroad men say, produce a mass of corruption, indecency, and vulgarity which has to be periodically washed away by some such tempest as we are now witnessing.

FRANCE.—A REPUBLIC WITHOUT REPUBLICANS.

LAUSANNE, July 27, 1874.

THE last parliamentary battle of any importance has just been fought, and I have escaped from Versailles while the smoke was still in the air to get a little necessary rest. The result was not unexpected to me. The proposition of Casimir-Périer was the occasion for a new struggle between the Republicans and the Monarchists, but since the downfall of M. Thiers it is quite clear that the Republican cause has not been in the ascendant. The Casimir-Périer proposition reminds me of the verses of Barbier in his now almost forgotten 'Iambes':

"Non, non, la Liberté n'est pas une comtesse
Du noble faubourg Saint-Germain,
Une femme qu'un cri fait tomber en faiblesse,
Qui met du blanc et du carmin!
C'est une forte femme aux puissantes mamelles,
A la voix rauque, aux durs appas,
Qui, du brun sur la peau, du feu dans les prunelles,
Agile et marchant à grands pas,
Se plaît au bruit des camps, aux sanglantes mêlées,
Aux longs roulemens des tambours,
Et qui prend son plaisir aux funèbres volées
Des cloches et des canons sourds."

This is and will long remain the ideal republic in France—the Republic of Danton, of Marceau, of the soldiers of the army of Sambre-et-Meuse. Gambetta tried to galvanize it; he played Danton, but victory did not answer his call; he smote the ground for armies, but armies did not spring up under his feet, and his ill-equipped, disorganized levies crossed the Loire instead of the Rhine. Some of the Communist leaders—Rossel, for instance—dreamed also of a sanguinary, despairing, bloody republic; but the Commune could only inflict wounds on France, and the Germans witnessed from Saint Denis the conflagration of the monument which their own hands would have spared.

The republican ardor has always been in France a fever, a sort of disease; it was so in 1793, then again in 1848, and now we see the same phenomenon, and the malady goes through the same stages. We have our Girondins; there are always some men who believe that this virago, so graphically described in the verses of Barbier, can be changed into an honest matron, a good mother of a family; men who believe that the absence of a king is enough to constitute a republic, theorists who work at constitutions as did the Abbé Sieyès, who made, if I am not mistaken, ten perfect constitutions in his lifetime, and found that he had constituted nothing but an absolute emperor. Casimir-Périer is the type of our modern Girondin; he is never tired of saying that he always was a monarchist till the monarchy seemed to him to have become impossible. In his proposition he says in the first article that the government of the Republic shall be composed of a president and two chambers, and in article three he inserts a right to revise the whole constitution. He would like to continue the *essai loyal* of the Republic, and, if the trial did not succeed, to change the Republic by law into a constitutional monarchy. His Republic is like a watch with a key to it. It has never occurred to his mind that such changes are not legally possible. How would our so-called Conservative Republicans know that their Republic had failed? They would probably only pronounce it a failure on the day when they were excluded from power, and in that case the key of the revision clause would no longer be in their hands. To say beforehand, "We will make a government, we will call it republican; but if Gambetta and his friends get a majority in the elections, we will call for a king," is a sort of reasoning which seems to me almost childish. Gambetta is more consistent; he was a republican under the Empire, in the face of Napoleon III.; he stigmatized the Second of December and its partisans; he would have remained a republican if the Comte de Chambord had been called to the throne. He is a republican because he has republican principles. M. Casimir-Périer confesses that his principles are not republican; he is eclectic; he does not care for the form of government. No religion can make much progress if it is preached by unbelievers.

It is therefore not to be wondered at if the Chamber has rejected the Périer proposition, and shut itself resolutely up in the Septennat. Suppose we look at the nature of the Septennat. It would be difficult to theorize over it, as Montesquieu did upon the various forms of government. In reality, the Septennat is nothing better than the government of necessity. Much has been said lately in France about the Stadtholders of the Low Countries, and though it is difficult to find exact analogies in history, it cannot be denied that the President of our Republic is somewhat in the position of the Stadtholders. The French ambassador, Du Maurier, in his curious memoirs, which have been used with much profit by Mr. Motley, tells us that Maurice of Nassau had some idea of making himself a king. He consulted Barneveld, and the great statesman told him that he could hold almost regal powers under the name of Stadtholder. The Dutch were, in Barneveld's opinion, somewhat averse to the establishment of a monarchy, but they had no distinct republican principles. France has monarchical instincts, but she has become estranged from the old line of French kings; she can have no king at present, so long as the representative of monarchy offends her love of equality, her hatred of priestly rule; but the Republic which has issued from this impossibility has purely negative characters; the love of the Republic is, I am almost ashamed to say, only intense among those who consider the Republic as the absence of all law, the gratification of all the violent passions of the human race, the revenge of poverty, of obscurity, of ignorance. Maurice of Nassau well understood that the commonwealth of the Low Countries, surrounded by enemies and by dangerous allies, divided by religious passions, required a strong hand to lead it; if he could not be a king, he could be a guide; he was the head of the army, and he soon became the head of the state. When the Chamber rose against M. Thiers, did the country rebel? There was no attempt in Paris or in the provinces to reverse the verdict of the Assembly. And what did the Assembly mean by giving the executive power to the head of the army, to a man who until then was only known by his courage, his energy, and his silence? The taciturn Marshal could often be seen at the Versailles Theatre, witnessing quietly the debates in which M. Thiers played so brilliant and so useless a rôle. He had slowly made up his mind; when he accepted power he was resolved to give it only into the hands of a king, or, if no restoration was possible, to keep it in his own hands. It was a futile hope to think that he would favor the establishment of a permanent Republic, when he had been placed in his office by all the enemies of the Republican party; he considers himself as the head of the Conservatives, but he will not allow the Conservatives to make any change in the tenure of office which they have given to him. For seven years he will repeat to them what he said at Malakoff, "J'y suis, j'y resterai." During these seven years he will be called the President of the Republic, but his power is really *sui generis*, he is a sort of elected constitutional king; he holds the executive power in trust for a number of years, and his difficulties arise only from the fact that while the term of this trust has been fixed, its real nature is still undefined. The Marshal cares perhaps little about the character of this trust, he only insists upon the necessity of a Second Chamber, upon the right of dissolution, and upon a new electoral law; but he feels keenly the necessity of some constitutional laws, as at present he is nominally still under the authority of the Assembly.

To place a man in the highest office of the state and not to say at once what will be the rights and duties of this office, is an imprudent act; but it was committed on the 20th November, when the law of prorogation was voted. I warned many of my friends, at the time, of the imprudence they were committing, but the prorogation law was passed with a sort of *furia* which would stop at nothing. The monarchical party felt so keenly the humiliation which they had suffered by the failure of the restoration scheme, they were so angry with the Comte de Chambord, and so afraid at the same time that Thiers would use his opportunity and seize the power again, that they jumped as it were with their eyes shut into the Septennat. The Chamber felt like a speculator who becomes alarmed about his fortune, and gives an order to a broker the consequences of which he does not distinctly perceive. The Legitimists were the first to see that they had unwittingly shut completely the door on the Comte de Chambord; if he should come now to France with the tricolor flag in hand, the Septennat would stop his way. The Bonapartists have been warned in their turn that they are not at liberty to plot against the Septennat. They may sell photographs of their young prince, or distribute them by the million, but they will no longer be allowed to preserve a secret organization—committees and sub-committees—which has ramifications in the army, in the police, in all the administrations.

The Marshal has come to the conclusion that his best friends are to be found in the old Constitutional party; his actual Cabinet is free from any ultra-Legitimist or Bonapartist elements. It seems as if after many attempts we had at last found what I may call the *color* of the Septennat—a régime which consists merely in the preservation of order and the execution of the law. In the present divided state of France, on the ruins of so many dynasties and republics, what else could be done? The Marshal is not a dictator; in the Senate of the Empire he alone spoke and voted against a cruel law called the law of general security (which better deserved the name of law of general insecurity); he distinctly told the Emperor Napoleon III., the first time he saw him, that he had cast his vote against him at the time of the election of the President in 1849. He is a man of conscience, devoted to his duties, modest rather than bold, but very resolute and firm in action; the army has much respect for him, and the army has perforce become a great power in a country where there are so many factions. After the suicide of the Comte de Chambord, it was easy to prophesy that the country had been too near a monarchy to proclaim immediately the Republic, and that some personal government would be founded. The forces which had brought back not only France but the House of Orléans to the idea of a Legitimist restoration, were anti-republican forces. These forces are now at rest; an equilibrium of seven years has been found; and it may be almost safely conjectured that France may have for a long time a succession of personal governments. It may be that our Stadtholders will be the unwilling founders of a republic adapted to the wishes and interests of the French people; it may be also that among them will one day be found one of those men who can only be satisfied with a regal or imperial title. One thing seems to me certain: France is getting accustomed slowly to the present régime, which is the reality of what M. Thiers once called the Republic without republicans; the very name of Republic inscribed everywhere will force the Government to be very conservative, and sometimes even illiberal; and it is not impossible that the Republic may be founded in fact in France by a man who never looked at the Republicans but with contempt, who was made a duke and a marshal by Napoleon III., and who was educated among the most fervid adherents of legitimacy.

Correspondence.

THE WISCONSIN METHOD OF RAILROAD REFORM.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: That the *Nation* should be pig-headed when wrong, probably follows of necessity from its possession of certain admirable qualities which contribute most to its value and its success; and we who largely rely upon it to do our thinking on current topics, must put up with its little vagaries, and be thankful that it so seldom is wrong.

It is anent the Grangers and the railroads. Why the *Nation* should fail to do justice to the farmers I cannot see, but it does. Their grievances at the hands of the railroads it states fully and forcibly; but it appears unable to realize the effect on the human mind produced by such grievances as it describes, and it imputes to "a fresh outburst of dishonesty by which a certain portion of the community is infected as with the scrofula," a movement which is the legitimate result of "rings among the managers of roads; stock-jobbing on the part of the directors; dishonest secresy and equivocation in the transaction of business; corrupting influence on the State legislatures; corrupt discriminations made in freight charges; occasional raising of charges in the absence of competition, and occasional failures to lower them as much as the abundance of business would have warranted; and a general want of civility and of a spirit of accommodation among railroad officials."

In the face of such an indictment as this against the railroads, given in the words of the *Nation* (No. 472), one is at a loss to understand why it should seem necessary to attribute to innate dishonesty the uncouth flounderings which an unfortunate public makes in its efforts to escape from oppression. Nor is it dishonesty. In the case of Wisconsin, the discussion of whose railroad troubles called forth the expression to which I object, a business acquaintance extending to all parts of the State, and embracing farmers, business men, legislators, and professional men of all classes, and continued through the whole period of this active railroad discussion, impels me to declare that in all this acquaintance I not only find no evidence of any reckless desire to obtain relief at any cost, regardless of the rights of corporations, but I find abundant evidence of a contrary spirit. And it is on my return from a month's trip in that State that I find awaiting me the *Nation* for the four weeks in July, which contain sentiments which seem to me so unjust to the people with whom I have been mingling, that I cannot refrain from protesting against them.

There is a deep-seated feeling in Wisconsin, as in the West generally, that they are being thoroughly imposed upon by the railroads. And who shall say that it has no foundation? There is also a determination, equally deep-seated, to make these corporations feel that they are within the power of the law; and by legal enactments, the wisest they know how to frame, to secure the redress of those grievances which they firmly believe to exist. That the Wisconsin railroad law is unwise is probably true. But railroad men have only their own mismanagement to blame that any law whatever has been passed; and it is their own "dishonest secresy" that keeps from the public the information necessary to *wise* legislation. I can assure you that to secure the repeal of any part of the law that is unjust they have only to *show* that it is unjust, and in the meantime they are expected to submit to the legislation which their own misconduct has compelled.

The railroad question has been so thoroughly discussed at the West, that the community generally is much better instructed upon it than I suppose the general public at the East to be. The difficulty of dealing with it is well understood. Nobody claims to know what is right, or insists that the present legislation is final. But the sentiment is universal that a statute of some kind is necessary, and that, pending further light, the railroads must submit to what has been done.

I have said so much in defence of the *animus* of the railroad movement. Permit me a few words on two of the points in dispute.

1st. As to the justice of compelling corporations to submit to that provision of the Wisconsin constitution which places them entirely at the mercy of the legislature. I do not mean the legal *necessity* of submission, which I do not see how any one can doubt, but the absolute *justice* of it.

In a civilized state, the supreme power in legislation must rest *somewhere*, and the public must take the risk of its abuse. In Great Britain it rests in Parliament; and no one doubts that the British courts would enforce any act that Parliament might pass, whether just or unjust. If unjust, an aggrieved party could only appeal to Parliament for redress. In this country, there can be no question that this power is with the legislatures, under the State constitutions, except where expressly or implicitly given to the General Government. In Wisconsin, in railroad matters entirely within the State, there is happily no doubt that the legislature has full control. That this power is fearfully liable to abuse is too true. But where can it be placed better? Apparently, it must rest either with the legislatures or with the railroads themselves, and as between them certainly there can be but one choice. There is no other way. The railroads must take their chance of being oppressed; and the public must take their chance of being sold out by their servants. If either thing is done, an appeal to the people must supply the remedy. If this is wrong, the fault is in our form of government. Under that form, no other course is open. And does not the *Nation* very justly base all its political theory on the grand doctrine of the honesty of the majority? As to States not protected, like Wisconsin, by their constitution, is justice more likely to be done in them under the ægis of the Dartmouth College decision? If a corrupt legislature sells an oppressive charter to a railroad company, is it just that the doctrine of "vested rights" can prevent succeeding generations from repealing it? To what extent ought this generation to be able to bind posterity? To what extent will posterity probably submit to our entails?

2d. The *Nation* (No. 472), in the article above-quoted, says that reason for dissatisfaction exists in the fact that "rings among the managers of the roads, for the purpose of defrauding the company by making contracts with it, or furnishing it supplies above the market rates, had become shamefully common. So had the practice of stock-jobbing on the part of the directors. So had dishonest secresy and equivocation in the management of its business; but from all these things it was the *shareholders* who suffered."

Now, this is just the point in dispute. If the "shareholders" will adopt the *Nation's* view, and will adjust their demands accordingly, we can make short work of the railroad question. The public believes that the "shareholders" have been shamefully cheated by their directors, who have either wasted a large part of the funds committed to them, or have applied them to their own purposes, and have abused their trusts in the other ways described by the *Nation*. They understand further that the "shareholders" claim that they paid their money in good faith, and are entitled to interest from the first on the whole amount. On the other hand, the public insists that the delinquent directors were the agents of the shareholders, who must bear the loss resulting from their unfaithfulness, and that the charges must be adjusted to pay interest only on the necessary cost of the improvements. And the call now is for data necessary to determine the accuracy of the popular belief.

In so far as railroad funds *have* been misapplied, what is the opinion of the *Nation*? Ought tariffs to be adjusted to pay interest on such funds or not?

Edward F. Adams.

Chicago, August 5.

[About the *animus* of the Wisconsin people we have nothing to say, except that we think its expression in legislation is a more trustworthy indication of its character than any general testimony of individuals. Our indictment of the railroad corporations, of which our correspondent seems to approve, is one which has been repeatedly made in these columns, and was made long before the Granger movement was heard of. We should cordially support any attempt to deal with the evils which it sets forth. But no such attempt has been made. There is in the Granger movement thus far no sign of any such attempt. There is much empty talk by Granger agitators about "rings and combinations," but the one scheme of reform thus far produced by them consists in an attack on property, such as that in Wisconsin. With the "rings" and "combinations," and the "dishonest secresy and equivocation," and "the corrupting influence on State legislatures," no effort is made to deal, but an act is passed practically confiscating the property of the stockholders and bondholders, by compelling them to sell their wares at such prices as the purchasers, without enquiry, think "reasonable." In other words, the farmer's notion of railroad reform would seem, if one may judge from what has passed in Wisconsin, to consist in having himself and his baggage carried cheap. If the directors will do this, it would appear that they may cheat and equivocate and conceal and job and corrupt as much as they please. This is what the Potter law means, if it means anything. Of course, control over the railroads, as over all other interests within the State, must rest somewhere. There is nothing objectionable —on the contrary, there is everything that is commendable—in the resolutions of the Wisconsin constitution regarding charters. But when we say this we take it for granted that the legislature is and will be composed of civilized men, with the ordinary notions of the Western world regarding the sacredness of property. No legislature in Christendom has ever claimed or dared to exercise the power on which this Potter legislation rests, and which was confidently asserted by the State counsel in the first argument before the United States Court. The British Parliament, "omnipotent" though it be, has never put forward anything so monstrous. There is much talk in England of abating railroad abuses by the seizure of the roads by the state, but there has been no suggestion of this on any other terms than the payment to the stockholders of the market value of their shares. The doctrine that the right to "alter" or revoke a charter involves the right to confiscate the property created under it, is, as we have said, a brigand's doctrine. No matter what the provisions of the Wisconsin constitution may be, the legislature is bound to use its discretion under the fundamental canons of Western civilization. As the matter stands now, we can recall nothing resembling its action except the legislation of the Greek Parliament regarding the mines of Laurium.

Even if our correspondent's theory (that this action was caused by the rage generated by the ill-timed resistance and insolence of the railroad companies) be correct, we do not see that it mends matters. Most improvements in Wisconsin are made with the savings of foreigners and non-residents. These persons lend or invest their money in the State in reliance on the good-sense and integrity and moderation of the Wisconsin government. They take it for granted that the reasonable expectations of investors will not be arbitrarily interfered with; that charters inviting the subscription of capital will be granted in good faith and be honorably upheld; and that the State will do whatever is necessary to see that the corporations created by such charters are honorably managed. But if, whenever the directors of the railroads and the State legislature get into a quarrel, the legislature is capable of flying into a passion and inflicting a tremendous penalty on the stock and bondholders in order to punish the directors, we say unhesitatingly that such legislation is only worthy of Dahomey, and we tell investors at home and abroad that they cannot safely lend their money to a State which is governed in this way. The legislature has this year legislated in a passion against railroads; it may next year legislate in a passion against insurance companies or saw or grist mills, and the year after against mortgagees. There is never any telling what passionate people will do. A passionate legislature or a passionate majority is simply a mob acting under the forms of law. The Potter law is simply a mild way of doing what a mob does when it burns a station or tears up rails or throws locomotives off the track.

We receive every now and then intimations that if we talk of this, the Wisconsin people will get angrier and attack the railroads worse than ever. To which we reply, that we do not think this result wholly undesirable. The rise and growing impudence of the "practical man" in politics during the last thirty years has deprived all arguments drawn from the experience of mankind of much of their force in popular eyes, and, indeed, introduced among us one of the marks of barbarism—a disposition to look on conclusions drawn from each man's own little observations as safer guides than the strongest generalizations of history. The "bookmen" know perfectly well what the results of cheating the public creditors or capitalists or of inflating the currency are sure to be. But they have, as we saw last winter, the greatest difficulty in getting a hearing or influencing legislation. The West is now going through a craze about railroads in which the immediate petty interests of this year have assumed such control of the popular mind, that anybody who points out the probable effects of its goings-on upon its future prosperity is apt to be stigmatized as a speculator or the tool of a speculator; and it seems almost certain that any legislation on the railroad problem attempted in the present state of feeling will be mischievous. It would, therefore, we think, be most fortunate, and would greatly contribute to a rational solution of the problem hereafter, if Wisconsin or some other State would rush on and work out to the end what we have taken the liberty of calling the brigand mode of dealing with it. Its experience would be invaluable to the others. We confess, also, to having the deepest sympathy with the thousands, both at home and abroad, whose invested savings and securities such bodies as the Wisconsin Legislature are going to examine with the view of discovering the amount of interest which pure "justice" will permit them to bear. We assure them that in the present state of politics, and in the present moral condition of the politician, all schemes of this kind mean robbery at some stage or other; and as long as they are talked of, we mean to do our share towards putting investors on their guard against all borrowers and all enterprises of whatever kind in the States in which they are talked of. Until "the farmer" takes some less questionable step towards reform than announcing that he is part proprietor of all goods which he would like to buy cheap, he must make up his mind to hear unpleasant things from those who care nothing for his vote, and care a good deal about public morality. When strangers who have lent money to build Wisconsin railroads complain that the directors out there are cheating them, it is no answer for the Wisconsin farmer to say that they have cheated him too, and that he is going to get all he can out of them, and let the stock and bond holders go to the devil. The Wisconsin farmer is himself the State government, and it is his business not to begin thieving too, in a kind of sham despair over the general dishonesty, but to pass with all care and conscience such laws as will assure to every man who has any dealing with or in the State the satisfaction of all expectations which the State has sanctioned or encouraged.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE July number of the *Publishers' Weekly* consists entirely of an American Educational Catalogue for 1874, which includes, by the way, the publications of Macmillan & Co., Geo. Routledge & Sons, and other English houses having agencies here. The catalogue is classified, and the arrangement of works according to the authors' names.——G. P. Putnam's Sons publish immediately, in connection with the English publishers, Dorothy Wordsworth's 'Recollections of a Tour,' this tour being one made in company with Coleridge and Wordsworth through Scotland in 1803. The work is edited by Principal Shairp. Also, in their series of Elementary and Advanced Science, an 'Introduction to the Study of General Biology,' by Thomas G. MacGinley, and a 'Manual of Metallurgy,' by Wm. Henry

Greenwood.——While waiting for the appearance of the map of Africa in Stieler's Hand-Atlas, the smaller map prepared for his School-Atlas may be recommended to those who take a special interest in the geography of this continent. A proof-sheet of it is given in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for June 25. The same number contains a reduced copy of the map of Captain Hall's Arctic explorations published by the Hydrographic Office, U. S. N. ——'Ritter's Geographisch-statistisches Lexikon' has reached the 6th part in both volumes, the publication of which goes on simultaneously (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) Apropos of this gazetteer, of which the first edition appeared in 1835, Dr. Keber tells a curious story in the *Mittheilungen*. The original conception was due to a certain Privat-docent of history in Halle, who broke down, however, in the early stages of the work, and was relieved by two brothers, theological students, whose perseverance was crowned with success. When the time came to fix upon a name for their venture they chose that of the father of scientific geography, and lived to have the assurance of a reviewer that "the name [of Ritter] is a sufficient guaranty of the excellence of the work"!——The newly-founded Geographical Society of Amsterdam follows the example of kindred bodies in maintaining an organ, and has just issued the first number of its *Tijdschrift*.——The numismatic collection of Mr. James L. Hill, formerly mayor of Madison, Wisconsin, is offered for sale up to October 1, proposals being received for the whole or for a part. The number of pieces is between 5,000 and 6,000, inscribed in nearly twenty languages. The most ancient medal mentioned in the catalogue (to be had of W. S. Main, assignee, Madison) is one of Alexander. We remark also the following, as more curious than rare, however: a silver medal of Venice surveying the map of conquered Greece (1687); the Massachusetts Pine-tree shilling (1652); nine small coins of Sedan (from 1642); and a white-metal medal—"obv. bust of Stonewall Jackson; rev. Bull Run, etc."—executed in Paris. In American coinage, Colonial and Federal, the collection is noticeably complete.——We have often alluded to the changes in the population of New England caused by the influx of Canadians. The intercourse between this country and the British Provinces is now or promises to become so intimate as to warrant the experiment of a newspaper devoted to its furtherance. We have before us the tenth number of an eight-page weekly published in Boston, called the *American Canadian*.

—The American Association for the Advancement of Science has held its annual meeting at Hartford during the past and present week. The most important business before the meeting has been the consideration and adoption of a new constitution, designed to remedy a long-continued evil growing out of the popular character of the Association. The scientific character of the papers and proceedings has very frequently been such as seriously to compromise the standing of the Association in the scientific world. To remedy this, it has been decided to select from the members those who are engaged in science and form them into a separate class of "Fellows." All the officers of the Association are now to be chosen from this class, and the power of the several committees to exclude improper or unsuitable communications has been increased. All friends of science will await with interest the working of this improvement. The necessity of some vigorous and effective measures must be obvious to any one who will simply examine the lists of papers presented for reading. Among some hundred authors, the number of really eminent men may be counted on one's fingers, while the large majority are entirely unknown, and present papers which, so far as can be judged from their titles, are of no scientific importance. We greatly doubt whether this evil will be cured by anything short of a radical change in the publishing system of the Association. So long as there is a volume of "proceedings" to be published, so long will there be a pressure on the part of the less desirable class of members to have their papers printed, and this pressure can be resisted only by a little more moral courage on the part of the Standing Committee than it has hitherto exhibited. While such papers are admitted, we may be sure that few of the abler members will wish their productions to be seen in such company. It is gratifying to notice that the present meeting exhibits a decided improvement in this respect, and that notwithstanding the general unimportance of the communications, the subjects of ether and atoms do not appear among those discussed before the Association.

—The discussion about the John Brown Song has brought out our contemporary, the *Methodist*, which does not pretend to original knowledge about any of the words except the chorus, but lays claim to the tune as good Methodist music, known in all the camp-meetings. The enemies of the Methodist denomination may see in this an additional proof of an old accusation against the brethren. This was to the effect that whenever anybody died who was at the same time a man of mark and of unknown "antecedents" as regards denominational creed, the brethren were apt in all kindness to make a "brevet Methodist" out of him. They were credited with having a good deal of zeal for the enlargement of the borders of the church, as indeed no follower of Asbury would deny; but the thoughtless among the world's people compared their eagerness in this respect to a well-known habit of the Irish mind, which no sooner discovers that somebody has made a name in the world than it discovers also that his descent can be traced to the Phœnicians. We imagine, however, that the John Brown tune will be left in the possession of our contemporary as undoubted Methodist property. Another writer coming to our assistance from Baltimore recalls the days when many years ago he used to hear at colored camp-meetings a song beginning thus:

"When this poor body lies mouldering in the ground,"

and which we suppose had also the proper chorus. And before it was adopted for use in Northern politics it had got into Southern. Our readers will remember the strength of the "Know-Nothing" or "American" feeling in Maryland Our correspondent says that in 1858, when Thomas Swann (American) was elected Mayor of Baltimore over Robert Clinton Wright, the song of the Plug-Uglies, who had paid the necessary attention to that election, began with the words,

"Robert Wright's body lies mouldering in the ground."

We are not told if the line following the thrice-repeated line had any reference to the soul. It will be seen, then, that the song may by possibility have had a negro origin—a fact which would have an appropriateness. The *Methodist* observes that when during the war a call was made for a national song, and a committee was appointed to select one, the John Brown Song was not sent in; and the writer ventures the assertion that had it been sent in it would have been rejected—which we have no doubt is a perfectly safe thing to say. A "call for a national song" is not exactly the sort of demand which produces supplies such as the song we know; nor is it usual that the gentlemen selected to form the committee on these occasions are favorites of the nine Muses. They are, on the contrary, much likelier to be taken by the glitter of such fabrications as Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's "Battle Hymn of the Republic," with its false ring in every line and word. But

"Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord"

was soon dead.

—Readers of the newspapers who have been made aware of the "celebration of the centenary of the discovery of oxygen" in the United States, have perhaps not noticed that in England also something of the same kind was going on. At Birmingham, at the unveiling of a statue of Priestley, Professor Huxley delivered an address in which he asked the patience of the audience "for a short time, while he laid before them the grounds and considerations which had led the fellow-countrymen of Priestley, after a lapse of seventy years from the time of his death, to do this honor to a man who was neither a prince nor a statesman nor a general, and was not, in fact, one of those to whom mankind generally delighted to erect statues, either before or after their death." This Professor Huxley proceeded to do in a very interesting manner, showing that it was not merely in honor of the discovery of a previously unknown gas that Priestley's memory was being celebrated, but also because he had been, in dangerous and tyrannous times, a fearless and honest searcher after truth, and a conscientious martyr to duty. In Professor Huxley's own words, "he took it that Priestley was of opinion that before he was a man of science he was a man in the first place, and a citizen in the second place." and Professor Huxley could himself "entirely sympathize with him if he held the duties of his manhood and of his citizenship to be vastly superior to those of his philosophership, and if he thought that the securing of that freedom which is the essential condition of the progress of science and the progress of the human race, was a vastly more important matter than advancing knowledge in this direction or that direction, vast as was the importance of that progress itself." In order to understand the importance of Priestley's labors for science, we have to carry ourselves back to a period (and it was only a hundred years ago) when "there was no one who believed, and hardly any one who suspected, that the doctrines of the ancients—that air, water, and fire are elements—was other than true"; and to understand the courage of Priestley as a political and religious reformer, we have to recollect that he was a dissenter, and a Unitarian, and a political liberal, at a time when "his preaching was a crime"; when "every Sunday during which he abstained from going to a service which he abhorred he could have been visited by a fine and imprisonment"; when "society was in a state of corruption which could only be compared to that of the Second Empire in France"; and "when bribery was the means of government, and peculation its reward"; when "four-fifths of the seats in the House of Commons were

notoriously for sale in one shape or another"; and when "the minister required to know the state of the vote market more than any other." Whatever opinions one may hold nowadays about the perfectibility of mankind, Professor Huxley thinks no candid person can deny that the world is better off than it was in the "dead waste and middle of the eighteenth century," as Lowell calls it somewhere; and that we are improved in knowledge and liberty is in no small measure due to Priestley and his fellows.

—We find the following paragraph, copied from the English journals, circulating widely in ours:

"In preaching at Westminster Abbey, the Bishop of Lincoln said that cremation would, he believed, imperil the doctrine of the resurrection, and so produce the most disastrous consequences."

One would be inclined to disbelieve the statement entirely were it not that substantially the same idea has been frequently expressed both in this country and in England. It is really extremely difficult to understand the condition of an educated mind in which such a notion finds lodgment; and the fact that it does find lodgment and expression is a very strong argument for a more general diffusion of scientific education. Can it be supposed that a matter so important as the resurrection of the body is deemed to be, has been left dependent upon accident or upon the caprice of men in the method of disposing of the bodies of the dead? Does the Bishop of Lincoln imagine that Latimer, Ridley, Cranmer, and all the other martyrs of the stake are to exist for ever in some disembodied state, while their less deserving brethren who were more fortunate in the method of their death inherit that glorified body of which St. Paul speaks? How, too, with Wiclyffe, whose remains are reported to have been burned years after his death? Do not these gentlemen (the Bishop of Lincoln and others) know that, scientifically speaking, the results of burning and of slow decay are precisely the same—viz., the resolution of the body into its constituent elements; indeed, that the processes are so nearly identical that Liebig gives to decay the name "cremacausis"—slow combustion—and points out the identity of the operations in everything except time? It would hardly seem necessary to explain, even to those clergymen who always speak of science as "science falsely so-called," that by either process no particle of matter is lost or destroyed. If then the problem involved were the restoration of the body destroyed, the constituent elements to be brought together would be the same in either case. But St. Paul distinctly points out that his doctrine does not call for any identity of substance, likening the change to the germination and growth of grain, in an analogy as clear as it is beautiful. The theologic ignorance, therefore, displayed by these timid persons, in so far as they are clergymen, would seem as disgraceful as the scientific ignorance is lamentable. We do not mean by what we have said to express any opinion in regard to the practice of cremation or the doctrine of resurrection, but simply to point out that they can have no connection with each other.

—The inherent defect of the trades-unions, by which the skilled and the unskilled, the lazy and the industrious workmen are merged together instead of being sharply discriminated, is a defect of principle, and must of necessity come to grief in the long run. It is best met by insisting rigidly upon the opposite principle. One of the largest shipbuilders in the United Kingdom writes to Mr. Brassey, M.P. (who prints the letter in a late number of the *Contemporary Review*), that in 1868 there was no piece-work done in his establishment, but that since that date he has been steadily introducing it, till now it is the rule for the iron department and blacksmith work, and time payments are no longer more than one-half the total. This "payment by results," as he calls it, put an end, in the first place, to the trouble formerly experienced in procuring skilled iron hands. Those who were retained worked all the harder, and added their ingenuity to that of their employers to save unskilled labor by the introduction of machinery. As a consequence, the skilled and the unskilled men now earn from 50 to 75 per cent. more than they did, while the work per ton of iron in the ships is about 20 per cent. cheaper; "and, from a much smaller number of men being required, the supply is approximately equal to the demand." Moreover, since the introduction of piece-work, it has for the first time been possible to estimate to within a fraction what the iron and blacksmith work will cost. The product of the yard in 1868 was steamships aggregating 13,000 tons; in 1870, 18,500; the number of hands in the former case, 1,776; in the latter, 1,550. "In 1868, the average wage earned per week of 60 hours was about 17s. 1d.; in 1873, per week of 54 hours, about 22s. 9d. In 1873, the cost per ton, gross new measurement, in wages only, was fully 20s. cheaper than in 1868, but this reduction is due to the piece-work departments. Finally," says the writer, "the piece-work system keeps us clearer of disputes and trouble with our men than we were under the old method; and men and employers alike make a better result. I look to 'payment by results' as a system calculated to put an end to many trade disturbances; but trades-unions are opposed to it."

—The flight of Marshal Bazaine from Ste. Marguérite lends decided interest to an account of a recent interview with him which we find in the Milan *Perseveranza* of July 29. The Paris correspondent of this journal writes that an intimate friend of his, an Italian, who had been in the French service in Africa and, under Bazaine, in Mexico, made extraordinary efforts to visit the General in his confinement, and, at length, towards the end of May, succeeded in obtaining permission of the Minister of the Interior. On reaching the island he was directed to the official who was responsible for the custody of Bazaine; a civilian as it proved, and not the commander of the garrison, since it was feared the latter might be influenced even unconsciously by one who had been his superior officer. The Italian visitor, showing his permit, begged to see Marshal Bazaine, but was promptly informed, in the spirit of '93, that there was no such person on the premises; there was, however, a *Monsieur* Bazaine. This punctilio satisfied, the interview was allowed to take place, and the Italian was conducted to the low barracks, built out on one side to the precipice overlooking the sea, on the other facing a narrow esplanade, some twenty by fifty yards in area, the limit of freedom for the Marshal and his family of six. The conversation between the state prisoner and his former comrade in arms is not reported in full. Bazaine enquired what progress the Italian army was making, and asked after several of the generals whose acquaintance he had made in the campaign of '59; and added that if his lot should undergo a change (*se la sua sorte cangiasse*), he had a mind to settle in Italy with his family. "Does Bazaine hope to escape from Ste. Marguérite?" asked the correspondent of his friend. "He did not tell me," was the reply; "but he seemed to me to believe that the French authorities might shortly be disposed to mitigate a punishment which involved not him alone, but also his entire family. Perhaps he has hopes of being exiled." The event shows that Madame Bazaine's hopes at least were of exile, though not through banishment. Did the Marshal leave behind him the memoirs with which he occupied his enforced leisure?

—Vol. I. of a work important to students of chess literature and to lovers of the game has just been published by Julius Springer in Berlin (New York: B. Westermann & Co.): Antonius van der Linde's 'Geschichte und Litteratur des Schachspiels.' It is a fine large octavo of 576 pp., illustrated with 415 diagrams, and traces the history of the game from its origin in India down to the year 1795, when the first part of Allgaier's 'Anweisung zum Schachspiel' was issued. We reserve an extended notice of the book for a later number, premising, as an indication of the thoroughness to be expected from the work, that the author has been able to consult all but one of the more than 200 noted treatises on the game—the exception being a Spanish work, F. Vicent's book of problems, published at Valencia in 1495, and perhaps, as the publisher's circular says, not now existent. The author has naturally paid much attention to the bibliography of his subject, and has been helped here by the experience gained from previous bibliographical labors in this and other studies. The chess problems of the Middle Ages, more than 2,500 in number, preserved in Arabic, Latin, Spanish, Old French, Italian, and German texts, Van der Linde has reduced to 372, all of which he reproduces in this first volume. Another volume will follow; and, as all the manuscript is in the hands of the printer, Vol. II. may be expected confidently and with pleasure before the end of the year.

RECENT POETRY.*

I.

OUR American market has not been very fully supplied with poetry this year, whether domestic or reprinted from foreign authors, but it has nevertheless presented a goodly array of volumes. Among these the first place has been easily taken by George Eliot's 'Legend of Jubal,' and Lord Lytton's 'Fables in Song.' The former had a peculiar interest as challenging the public to a second judgment on its author's claims to attention as a poet. The first judgment, rendered after consideration of 'The Spanish Gipsy,' was not of a character to satisfy an ambitious author. The work was read with respect, and it was decorously praised in the critical journals; but the praise was no more than decorous, and a poem that is read with respect and without delight is not a work with which to make one's advent as a candidate for the bays. In short, 'The Spanish Gipsy' was an interesting performance, but as proof of genuine poetical powers in the writer it was not successful. The same thing may be said of this 'Legend of Jubal.' It is wise, it is witty, it contains poetical thought

* 'The Legend of Jubal, and Other Poems. By George Eliot.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.
'Fables in Song. By Robert, Lord Lytton.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.

and sentiment, it shows mastery of several people's methods of poetical expression, but it is seen to be George Eliot's prose, and not to be poetry. The reader everywhere is made to feel the painful limitations of the moralist, and the female moralist at that; and the female moralist to whom life (or, as one may better say, certain lives as she can contrive to look at them) appears to be a dreary mistake and failure. There is never any clear escape from positivism duly cultured, and the great law that sin corrodes character, and the great law that individual aspiration is futile, and the various other laws which George Eliot, the novelist, has inculcated with so much force and skill. We are always really in the hard world of prose and fact and necessary sequences, and never in the atmosphere of "a fuller and larger existence," such as the poets give. The result is that the reader is somewhat depressed, and that by-and-by he refuses to allow George Eliot a rank among the poets, just as formerly he grudged her a really first place among great novelists. The wonderful degree of the feminine power of observation which she possesses, her great humorous power, her philosophizing, often so acute—all still left him saying at the end, This is very remarkable; perhaps the author of 'Waverley,' for instance, could not have done the half of it; but there is a thing called life, the life of men in this world, which is more than meat and raiment, and more also than the most skilfully-contrived and elaborately-thought-out schemes of moralized existence that can be made for us by the cleverest of philosophizing women. A sense of this, whether due to a masculine breadth of view arising from a wider experience of life and its opportunities, or a masculine feeling of courage and energy which does not busy itself much with theories of the universe, the reader will not miss in the poorest of Scott's novels. We are mistaken if even George Eliot's power of humorous observation will blind a second generation to her failure in this respect, and her venture into the field of poetry pure and simple has not had the effect of deferring the discovery that her wings are of the ostrich kind, and that she cannot lift herself from the ground.

'The Legend of Jubal' gives its name to the book, but is neither the most important nor the most pleasing poem of the volume. The latter praise will be given to the set of sonnets which treat of the affection which a little girl feels for her brother—or rather of the affection which she felt for him long ago, and upon which she now looks back with fond remembrance. She sees it in a frame of old scenes, and of old scenes which, as she now perceives, she gazed at with the wondering and wonder-making eyes of childhood. All this is very pretty. George Eliot had previously shown her appreciation of the brotherly and sisterly relation, and it is with a sincere pleasure that one contemplates her as "the little sister" which she tells us she would like to be could she be born into a new world of childhood. We make room for one of the sonnets, so to call them:

"I cannot choose but think upon the time
When our two lives grew like two buds that kiss
At lightest thrill from the bee's swinging chime,
Because the one so near the other is.

"He was the elder and a little man
Of forty inches, bound to show no dread,
And I the girl that puppy-like now ran,
Now lagged behind my brother's larger tread.

"I held him wise, and when he talked to me
Of snakes and birds, and which God loved the best,
I thought his knowledge marked the boundary
Where men grew blind, though angels knew the rest.

"If he said, 'Hush!' I tried to hold my breath;
Wherever he said, 'Come!' I stepped in faith."

In a different vein and suggestive of our authoress quite grown up is the poem called "A Minor Prophet," which trenchantly analyzes a reformer of the long-haired variety:

"I have a friend, a vegetarian seer,
By name Elias Baptist Butterworth,
A harmless, bland, disinterested man,
Whose ancestors in Cromwell's day believed
The Second Advent certain in five years,
But when King Charles the Second came instead,
Revised their date and sought another world:
I mean—not heaven but—America."

The 'Legend of Jubal' teaches that the pursuit of art and the service of one's fellow-men must be allowed to be their own reward. Jubal invents all sweet instruments of sound; then wandering away he is absent for years, but returning in his patriarchal age, and hearing men play his music and praise his name, he announces himself as the creator of the lyre; upon this he is derided and denounced:

". . . . . Two, the most devout,
In honor of great Jubal thrust him out,"

and he is left for consolation to the thought which is the key-note of the poem.

Lord Lytton's 'Fables in Song' is a book of the usual embarrassing sort turned out by this author, and the knack of producing which he inherited legitimately from his father before him. It is so elaborate in its scheme, the author appears to have so grave a belief in his own capacity and in the sufficiency of his work, that the reader is bothered by the necessary doubt whether there may not be something in it all, and whether he was right in thinking the writer undeserving of serious consideration. Something there doubtless is in it; but we have found it small in amount and of a thin quality. The book is a book of fables. That is to say, Lord Lytton's notions on a thousand-and-one topics, literary, social, political, what-not, are set forth by means of interlocutions between all sorts of objects, animate and inanimate. It will be seen that this is giving to the word fable a wide definition, but we do not know that anybody need object, especially as Lord Lytton might have if he liked written us a philosophic prefatory treatise on the nature of the fable and the truly artistic mode of employing it. Of the views and opinions thus offered us, some are new enough or well enough illustrated to make the poem expressing them a clever and agreeable piece of work; others of them are of such weight as attaches to the opinion that the rabble should not rule, expressed with the profuse verbosity of which our author is a master. We give a fair specimen—selected in part, however, for its mere brevity—of the better class of these effusions:

A PROVISION FOR LIFE.

A pine-tree bless'd its favor'd fate, because
Room to grow barely 'twixt the grudging jaws
Of one of the chapped sandstone's gravell'd flaws

It found: where early chance had cast its lot
On a bare rock, with leave to thrive, or not,
As later chance might choose, in that chill spot.

"Ah, what good fortune!" sighed the grateful tree,
"That in this fissure the wind planted me!
But for its inch of earth, what should I be?"

Fool! Thy good fortune was not the bestowing
Of that scant handful of earth's overflowing.
It was—and is—thy faculty of growing.

HENRY THOMAS COLEBROOKE.*

SEVEN AND THIRTY years have elapsed since the death of the eminent scholar whose biography and essays lie before us; and yet, assiduously and successfully as the subjects which employed his pen have, of late years, been prosecuted, research and criticism have found little to amend in his statements, or to invalidate in his conclusions. Alike for amplitude of investigation and for keenness and impartiality of judgment, he is still revered, by Orientalists, as a model all but faultless. Nor is it surprising that he should be thus signalized. The fact is, that, explore literature as widely as we may, we shall hardly discover a better exemplification of rigidly scientific method than is uniformly exhibited in his numerous and multifarious disquisitions.

Henry Thomas Colebrooke, youngest son of Sir George Colebrooke, the first baronet, was born in London in 1765. From the age of twelve he spent several years in France; and in 1782 he sailed for Calcutta, having been appointed to a writership in the Indian Civil Service. Though, almost at the very beginning of his career, he displayed the same industry and energy by which it was subsequently distinguished throughout, it was some time before he grappled triumphantly, after repeated attacks and retreats, with the study of Sanskrit; and his first substantive publication, dated in 1795, was a treatise, written in concert with Mr. Anthony Lambert, on the husbandry and commerce of Bengal. Early in the preceding year, however, the first of his invaluable essays was read, in the presence of Sir William Jones, before the Asiatic Society, which he had joined in 1792, and was afterwards contributed to the 'Asiatic Researches.' His rapid rise to the highest judicial position in India was due, in large measure, to his unrivalled intimacy with the original fountains of Hindu jurisprudence; but, sedulous as he must have been to attain that intimacy, he contrived to find leisure, simultaneously, not only to slay many a tiger, but to examine competently well nigh the entire range of Hindu literature. In 1810 he married Miss Elizabeth Wilkinson, who died in 1814, one of their three sons having died before her. Two months after losing his wife, he resigned his appointments and returned to England. With the exception of some months given to a trip to the Cape of Good Hope, the remainder of his life, until he was disabled by various infirmities, was spent in unceasing literary and scientific activity. For several of his last years he was never free from pain, and was unable to leave his bed; and for a still longer period he was afflicted with total blindness. It was then that the stoicism of his vigorous nature, which had always been more or less obvious, announced itself with noticeable dis-

* 'Life and Essays of H. T. Colebrooke.' 3 vols. London: Trübner & Co. 1873.

tinctness; for he was rarely heard to complain. The death of his eldest surviving son, a young man of remarkable promise, was the last and the heaviest of the many domestic afflictions which he suffered in his old age. The father at last succumbed to a complication of maladies on the 10th of March, 1837.

For details such as alone will suffice for forming a just estimate of Colebrooke, either as a man or as an author, we must refer to the excellent biography for which we are indebted to his son. He was never at any school, but pursued his studies at his father's house, under a tutor; and we are told, that, when only fifteen, he was well advanced in his knowledge of Greek, Latin, and mathematics, not to speak of his perfect familiarity with French, and some proficiency in German. That his mind matured very early is evident from the letters which he sent to his parents from India, while he was still in his minority. Once reconciled to his new home, but not till then, he long devoted a continuous attention, yet not exclusively, to the learning of the Brahmans. In naming law, religion, philosophy, astronomy, algebra, geometry, grammar, lexicography, and inscriptions, we may convey some idea of the wide range of topics for information on which he pored, during many years, over the dreary diffuseness and the knotty obscurities of Sanskrit literature and science. With all the subjects just enumerated he has dealt, either in dissertations or in translations, and, as to law, in volumes of formidable dimensions. But he was also a profound and advanced politician, a sound political economist, a zealous botanist, geologist, zoölogist, and orologist, and an observant and instructive traveller. Many, we suspect, who know him solely as the greatest of English Sanskritists, have not even heard of his work on 'Import of Colonial Corn,' of his 'Treatise on Obligations and Contracts,' drawn chiefly from the records of Roman law, or of his monographs on 'Frankincense,' 'The Camphor-tree,' 'The Height of the Himalaya Mountains,' 'The Dichotomous and Quinary Arrangements in Natural History,' or of his 'Hypothesis to account for the Variable Depth of the Ocean,' or of his 'Speculation concerning the Structure of the Earth.' Many-sided indeed, and altogether noteworthy, must be the man who, stepping aside from the specialty for which he stood pre-eminent, could discourse on matters so heterogeneous as these, especially if he discoursed on them, as Colebrooke discoursed without fail, in a way that challenged serious and respectful consideration.

Two volumes of 'Colebrooke's Essays,' selected by their author, were passed through the press by the gifted Friedrich Rosen in 1837. Except to an insignificant number of readers, they then possessed but slight value. Few periodicals of the day acknowledged their existence; and a large part of the impression was destroyed as waste-paper. But the times have greatly changed, since 1837, as regards the interest felt in Orientalism. There must now be thousands of persons, in Europe and America, to whom the work in question will be, henceforth, an indispensable companion. A new edition of it was projected, a few years ago, by Mr. Fitzedward Hall, at whose instance Sir T. E. Colebrooke has expanded into a goodly volume the slight memoir of his father published just after his death. Another of our countrymen, Professor W. D. Whitney, was associated in the undertaking, which ultimately had to be abandoned; and the searching notes which he has contributed to Colebrooke's 'Essay on the Vedas,' lead us to regret that some of the other essays, and, above all, those on Hindu Astronomy, should not have been enriched by his annotations. These annotations Professor Whitney would only have had to collect from the somewhat inaccessible corners where, in years past, he secluded them; and Colebrooke's latest editor, in satisfying himself with little more than bare references to the facts, arguments, and demonstrations by which Professor Whitney has set aside not a few of Colebrooke's deductions, compels some qualification of our otherwise entire approval of the manner in which he has discharged his functions. Without recognition, accompanied either by adoption or by argumentative rejection, of Professor Whitney's conclusions touching the Hindu asterisms, no future treatment of them can evade the imputation of reprehensible defect. The present edition of Colebrooke's Essays was executed by Professor Edward B. Cowell, a scholar of universal accomplishments, and the most distinguished of living English Sanskritists. His notes, corrective and supplementary, are derived from almost every relevant source, are commendably copious, and are never superfluous. Professor Cowell is to be thanked for having rescued from oblivion the six articles by which he has amplified his edition of the essays beyond the matter of the first. But Colebrooke's reply to Bently should have been given unabridged, if at all, and, rather than as a bare text, with full comments. The reader should be warned, too, that the statement made as to Professor Whitney's views regarding Biot's absurd theories is not wholly accurate.

Manual of the Constitution of the United States. Designed for the Instruction of American Youth in the duties, obligations, and rights of Citizenship. By Israel Ward Andrews, D.D., President of Marietta College. (Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 1874.)—President Andrews states in his preface that this work grew out of the researches which he found himself compelled to make in order to prepare himself for the duties of the class-room; but that "a conviction that a knowledge of our government cannot be too widely diffused, and that large numbers would welcome a good work on this subject, has led to the attempt to make the volume a manual adapted for consultation and reference by the citizen at large." There is a third function of this Manual which also deserves to be pointed out, and that is the instruction of foreigners as well as of native citizens in regard to the nature and historic development of our institutions. In each aspect of its usefulness, the work cannot fail to meet with approval, and as a text-book it is by all odds the best of its kind. We hope that every effort will be made to introduce it into our schools and colleges, and that the editor and his publishers will at least once in five years revise it in accordance with the changes which our machinery of government is constantly undergoing. The plan of the Manual renders such a revision easy.

The Constitution is too apt to be regarded (if not taught) as a definite and self-interpreting instrument, and arguments as to what is and what is not constitutional are usually conducted as if the gravest questions could be settled by any one who had a good memory of the text, or who had access to an index or concordance to our national charter. Ideas like these are effectually dispelled by the Manual, which records in detail the organization and growth of each department of the Government, and shows the Constitution to be something more than the skeleton framework of '87 plus a certain number of amendments, by tracing the legislation which has given its provisions their practical effect, the judicial decisions which have defined its scope, and the vast political and social revolution which cast out sectionalism and slavery together, and ensured not only "a more perfect Union" but for the first time a truly republican form of government—of, by, and for the people. In this view the Constitution is seen to be a living, ever-varying manifestation of the public will; and what is constitutional at any given time is to be ascertained by reference to the latest acts of Congress and the latest opinions of the Courts upon the subject under discussion. For instance, it is constitutional not only that the senators from each State shall be "chosen by the legislature thereof" (Art. I., Sec. 3, clause 1), but on the second Tuesday after the meeting and organization of the legislature, or, in case of vacancy occurring during the session, on the second Tuesday after they have had notice of the vacancy (Act of July 25, 1866).

We have not room to specify those discussions of the Manual which have an immediate and current interest. They embrace the most recent political events, such as the "back-pay grab," concerning which it is remarked that every act of Congress to increase its own pay has been retroactive, and that "all the acts prior to that of 1866 were separate and independent acts; but the one of 1866, and that of 1873, were sections in appropriation bills"—an important and not the only distinction. The question of legal-tender is soundly treated, though the second decision of the Supreme Court is not quite exactly stated; and the nature of the "present Government paper, circulating as money," is clearly set forth. "If," says President Andrews, in a chapter which may not recommend his Manual to some Western school committees, "the Treasury notes in the hands of the people are veritable money, as truly so as gold, then the United States is not indebted to those who hold them any more than it is to those who have gold eagles in their possession; and the Treasury Department should not report these Treasury notes as a part of the national debt."

A few trifling errata have fallen under our observation. On p. 50—"The Constitution does not require the representative to be a voter"—*voter* seems to be printed for *native*. Page 104, "the coinage act of 1853" stands, we presume, for that of February, 1873. In studying the history of representation and direct taxation under the Constitution, some confusion might be caused by the statement on page 52 regarding the three-fifths rule:

> "The adoption of this rule was favorable to the slave States, as it increased the number of their representatives; it was unfavorable as it increased their proportion of direct taxes. The advantage was greater than the disadvantage, however, as they enjoyed the increased number of representatives continually, while direct taxes have been levied but five times since the adoption of the Constitution."

Now, it is true that a greater proportion of taxes had to be borne by the white population of a slave State, as compared with the white population in any non-slaveholding State; but, the slaves not being legal persons, any capitation tax based on total population must have fallen entirely upon their owners, had it not been for this express relief of two-fifths in the census. Regarding the white slaveholding community by itself, therefore, there was no "disadvantage" and really no "increase" whatever. The rule was, in fact, of their own concocting; they fortified it by Art. I., Sec. 9, clause 4,

as is duly noted on p. 150, and secured this last clause against amendment prior to 1808 (Art. V.); and, finally, threw all their weight in favor of indirect taxation—a policy, by the way, which naturally had the effect of preparing the country to receive the doctrine of protection, though the South has never had her responsibility for it brought home to her.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bigsby (B.), Elements of the English Language	(Ginn Bros.)	
Comyn (L. N.), Atherstone Priory	(Estes & Lauriat)	$1 25
Packard (A. S., Jr.), Insects of the Plant House, Part IV., swd	(Estes & Lauriat)	0 25
Songs of Two Worlds	(Henry S. King & Co.)	
Tafel (Rev. L.), The Bible is the Word of God, swd	(Boericke & Tafel)	0 25
The Workshop, No. 8, swd	(E. Steiger)	0 50

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 17, 1874.

MONEY continues to be abundant on call at 2 to 2½ per cent., and on time at 4 per cent. for 60 days and 7 per cent. for the balance of the year. In commercial paper there is a limited amount of business doing; the rates on prime dry-goods endorsed paper are quoted 5 to 7 per cent. for that having from 60 days to four months to run.

The statement of the Clearing-House banks on Saturday was unfavorable. The loss in specie reflects the shipment of gold last week to Europe. The total reserve is down $3,359,400. The total reserve required by law is $59,478,875, and the banks hold $88,930,100, or $29,451,225 more than the legal requirement. The surplus reserve last week was $31,724,100, so that there has been a decrease this week of $2,272,875.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	August 8.	August 15.	Differences.	
Loans	$280,534,300	$279,250,200	Dec..	$1,284,100
Specie	25,740,000	22,352,000	Dec..	3,388,000
Legal tenders	66,549,500	66,578,100	Inc...	28,600
Deposits	242,261,600	237,915,500	Dec..	4,346,100
Circulation	25,805,700	25,809,100	Inc..	3,400

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 8.	August 15.	Differences.	
Specie	$25,740,000	$22,352,000	Dec..	$3,388,000
Legal tenders	66,549,500	66,578,100	Inc..	28,600
Total reserve	$92,289,500	$88,930,100	Dec..	$3,359,400
Reserve required against deposits	60,565,400	59,478,875		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	31,724,100	29,451,225	Dec..	2,272,875

The stock market during the week has remained in its usual state of quietness, and the "Street" has apparently become quite reconciled to this order of things. The suits now going on at Madison, Wisconsin, which have from the first affected the market, have caused a feverish feeling in Milwaukee and St. Paul and Chicago and Northwestern, according as the reports which have come to hand indicated this or that result of the cases brought before the court. The arguments in the different suits have been closed, and as yet no decision has been rendered, but as the point to be decided is in regard to the jurisdiction of the State Court to issue an injunction, the decision may be in favor of or against the railroads without settling the main question as to the right of the State to regulate by law the tariffs of the roads. It is expected by many that the fall will bring about a more active business in stocks, and they look forward to largely increased railroad earnings as compared with those of last year; should such be the case, it is probable that stocks will advance, starting as they will from a very low basis.

In the investment stocks the chief event of importance was the sharp decline in Chicago and Alton, which was caused by an extensively-circulated report that the Company would probably cut down it susual 5 per cent. six months' dividend to 4 per cent., and that possibly no dividend whatever would be paid. The common stock dropped to 99, and the preferred to 103. Subsequently, when it was officially announced that the directors had declared the usual 5 per cent. dividend, the price of the common advanced to 103½ and the preferred to 108. Chicago, Burlington and Quincy has been in good demand, under which the quotation has risen to 107½ bid, and none offered under 110. The largely increased net earnings of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy place its ability to pay the usual 5 per cent. semi-annual dividend entirely out of question.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, August 15, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	100¾ 101	100¾ 100¾	100⅝ 100¾	100⅝ 101	101 101¼	101⅛ 102	10,400
Lake Shore	72¾ 73⅛	72 72¾	72⅜ 72⅝	72¼ 72½	72½ 72⅝	72 72½	58 300
Erie	32¼ 31⅝	32⅛ 32¼	32¼ 32½	.... 32⅝	31⅝ 32⅛	.... 31⅛	8,400
Union Pacific	28⅜ 29½	28⅛ 28¾	28⅝ 29¼	28⅜ 29¼	28⅜ 29	28⅛ 29⅛	71,000
Chi. & N. W.	37⅜ 37⅞	37⅛ 37⅝	37⅜ 38¼	37⅞ 38⅜	 38	.... 37⅞	93,500
Do. pfd.	.... 55¾	54⅜ 55¼	55¼ 56	.... 55⅜	 56	....	1,700
N. J. Central	 106	 106	 106	.... 106¼	.... 106¼	....	100
Rock Island	99 99⅛	98½ 98⅞	98⅞ 99	99 99½	 99	99 99¼	3,700
Mil. & St. Paul	34⅝ 34¾	33⅜ 34⅜	34½ 34⅞	34⅜ 34⅜	.... 34½	34⅜ 34⅝	24,100
Do. pfd.	52¾ 53¼	 53	 53	.... 53½	52½ 53⅛	 53	1,100
Wabash	35⅜ 36	34⅜ 35⅜	35⅜ 35⅞	35⅜ 35½	35⅜ 35½	35⅛ 35⅜	18,000
D., L. & W.	.... 107½	107½ 107⅜	.... 107⅜	.... 107⅜	.... 107⅜	....	600
O. & M.	24¼ 24⅜	21⅜ 24	22⅜ 23	22⅜ 22⅜	22⅜ 23¼	22⅜ 23¼	23,000
C. C. & I. C.	12¼ 12½	12¼ 12½	.... 12⅜	13 13¼	.... 13⅜	13¼ 13½	6,000
W. U. Tel	74⅞ 75⅜	74½ 75	75 75¼	74⅜ 75⅜	74⅜ 75⅜	74⅜ 75	47,900
Pacific Mail	45⅞ 46⅜	45⅝ 46¼	46⅛ 46⅜	46¼ 46⅜	46⅜ 46⅜	45⅝ 46⅜	64,200

The transactions in Government bonds have been limited to the amount sufficient to supply the small current demand from investors. The Syndicate have disclosed none of their plans in placing the new 5's recently taken from the Government. It is said that the Rothschilds have determined to make the negotiation a success, not only as a business transaction, but to show what a great house can do.

The following were the closing quotations of Governments this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118¼	118¾	Registered 5-20, 1867, c	117⅝	117¾
Registered 5-20, 1862, c	111¾	112¼	Registered 5-20, 1868, c	117⅞	118¼
Registered 5-20, 1864, c	115⅝	115⅞	Registered 10-40's, c	113¾	113⅞
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N.	116⅞	117¼	Registered 5's of 1881	111¾	112¼
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J.	116¼	116½	U. S. Currency 6's	117½	118

The gold market has been weaker than it was last week, when the advance of 1 per cent. in the Bank of England discount rate and the increased specie shipments imparted a strong feeling to the premium. The range of fluctuations has been between the limits of 109½ and 110.

The following shows the range of quotations for every day during the week ending on Saturday:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday, Aug. 10	110	110	109⅜	109⅜
Tuesday, Aug. 11	109⅜	109¾	109⅜	109⅝
Wednesday, Aug. 12	109⅝	109⅝	109⅜	109⅝
Thursday, Aug. 13	109⅝	109⅞	109⅝	109¾
Friday, Aug. 14	109⅝	109⅝	109⅜	109⅝
Saturday, Aug. 15	109⅝	109⅝	109⅜	109⅜

The specie shipments for the week amount to $2,032,733, of which $1,499,000 consisted of gold coin.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 27, 1874.

The Week.

THERE has been a good deal of rioting and lawlessness in the South during the past week; the principal affrays having taken place at Lancaster, Kentucky, and Georgetown, South Carolina. In the latter place, a feud has been raging a long time between two advanced thinkers, both black, named Jones and Bowley. In Lancaster, on the other hand, the principals in the affair, Sellers and Kennedy, were white. The negroes were involved in the latter fracas, and an equal number of whites and blacks seem to have been killed or wounded; order was restored only on the appearance of troops. The Georgetown ringleaders were both men of Northern birth, being described as "negro carpet-baggers"; Jones being a State senator, holding office till 1876, who has made a good deal of money, which he spends lavishly, and in return gains much popularity in the rice-field. Bowley is described as being also rich, his wealth being explained by the fact of his having been chairman of the State committee of ways and means. One of the charges against him is that he made a good deal of money by refusing to report the appropriation bill unless he secured a commission of ten per cent. on the amount; but Jones is said to be really the more intelligent man, and, being a colonel of the National Guard, he had a clear advantage, which in the end he maintained.

The Alabama Republicans have held their convention and passed resolutions disclaiming all desire for "social equality," and at the same time rejecting the "issue of race against race" "tendered us by the Democratic party." They declare that they only demand for the negro "equal advantages," and that the Republican party in Alabama "does not desire or seek mixed schools or mixed accommodations for the colored people"; that "no civil law can or should invade the line of social exclusion that society gave us by laws more inexorable than statute or common law"; that the laws ought to be enforced in all cases. There are also conservative resolutions as to the State debt and the relations of the State to the indebtedness of private companies.

The election in Alabama will be of importance because the State, though now in the hands of the Republicans, is said to be certain to go Democratic at the next election. A correspondent of the Cinnati *Commercial*, who has travelled a great deal in the South, says that in the northern part of the State, which was the stronghold of the party, the Civil-Rights Bill has had a very unfortunate effect on it; and as the whites outnumber the blacks, there can be no doubt of the result. In South Carolina, the Congressmen and both Senators have declared themselves against Moses; and Judge Mackey, who has been recently to Washington to discover Grant's real feelings on this subject, has returned and reports that the President is greatly excited, declaring all Republicans in the State responsible for the robberies, and that he "would continue to hold them responsible unless they 'reformed at the ballot-box.' And," continues the Judge, "while the President speaks calmly of all the great battles he fought, or the most stirring events of the war in which he participated, yet when I talked to him of South Carolina, his apparently pulseless lips quiver, his veins and his eyes enlarge, and he says, 'You must stop the robbery.'" Mackey was a Moses man during the last campaign, but now says that as he has received a "field order" from Grant to suppress this robbery, he must assist in the work of reform, cost what it may. Moses has been delivering a long speech in vindication of his course, in which he undertakes to prove that his administration has been more economical than that of Governor Scott; but the campaign, with Moses on one side and the "machine" on the other, is going to be a desperate one. One of the threats of which the negro members of Congress from the State—Elliott, Rainey, Ransier, and Cain—are making use is that of an educational qualification for electors, unless these electors will go to the polls at the next election in a spirit of reform.

The Ohio constitution has been defeated by very heavy majorities, its fate being partly explained by the number of propositions separately submitted to the people, and in part by a general aversion to change. As this is the first, or almost the first, of the new constitutions which has been lost, it may be well to point out here that there appear to be two dangers to be guarded against in framing these instruments into which we in these days are peculiarly likely to fall. The first is that of submitting a number of separate propositions, as with regard to the liquor question, minority representation, or woman suffrage, or judicial appointments. These are generally submitted to a separate vote for the sake of saving the general amendments, but if they are all submitted at once the chance is that, through ignorance or inattention, the whole constitution will go by the board. The other is the temptation, which is so alluring to constitution-mongers of a certain sort, of putting everything into the instrument they prepare, so as not only to make it a fundamental law but a civil code and practice act as well. Recent constitutions afford many curious instances of the absurd tendency of these reformers to go into the minutiæ of legislation, to prescribe for evils with which no constitution has anything to do, to introduce cumbrous machinery, and, instead of simplifying the work of government, to make it more difficult and intricate. In the new Illinois constitution, unless we are very much mistaken, will be found an extraordinary provision of this kind as to contracts for the supply of the State House with certain articles, and in one of them the constitution prescribes all the legislative machinery for the reading and passage of bills—both these provisions being inserted on account of suspicions of the honesty of the legislature or executive.

The most important of the State conventions yet held is that of the Republicans in Pennsylvania, which met on Wednesday week. Two things which it did were not expected by persons outside of political circles, one being the emphatic condemnation of the third-term notion, and the other the bringing forward of General Hartranft as a candidate for the succession to General Grant. The significance of the latter move probably may be that during the sessions of the National Convention of 1876 the Pennsylvania delegation will be in a well-defined position for carrying on negotiations of various kinds, such as Pennsylvania politicians are familiar with in National Conventions. As for the third-term notion, it may seem as if formally killing it in solemn convention were a work of supererogation. It was one of the *Herald's* sensations, and had never any vitality; but it was adhered to by its originators because, while they have found by experience that sensations in general "pay," and some for good apprehensible reasons, they appear to have no means of knowing which of a given number of the other ones are worth working up, and which they might as well have saved money and breath upon. The convention found no life in the idea, but nevertheless "thrice they slew the slain"—by adopting Hartranft; by backing Mr. Dickey's statement that to accuse Grant of wanting a re-election was slanderous; and by voting down, "with loud shouts of disapproval, a resolution endorsing General Grant in the event of his candidacy for a third term." The other resolutions are mainly protectionist, denunciatory of the tariff and the proposed Reciprocity Treaty, and laudatory of the scheme of cheap transportation by water for the products of the West

Since 1870, politics in Missouri have not been in what can be called a settled state, and large numbers of the people are now as discontented with the Democratic régime as they were in that year with the Republican. An independent movement has gathered some headway as in one or two other Western States, and on the second of next month a people's convention will be held at Jefferson City. The Republicans have determined to call no State convention. The Independent party need the aid of Democratic votes to ensure their victory, and the Democrats are divided into two distinct classes—those who were Union men during the war and those who were Confederates. The Democrats, however, have been coquetting with the Grangers, and particularly with Mr. Norman J. Colman, an agricultural editor, who desires the governorship and who is said to have a larger acquaintance and to have visited more towns and villages than any living man in Missouri. A strong opposition has been developed, on the strange ground that this gentleman is not fit for the place, and is a double-faced demagogue, who, while he opposes the Missouri Grange having anything to do with politics, is secretly making use of that order to get office. The correspondent of the *Tribune* predicts in consequence of these facts that if a split takes place in the Democratic convention after the nomination of Colman on the first or second ballot, those who wish to know who is going to be next governor of Missouri must look for the name of the nominee of the Independent party. The Germans are said to be for a reform movement to a man, and are going to be well represented in the St. Louis delegation to the convention of September 2—a delegation "admitted by all parties to be composed of the very best men" in St. Louis—"such a body of men as never before represented St. Louis in any political convention."

General Custer's expedition has succeeded in penetrating the hitherto unexplored Black Hills country of Dakota. The mountains surrounding this country have been long deemed impassable, although a tradition is said to have existed of a very fertile valley beyond them. General Custer, however, found no serious difficulty in getting across the mountains, although he had with him a heavily-laden train of over a hundred wagons. He describes the country within them as beautiful in the extreme, the pasturage excellent, the water pure and cool, and rains frequent; of wood, fuel, lumber, and building stone there is enough "for all time to come." He thinks that the days may be found too short and the nights too cool for corn; but believes that other grain could be produced in abundance. "Wheat particularly would yield largely." Iron and plumbago have been found, and beds of gypsum, "of apparently inexhaustible extent," as well as gold in paying quantities. As an evidence of the richness of the pasturage, he mentions the fact that his cattle, after marching upwards of six hundred miles, were in a better condition on leaving the country than when they entered it. On the line of march to the Black Hills, between the forks of the Grand River, a cave was discovered of great archæological interest, the walls and roof being covered with rude carving or drawing, apparently the work of Indians, and filled with what are supposed to be religious offerings. The correspondent of the *World* accompanying the expedition has sent home the most glowing accounts of the country, which seems to be from all the descriptions fit indeed to fill the coolest mind with ardor.

We have pointed out elsewhere the inherent weakness of Moulton's statement on capital points in the history of the great scandal, and the ludicrous figure which he cuts as the volunteer saviour of society. It is but just to him to say that his statement purports to be the one originally prepared by him for presentation to the Committee, but afterwards withheld, and perhaps is therefore not to be judged as a direct answer to Mr. Beecher's. That we are promised soon; and if it is to be as long, as ill-arranged, and as confusing as the first, there is a good chance of the public making up its verdict in favor of the side which has used the fewest words in this tedious controversy. In the interest of candor, it should be remarked that Moulton's statement compares favorably with Beecher's in the prominence given to the part played by Henry C. Bowen in the Tilton-Beecher imbroglio. Mr. Beecher's forbearance towards this inveterate enemy, and the Committee's failure to summon him either to help blacken Tilton's character or to avow openly the charges which it was in evidence before the Committee he had been for years making secretly but freely against Mr. Beecher, have left an unfavorable impression which needs to be removed. Bowen's course during the trial has been eminently characteristic, and his comments in the *Independent* have been masterpieces of malicious non-committal, retracting nothing, suggesting the worst. To some journalists, the latest of these deadly productions has seemed a noteworthy admission that Mr. Beecher had cleared himself. To Mr. Beecher himself, we do not doubt, it was the voice of Joab asking, "Art thou in health, my brother?"

Though a great deal has been said in the newspapers about the indecency of the Beecher-Tilton scandal, no active steps seem to have been taken to mitigate it anywhere but in Boston. The Board of Aldermen of that city have, it seems, a committee on licenses, which is clothed with authority over the stage of the most unlimited kind. Whether this committee are in the habit of visiting the various places of amusement in Boston or not has not come out; but learning that a drama called "Passion's Perils" was to be played last week at a second-rate theatre, they went to see it, and on the next day sent a note to the proprietors, saying that they had witnessed a representation of the play on the previous evening, and, "being satisfied that said representation is not conducive to good morals, and is offensive to the public sentiment of the community," suggested that the play be immediately withdrawn from the stage, and the posters announcing it removed from the public highways. This was done, but one of the proprietors, who evidently regarded the interference of the committee as the result of a confusion in their minds of the spheres of art and morals, went to the City Hall and requested to have a more definite explanation of the cause of the order, when he was told that the order was sent because, in the opinion of the committee, the play was "prejudicial to the case of Henry Ward Beecher." They were then asked whether they considered the play vulgar or obscene, and they replied that they did not, "but the make-up in the cast certainly personifies Mr. Beecher and others connected with the so-called Beecher and Tilton scandal," and "a large number of people in Boston" felt that it was "gotten up solely for the purpose of prejudicing the case of the principal in that unfortunate affair." To this charge Mr. Stetson replied that the play was written long before the Beecher-Tilton scandal was heard of, and that the characters were arranged without any desire to offend the most sensitive advocate of either side. The Boston public naturally do not regard this explanation as a very plausible one. They are to be congratulated on having got rid of a nuisance which in this city and in Baltimore takes the shape of a pointed dramatization of 'Griffith Gaunt.'

The New York *Freeman's Journal*, a newspaper of ultramontane and Carlist proclivities, has within the past week published a story of a sensational kind to show that Germany was intriguing to get possession of Porto Rico. In April of this year, it stated, Admiral Polo received instructions from Madrid to ascertain what position the Government of the United States would take in the cession of Porto Rico, a note being sent at the same time to the Admiral explaining that the German Government was to raise money for a Spanish loan offered in London, and would establish a fleet of cruisers on the Spanish coast to suppress contraband importations, and would recognize the Serrano Government. To this the Admiral replied that Spain had been humiliated enough in the *Virginius* affair; that the honor and glory of the country were too dear to him to permit him to take part in the proposed disgraceful cession of territory; and in consequence of this he was recalled. This singular story has excited a good deal of discussion in some of the newspapers; it being maintained, on the one hand, that the story is eminently

ridiculous; that Germany and the United States are on excellent terms; and that the last thing the former power would be likely to do would be to insult this country with a proposal to violate the sanctity of the Monroe Doctrine. Mr. Fish at once denied the story; and, as no one seems to have believed it at all, we are led to infer that the voluminous discussion which has taken place has sprung from other causes than credulity—one of these being a deep-seated determination on the part of the average journalist to let the governments of Europe know that, however little the people of the United States care about the intestine broils of the European continent, the contingent remainder which the United States owns in the West Indies must be considered inviolate. With regard to this particular story, however, there seems to be a general agreement of opinion that the only thing necessary to be done is to take the unassailable ground of not believing it.

The Cable despatch which announced the other day that Dr. Kenealy had been punished for his behavior on and after the Tichborne trial is corroborated by the report of the proceedings. The Benchers of Gray's Inn, it seems, notified Dr. Kenealy that they would limit their enquiry to the fact of his being engaged in journalism as the editor of the *Englishman*, and his conduct in that capacity. They next notified the printer of the *Englishman* that they would like him to make his appearance before them. This the printer however regretted his inability to do, on account of the "unbusinesslike" nature of such a proceeding on the part of a printer, while Mrs. Kenealy wrote a polite note to the Benchers, saying that her husband had intended to appear, but "violent pains in the head" rendered it impossible for him to do so, and as he was unwilling to ask for any more time, he would leave the Masters of the Bench to act "as their own sense of honor, right, and justice might dictate." The Benchers thereupon proceeded to consider the case, and found, 1st, that Dr. Kenealy was the editor of the *Englishman;* 2d, that the *Englishman* was "replete with libels of the grossest character"; 3d, that Dr. Kenealy, as such editor, was unfit to be a Master of the Bench; and they thereupon "vacated" Dr. Kenealy's call to the Bench, and resolved that he be prohibited from dining in the hall of the Society. Whether he will be proceeded against further by the judges remains to be seen.

The sudden termination of the farm-laborers' lock-out in England has brought to light some of the accounts of the Union, which show the enormous amounts of money that have been spent in the resistance of the men. $100,000 is the sum raised altogether, and it has almost all been spent—half of this, or $50,000, having gone to the actual support of the men. The laborer, by paying 2½d. fortnightly (the regular rate), got as a locked-out man nine shillings a week, which of course in some cases led to a great deal of imposition. As an illustration of the state of mind produced in some of the men by the continual relief afforded, we may mention the case of one who, as the facts are reported, suddenly goes to his employer and says that he wants to join the Union. The employer says that he is sorry to hear it, for if the man does join the Union he must lose his place. This the man says he knows, but explains that he only wants to "join for a fortnight," and that at the end of that time, if his employer don't mind taking him back, he will surrender his "ticket," and let it be burnt. This proposal still not being explicit enough, the man hints further that what he really wishes is to go to London to see his sister for a couple of weeks; that during this time he would not expect the farmer to pay him, but he could get nine shillings a week by joining the Union, paying a few pennies, and appearing in the character of a locked-out man. Of course such cases are exceptional, but they indicate one of the dangers of the unions—the temptations which they afford to the lazy and dishonest.

The latest news from the East confirms the previous reports of the tendency of China and Japan to go to war over the Island of Formosa. Since May the Japanese have been carrying on military operations against the Malayan savages of the east coast, whose principal tribe is called Boutans; and, having easily succeeded in driving them into their mountain fastnesses, they have manifested their intention to hold the country as a part of the territory of Japan from this time forth. The ostensible object of the expedition was to avenge the slaughter of Japanese crews wrecked in former years on these inhospitable shores. The pretext for invading an island under the dominion of China was the virtual or even explicit refusal of this empire to be responsible for the misconduct of the Formosan aborigines; and it is pretended by the Japanese that Soyeshima, on visiting the Emperor last year, obtained his free consent to discipline the savages with a strong hand. It is also asserted that China never considered the eastern half of the island hers or subject to her authority, and is only now putting forth claims to it when it is seen to be coveted as a joint possession by her rival of the archipelago. On the other hand, there appears to be justification for the opinion that the Formosa expedition grew out of the Saga insurrection, and was designed as a safety-valve for the military restlessness and political discontent which the insurrection revealed. In this aspect of the case, the Japanese people and Government seem fairly entitled to the designation which has sometimes been applied to them of "the French of Asia." The weight of evidence thus far would give the Chinese the advantage of the quarrel in international law and in diplomacy.

The military problem raised by the prospective collision is not so easy of solution. The Japanese force, under their general, Saigo, consists of only two thousand men, but it is fully a match for an equal number of Chinese, and as against superior re-enforcements it has the powerful defence of a couple of iron-clads, in which China is wholly lacking. Not only does this circumstance render Formosa much more remote from the continent than it is from Japan, but the Mikado is in easy telegraphic communication with his expedition, while the Emperor's news must travel slowly and be exposed to interruption by a hostile navy. His commissioner for the settlement of the Formosan difficulty is already said to have petitioned for a cable to be laid between Amoy and the island, and we hear of the Peking Government telegraphing orders to Europe for the building of iron-clads. We doubt if any more favorable opportunity for the sale of the Stevens battery will ever be offered the State of New Jersey. While a naval conflict at present could have apparently but one termination, a land battle with the weapons of civilization in the hands of both combatants would be a curious spectacle, of which the issue, as we have said, would probably turn upon the numbers engaged. The prize is worth a struggle. China is interested, indeed, in keeping at a distance a powerful and menacing neighbor, more alive to improvement and more versed in the arts of Europe; but she will also not willingly give up an island which is the chief source of the camphor product of the world, and which from the rich returns of its rice-crop has been called the granary of Southern China. Formosa produces, too, a fine quality of tea, sulphur is manufactured there in increasing quantities, and the supply of rattan and of valuable forest timber is almost inexhaustible.

The recognition of Spain still hangs fire, Russia being reluctant to act with the other powers, and they apparently not wishing to proceed without her, at least formally. But as far as can be judged from the conflicting reports by Cable, the Republic has virtually been recognized, and at least has gained all the moral advantage that she is likely to gain from recognition. Germany, as was to be expected, declares that further than this she will not interfere in the affairs of Spain. How much her lead in the matter has wounded the sensibilities of Frenchmen is shown in the letter of our correspondent on another page, in which the pressure brought to bear on France to co-operate in recognizing Serrano's Government is characterized as an outrage, like the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine.

THE "WAR OF RACES."

IT is now about the time of year that, from various causes, we hear a great deal about the threatened conflict between the whites and blacks throughout the South. In the first place, as the *Tribune* said the other day, it is in the interest of the Northern Republicans to predict Kuklux outrages, with a view to capital in the autumn elections; in the second place, it is the interest of the Democrats to predict negro atrocities, for objects of a similar kind; in the third place, the South, from the peculiar conditions of public and private life since the war, is a place where lawlessness and violence are more likely to break out at any time than they are in the North. Before the war, the whites generally managed to keep the fighting to themselves; but, since the war, the negroes, being free, have naturally taken part in it also. From these unquestionable facts, however, to jump to the conclusion that we are going to see a "war of races" is quite another thing. If we look into any of the detailed accounts of the recent faction-fights which have been going on in the South, we shall find little evidence in them which will bear out the belief in any settled plans of race-hostility. The affair at Austin and that in which the celebrated "Dick" Busteed has lately been engaged, are both involved in a good deal of mystery, but no intelligent man can read the accounts of both sides without seeing that there was but little disposition either among the whites or blacks to indulge in anything more than a hot-headed quarrel for the moment. The recent riot in Georgetown, South Carolina, was confined entirely to negroes, and originated in a difficulty between two rascally black politicians engaged in a struggle for office, and died out almost as quickly as it began. Even in Arkansas, where a few months ago the line was said to be drawn between whites under Baxter and blacks under Brooks, the mere recognition of the Baxter Government at Washington brought the "war of races" to an end. We may expect to see these *émeutes* and disturbances repeated from time to time in the South; but before we see a general inter-race warfare, some violent change or social cataclysm will probably have to take place.

The fact is that people go on talking and writing about the South as if it were in exactly the same state as it was left at the end of the Rebellion, or rather as it was under Johnson—the blacks in danger of re-enslavement or extermination, the whites looking anxiously about for some shrewd device by which they may under the form of law re-establish the old ante-bellum institutions. But the condition of the South is radically different. Ever since the termination of the struggle between Johnson and Congress, which left the reconstructed States in the hands of the negroes and the carpet-baggers, a slow change has been taking place in the Southern States, by which Southern society has been adapting itself to the new order, and the new order has been adapting itself also to the fundamental peculiarities of Southern society. First, there was established in almost every Southern State a corrupt carpet-bag goverment, which was tolerated at first, but was soon discovered to be ruining the State. Then the property-holders, who in most if not all cases were guided and controlled by the whites, drove out the carpet-bag governments, and established conservative governments in their stead. In one or two States, it is true, as in South Carolina, the driving out of the carpet-baggers did not lead to the creation of a conservative, but of a black government. Speaking of the South generally, however, we may say that the result of the struggles which have been going on there since the reconstruction period has been to sweep away the carpet-bag governments, and bring every year more and more States under the control of a party, led of course by whites, but having also a negro following (as the returns of such an election as that recently held in Vicksburg show), the leaders of which are in the main merely desirous of a cessation of plunder and the restoration of peace and prosperity to the distracted country in which they live. In the State in which the Conservatives have held sway the longest (Georgia), there is least heard of rioting, fighting, or plundering, while in the State in which the Conservative party have totally failed to gain any foothold, society is, to say the least, in as bad condition, plunder as open, and life and property as insecure, as at any time since the end of the war.

This condition of things is what might have been expected to result from the struggle for existence in the South. That the Southern negroes would ever, except in isolated spots where enormous superiority of numbers favored them, take any very lasting or important share in the actual government of the South—framing its laws, directing its investments of capital, and, in short, organizing society—was not to be expected. It was to the race which hitherto has been dominant on this continent that we looked to govern the South again, but under changed conditions, with just laws and with equal protection of the law to white and black. The number of States which have now emancipated themselves from the rule established at the close of the war points to a solution of the Southern question by the operation of natural laws which govern the movements of society; and on the whole, taking everything into account—the exasperation of the native Southern white at the enormities of the carpet-bag governments, the disappointment of the negro in finding that even freedom was not synonymous with cessation from all labor, and the temptation of both races to excess, outrage, and violence of all kinds—it must be admitted that a good deal of praise is due both whites and blacks for their mutual forbearance and consideration during the past six or seven years; and the inference we draw from it is, that in the absence of something very new and unexpected, the "war of races" so much talked about is not a thing of the future but of the past. This war has actually taken place; but instead of being a bloody conflict, such as was at one time expected, it has been mainly a silent struggle on the part of the most powerful and wisest and most trained race in the South to take the lead in public affairs, and this it seems to be gradually doing.

There is one point of view from which the conservative reaction in the South deserves to be looked at with more attention than it receives. Hitherto the Southerners have been too much occupied with the fundamental questions of social existence to take a very active part in the agitation of questions of general political interest. The tariff, the currency, and taxation have been remote and dim objects to men who have been living under Kellogg or Casey or Scott or Bullock. It was easy enough, in the campaign of 1872, to see that the Southerner who supported Greeley did so without any intelligent comprehension of the causes of Northern discontent with the Administration. Moreover, it was noticed during the last Congress that the Southern members, in voting on schemes of internal improvement, inflation, or the like, voted without any head or lead, evidently having no defined policy on these or kindred subjects. It is natural enough that they should not. But it is deplorable to think of the utter extinction of political habit which this implies. The Northern and Eastern and Western representatives made at least a pretence of understanding the will of the people on these and similar subjects, but in the South the people evidently have not been thinking about them for a long time. For nearly fifteen years now they have been in the hands of successive despotisms, until they have almost forgotten that in free countries men live for more objects than the single one of keeping robbers' hands off the earnings of the citizen. It is greatly to be hoped that this is not to continue indefinitely. We may say for our part that if we believed the South were about to rise again out of the void, filling the air with wild and incoherent cries on subjects requiring the deepest reflection and study—subjects, too, on which the politics of the country must for the next quarter of a century turn, and the correct settlement of which is of the gravest moment to each of us—we should rather not have her rise at all.

OUR POLITICAL-CONVENTION SYSTEM.

THE gentleman who has just been "chosen" or "selected" or "called upon" or "requested" to succeed Mr. Willard as a Republican candidate for Congress in Vermont was indiscreet enough, though a practical politician, to make a speech on arriving

at his home. In this speech he alluded to a fact so well known there that denying it would have been sheer nonsense, in the following terms: "I am completely exhausted with the fatigues of the day and the canvass, and cannot stand here and tire myself and you by making a long speech." One of the "local organs" confirms this modest statement, and approvingly adds that the new candidate "was then taken to the quiet and peace of his home, which he very much needs after his severe and protracted labor in the canvass." According to the English practice of electing members of Parliament, a man has to announce himself as a candidate. He may indeed be requested "to stand" by some of his admirers; but they speak merely as individuals to him. The act of becoming a candidate rests with the man himself, and he comes before the public, to that extent at least, upon his own merits. If his standing is an absurdity or an outrage, he very soon learns the fact by somebody else standing, and has the ridicule and expenses of the affair to bear by way of penalty. In this country, custom makes it indelicate and almost outrageous for a man to announce himself as a candidate for Congress. Our theory is that "our party" ought to have but one candidate in the field, and that he ought to be "the best man for the place." Our theory also is that certain discreet and disinterested members of our party shall meet together in convention and select "the best man for the place," and that then it will be the duty of "every good Democrat" or of "every good Republican," as the case may be, to forego his own judgment as to who is the best man, and loyally vote for the nominee of the discreet and disinterested men whom we sent to the convention. Under our system, it is apparent that a candidate does not stand before us upon his personal merits so much as upon the merits of the discreet and disinterested men who selected him. We, as voters, are expected to walk largely by faith and very little by sight; and our faith is expected to be not so much in the candidate as in the men who selected him for us. It is also apparent that a candidate comes before us with certain assumed rights, with certain inchoate claims upon the office, by virtue of which the ordinary train of investigation which we would apply to a clerk we think of hiring, or a horse we think of buying, is reversed, so that voters, instead of asking each other whether the candidate is a good man, capable of making our laws, do, in fact, ask each other whether the candidate has ever been proved guilty of any heinous crime which will warrant them in bolting the nomination and throwing him overboard.

When the present Chief-Justice of the United States performed for his country the very meritorious service of running as an independent candidate to defeat the notorious Mr. Ashley, it was an effective protest against the perversion of our convention system by the political professionals who generally control such bodies. It was perfectly understood that the independent candidate could not be elected—that he was running merely to defeat an infamous nomination; and the same result might have been reached if the same men who voted for the third candidate had simply scratched Ashley's name off the ballots. But it is a singular fact that the American voter must have somebody to vote for, and that he is over-apt to vote for a bad candidate rather than rouse himself to the individual responsibility of stamping out so far as he can the vicious, mercenary class of which Ashley was an authenticated specimen. The necessity of an independent nomination was simply to assure conscientious voters that other conscientious voters were co-operating with them to do what every one of them wanted to do and ought to do by himself, irrespective of the action of all other men. A third candidature, unfortunately, is not an ordinary remedy to which men may resort any day to assure each other that they think alike and are thoroughly in earnest. It is certain to be expensive, liable to be ridiculous, likely to be ineffectual. Few men have the means and determination and moral courage to enter into the contest of an election merely to assert so simple a principle as that a nominating convention must be what it pretends to be, and its candidate decently fitted for the position he is nominated to fill. In the occasional cases where a good citizen like Chief-Justice Waite has the requisite amount of hardihood and self-sacrifice to go into such a fight, we should commend his pluck; and when, like the Chief-Justice, he succeeds in extinguishing so offensive a specimen of the politician as Mr. Ashley, we should thank him for the patriotic service and heartily congratulate him on the happy result. In the greater number of cases where there is not sufficient resentment among the intelligent voters to resist in this way a bad nomination, or where there is no prominent person sufficiently aroused and sufficiently able to bear the brunt of this kind of battle, we should endeavor to effect the same result by quietly rejecting an unworthy nominee, and giving an implied though none the less effective vote for integrity, intelligence, and respectability in office.

A system which is prudent and judicious in theory, but which is a sham in practice, is always a dangerous system. It is in practical results much below an inferior system honestly lived up to and thoroughly carried out. In the early days when the best men in the country were to be found in office, and when they led and controlled, if not wholly composing, our State and National legislatures, one may well believe that the convention system was not a sham. The Whig or Democratic convention which met and selected, or honestly tried to select, the best man of the party in the district as a candidate for an important office, was really a deliberative body and entitled to no little respect. But it was also much more than this, for it was really the agency of the Whig or Democratic portion of the people of that district. Its verdict, though an erroneous one, possessed inherent weight, and could not be lightly cast aside. It was the umpire to whom the earnest Whig or Democrat confided his political preferences, and by its decision he felt bound to abide, and against its judgment he could not honorably interpose his own. There was thus in this country a remarkable dual system of filtration: the legal means of selection given by the election; and behind it an informal method for primarily selecting the fittest, which, though purely voluntary on the part of the people, was almost as obligatory as if it had been established by positive law. No one who contemplates such a system in its purity can wonder that it obtained a very powerful and lasting hold upon the public mind; nor that citizens of the highest intelligence felt bound to yield to its decrees; nor that dissenting from its judgments within the party always had attached to it the character of revolt and the suspicion of unworthy motives and broken faith.

Our present degenerated practice in making and accepting political nominations has destroyed for the most part the virtue of the old system, by transmuting the convention from an agency of the public into an agency of the candidate. When a convention loses that former characteristic of acting for the people and becomes a mere instrumentality of office-seekers, it is plain enough that it retains the form but not the substance of its former self, and that its decisions are no more binding than the decision of the English candidate who nominates himself for Parliament. The verdict of a jury is a fine thing for a litigant to have, provided he did not get it by buying up the jury. But what man of ordinary common-sense would go around the country boasting in one breath of his verdict and of the illegal means by which he procured it? Doubtless there are portions of the country, like South Carolina and Louisiana, so demoralized that men can and do make such boasts as this; but when we hear them made there of judicial proceedings, or when we hear them made in Vermont of political proceedings, we may safely conclude that there has been some very sad demoralization at work. For a candidate like our Vermont friend to tell the public that he is exhausted with the labor of getting himself selected as the fittest representative of his party in the district; and for his friendly newspaper pathetically to picture him as worn out with the toil of destroying the deliberative, impartial usefulness of a convention, is for them to admit publicly that the nomination morally binds no one, and that the judgment of the deliberative body is not worth a straw. A pickpocket who steals a card of admission to a ball might as well walk into an assemblage of respectable people, narrate his exploit, and insist that the card entitled him to be considered a

gentleman of irreproachable character. It is not to be denied that there have been and always will be ambitious men of excellent character seeking prominent positions in public life. It is also equally undeniable that such men, like all others intent on their work, succeed, and make the very best of public servants. But seeking an exalted station must be done by demonstrating unusual abilities, by winning public confidence, by laboriously fighting one's way into the knowledge and respect of mankind: not by the paltry work of packing or biasing conventions.

To those persons who perceive the importance of the coming Congressional elections, or who feel some solicitude in regard to the immediate future of our national affairs, we offer these suggestions: 1st, A political convention packed or biased or improperly influenced is not an agency of the people, and its selections are entitled to no confidence whatever, and are to be judged with all the critical examination which the voter is able to bestow upon them; 2d, A candidate who procures a nomination by improperly influencing a convention, is generally a very unfit man for the place he seeks, and one who would never have been selected by an unbiased, impartial agency; 3d, If we would ever bring back conventions to their original usefulness, it must be through the independence of the intelligent and conscientious few, who will sturdily though unostentatiously resent such nominations as an offence against society and an insult to their own common sense.

MOULTON'S STORY.

WHEN the article discussing the Brooklyn scandal last week was written we were under the impression that Mr. Moulton had finally determined not to appear and testify, and that therefore the case might for all practical purposes be considered closed. Since then Moulton has made his "statement," and we are compelled to discuss it in view of what we have already said upon his share in the affair, deeply as we regret troubling our readers with any more comment on a matter that grows more repulsive the more it is handled.

We have read the Moulton "statement" carefully, and we do not find that it adds anything to the testimony against Beecher already produced, or anything which Beecher's story does not seem sufficient to explain, except Moulton's assertion that both Mrs. Tilton and Beecher repeatedly confessed to him that they had been guilty of adultery. We will now give some reasons for believing Moulton to be a generally untrustworthy person, and, having given them, hope to be discharged from all further attention to the subject. He excites suspicion at once by the manner in which he performed the duty of "arbitrator" and "mediator," inasmuch as it is one to which nobody but a natural-born tattler and scandal-monger would stoop. He appears to have carried a drag-net during the four years, into which he gathered every scrap of writing alluding in the remotest degree to the controversy, including even poor Mr. John Hooker's letter to his wife and Mr. T. K. Beecher's to his sister, though these could have no bearing whatever on the question of Beecher's guilt or innocence, or on Tilton's domestic troubles; and in order to make the collection more complete and to ensure his control of the case, he compelled his "clients" to promise to send him all letters they received from each other, and forbade them to write to each other without his permission. Having thus made sure of his jurisdiction, he devoted himself with wonderful assiduity to "tracing to its source" any filthy rumor which his own or Tilton's prattle set afloat—an occupation which he seems to have found very congenial, but in which few respectable men, let us hope, would engage. The archives which he thus brought together, he arranged and endorsed with scrupulous care. His protégés all seem to have obeyed his injunctions with regard to placing their letters in his hands or informing him of the contents. What followed is now worthy of attention. On the 30th of December, 1870, according to Moulton's statement, Tilton showed him his wife's written confession of criminal intimacy with her pastor. On the same night she wrote and delivered to Mr. Beecher a retraction of that confession, which has been published, in which she declared that the confession had been obtained from her "when wearied by importunity and weakened by sickness," and added, in a postscript, an explicit denial of the accusation contained in the confession, declaring not that she and Mr. Beecher had never been guilty of criminal intercourse, but that he "had never offered her improper solicitations," and "had always treated her as a Christian and a gentleman." This is a pretty clear indication that she did not at that time believe that the confession contained a graver charge, as Moulton and Tilton said it did. On that very night, however, at midnight, this remarkable woman wrote another paper, addressed t her husband, in which she retracted her retraction, said she only gave the letter to Beecher to be used against other persons than her husband, and on the following morning wrote a letter to Moulton asking that both documents—*i.e.*, her confession and retraction—might be destroyed. It would seem as if this was enough to destroy her reputation utterly in even Moulton's eyes, used as he was to the society of queer people. We find, however, that it was not until Mrs. Tilton wrote letters to Beecher in March, April, and May respectively of the following year, asking his forgiveness for the suffering she had caused him, and begging that "the papers" in Moulton's possession might be destroyed, that he (Moulton) lost "whatever remained of faith in Mrs. Tilton's character for truth or propriety of conduct." It will be observed that these letters, now for the first time produced, confirm or at all events tally with Beecher's version. In another letter to Moulton, in February of the same year, she deplores her conduct during the previous year, as having caused "the utter misery of those she loved best—her mother, husband, Mr. B., and my dear children." But even this did not disgust outright the man to whom she had confessed adultery with "Mr. B."

In June, 1873, Moulton admits that he, at Beecher's request, carried to the Brooklyn *Eagle*, altered, amended, and caused to be inserted, a card, signed by Beecher, "declaring that the stories and rumors which had been for some time past in circulation about him [Beecher] were untrue, and that he stamped them in general and particular as utterly untrue." In other words, Moulton, according to his own story, helped to prepare and published a lying card, of the falsehood of which he was thoroughly convinced..

On the 31st of December, 1870, Mrs. Tilton wrote to her "dear friend Frank," asking that her confession and recantation which were in his possession might be destroyed. Upon this Moulton remarks, "I could not, of course, accede to this request of Mrs. Tilton, because *I had pledged myself to Beecher* that her retraction on the one side, and her confession to Tilton on the other, which are the papers she refers to, should not be given up, but *should be held for the protection of either* as against the other." In April, 1872, however, *Tilton* asked him for his wife's confession, to be returned to her, in order to relieve her anxiety. And on this Moulton says: "As *I held it solely for her protection and under pledge to him*, I gave it to him, and he told me afterwards that he gave it into her hands and she destroyed it." Elsewhere he recites the pledge he made to Beecher on this very subject when he extorted the recantation from him. Here are two different versions of the same transaction.

In November of the same year, finding himself bothered by people's enquiries about the affair, and wishing to put himself in a position to meet the stories about Beecher without open lying, he told Tilton that "he wished to be authorized by his wife to deny them," and Tilton obtained from the wretched woman, who seems to have been as wax in their hands, a letter addressed to Moulton containing this passage:

"*Mr. Moulton:*

"My Dear Friend: For my husband's sake and my children's, I hereby testify, with all my woman's soul, that I am innocent of the crime of impure conduct alleged against me. I have been to my husband a true wife; in his love I wish to live and die. My early affection for him still burns with its maiden flame; *all the more* for what he has borne for my sake, both private and public wrongs. His plan to keep back scandals long ago threatened against me I never approved, and the result shows it unavailing; but few would have risked so much as he has sacrificed for others ever since the conspiracy began against him, two years ago."

What are we to think of the man who could under such circumstances ask for such a letter, carry it about with him, and make assertions on the strength of it? He also received a letter from Beecher dated February 5, 1872, in which he says "he committed all to God—whatever it may be here, it will be well there"; and another dated June 1, 1873, in which he says "his mind is clear, and he is not in haste, and that he shall write for the public a statement that will bear the light of the judgment-day," and "that God will take care of him and his"; and this stuff, coming from a minister whom he believed on his own confession to be an adulterer, did not, it appears, disgust him, lessen his friendship, or cool his zeal as a peace-maker. Moreover, he wrote to Beecher on the same 1st of June, "You can stand if the whole case were published to-morrow." As regards the blackmail, he denies that Tilton sought or suggested anything of the kind. Beecher says that Moulton hinted broadly that it would be a good thing for him to give money to Tilton, and that he gave it. Moulton says that Beecher gave the money of his own motion, and that he disbursed it for Tilton's benefit, without Tilton's knowing whence it came. By way of showing Tilton's high-mindedness about money, he alleges that in May, 1873, he offered Tilton $1,000 as a loan on his note; but Tilton sent it back, saying "he could not borrow money, for he saw no way of returning it." Nevertheless, Moulton again offered him the money, and he took it, "not as

a money transaction," says Moulton, "but as a matter between ourselves." What the difference is between "a money transaction" and a "matter between ourselves" it would be hard to say, but during the following ten months Tilton got $4,550 of Beecher's money in instalments, through Moulton, as "a matter between ourselves." For Tilton's ignorance of its source we have Moulton's word. The balance of the $5,000 paid by Beecher seems to have gone to pay for the schooling of a girl whom Beecher says had to be removed from Tilton's house because he tried to seduce her, but Moulton says because she tattled about Mrs. Tilton's bad conduct. We shall not attempt to hold the balance on these weighty matters. We must leave the public to choose between the witnesses. The lying in every direction seems to be tremendous and unblushing. We shall now take leave of the affair with this remark, that the case has evidently reached a stage at which the further discussion of it will do no good, and serve no purpose but to gratify the cravings of the actors in it for notoriety. It has come to be a "conflict of veracity" between people whose moral standard is evidently not that of respectable men, and the best thing the public can do is to let it drop.

FRANCE AND ITALY.

BELLAGIO, August 9, 1874.

LEAVING Paris and Versailles and the Assembly behind me, I have been wandering in the high Alps for a short time, and staying at the most romantic village of Macugnaga, at the foot of Monte Rosa. I have paid my court to this giant of mountains, which only deserves its name on the Italian side, as the sun covers it every morning on that side with a pink hue of indescribable beauty. I will not, however, attempt to compete with Murray or Baedeker, and I would not have mentioned this visit to the Italian side of the Alps if I had not spent some time in the little inn of Macugnaga with one of the foremost Italian statesmen, whom I have long known, and who was one of Cavour's fellow-laborers in the field of Italian unity. Our meeting was almost painful at first. Everything seems to smile on Italy. Rome has become her capital, the work of unity is accomplished; Milan, Florence, Rome, Naples are adding new marvels to the old; no enemy threatens the *re galantuomo* and his people; the divisions of parties are as slight as those observable in England between the Tories and the Whigs. And where is the glory of France, despoiled of provinces, torn from two millions of her most patriotic sons, deprived of her strongest fortresses, humbled in her military pride, rent by factions? The contrast is one which must suggest itself at once to the mind. The Italians are gentle, and my friend tried to persuade me that France was still "la belle France," and that Italy had her troubles also. "See how rich you are," said he; "you have paid your ransom with an ease which has astonished the world; your funds are reaching par, your bank-notes are as good as gold, and as soon as you crossed the Alps you found our dirty paper-money, and have received for every napoleon in gold twenty-two *lire*. The financial situation of Italy is a serious source of anxiety to all Italian patriots; we have tried every tax and every possible economy, and we cannot make both ends meet. We have sold as much as we could of the property of convents, but this exceptional resource will not be eternal. On the other hand, we are pensioning all those who lived on this property, though to be sure this debt will be extinguished in course of time."

This brought us to the Church question; my friend was very indignant at the attacks made on the Italian Government by a certain Archbishop on his return from Italy. The Archbishop described the Catholic Church as persecuted and deprived of all its liberties. The accusation is not well founded; the law passed two years ago on the relations of church and state is in reality very liberal; it was the translation of Cavour's famous motto: "A free church in a free state." The policy of the Church is, of course, to play the part of martyr; but there is no interference anywhere in Italy with the discipline, the teaching, the preaching of the Catholic clergy. I could not help being struck by the nervousness of my friend on the subject of the Pope. It has always been clear to me that the Italians are very desirous of a reconciliation of the King of Italy and of the Pope. They don't intend, if they can, to lose the prestige of the Papacy. They know that an immense power is still concealed in its very name; they are not fanatics in religion or irreligion; they would not dispense with the presence of the spiritual chief of the oldest Christian church. They are politically allied to Germany for the present, but they look with some contempt and disgust on the brutal persecution of the Catholic bishops of Germany, the sale of their furniture at auction, and all such acts, which are not in accordance with the spirit of our age. The Italians, it must be well understood, are a very refined and a very old race; they detest useless brutality, useless exhibition of force. The Pope knows well that he offends them in the most tender parts by never crossing the door of the Vatican and so playing the martyr and the prisoner. The streets of Italy are full of photographs which represent Pio Nono, in his white gown, arm-in-arm with Victor Emanuel, his hand on his sword. This photograph represents the real Italian feeling, the long-expected alliance of the national King and a national Pope. Victor Emanuel dislikes Rome, and would much prefer to remain in his mountains of Piedmont, camping near some glacier and hunting the chamois. He said to a friend not long ago, pointing to the Vatican: "There is the prisoner free, and here, in the Quirinal, you see the free prisoner." He is the prisoner of Italian unity. Italian statesmen affect to dread the interference of France in favor of the temporal power of the Pope; this affectation may be the excuse of many who were once the strong partisans of the French alliance, and who now are the courtiers of Prince Bismarck. It would not appear well, in the eyes of the world, to turn abruptly from the French Empire to the German Empire; but then they say that they are much afraid that the Emperor Napoleon was their best friend in France, and that having lost him they have lost everything; that the Clerical party in France is constantly preaching a crusade against Italy; that Saint Peter's pence, the pilgrimages, the Catholic revival in France, are parts of a vast system of reaction which threatens the work of Italian unity. I suppose that with some these fears are sincere; with many they cannot be so. There is not a single party in France which thinks of making war on Italy or of re-establishing by force the temporal power of the Pope. The Legitimist and Clerical papers are doing much mischief by constantly insulting and attacking Italy; the Republican press does nearly as much by treating the opposition of the Clericals to Italy as something serious, which it is not. I was horrified on finding in my friend's mouth arguments and considerations which were just the repetition of what I am condemned to read in the papers of M. Thiers or of Gambetta. The fact is that in France nobody thinks of Italy at all. France feels isolated; she is alone, sullen, discontented; she knows that even the Latin races are estranged from her; she has ceased to care for what goes on outside of her frontiers. I could not well persuade my friend of this indifference, for it is not real indifference; it is a strange admixture of resentment, of pride, and of disgust. The French people have a dim and painful feeling that whatever they do they will be ill-judged as long as they are not powerful as they once were. You will probably read in many papers that France is helping the Carlists in Spain; France does not know the Carlists, nor cares whether one general or another is in power in Spain. Of course, on the long mountainous frontier of the Pyrenees the smugglers, familiar with all the passes, carry on a brisk trade in contraband of war; but if France, as a nation, is made responsible for the cruelties of the Carlists, it will only be a new example of the truth that justice is not to be found in politics. The law of nations has not been deliberately violated in any instance by our Government in favor of the Carlists; the Government which is at war with them is not a recognized Government; and it hardly befits those to give us lessons in this case who once helped the Southern States with all their might when they had ambassadors in Washington.

It was probably not without good reason that Mr. Disraeli twice pointed out recently some hidden dangers which threaten the actual peace of Europe. It seems at times as if mysterious forces were congregating all round France; in Spain, she is represented as the chief supporter of a cruel civil war, and of a party detested by the majority of the population; in Italy, as the champion of the temporal power, the enemy of Italian unity; even in little Geneva, she is cursed by the so-called Liberal Catholics, and Father Hyacinthe has at last been obliged to resign, as he has found too late that the Liberal Catholics of Geneva were no more liberal than Catholics, and that he had allowed himself to become a mere tool in the hands of the enemies of his country. The religious struggle which is going on all over Europe may after all end in a great struggle against France. There are hidden or open affinities between the new reformers and Germany, and it is for this reason that France instinctively draws back from her own Republican and Communistic reformers. Great as her misfortunes have been, she feels that greater misfortunes are perhaps preparing for her; she sees an enemy everywhere, she distrusts all parties; she rests a moment under the strong hand of an honest soldier, who will give her breathing time and a short period of security. When the first Italian regiments entered Rome, a struggle began of which this century may not see the end. Now, as in the sixteenth century, the religious passions will become the mantle of political ambitions. It is distinctly the object of Prince Bismarck to effect a permanent division of the Latin races in Europe, to turn Spain and Italy against France; and he thinks that this design cannot be better accomplished than by promoting in Italy the cause of a dynasty which is at war with the Pope, in Spain of a Republic which has exiled the Bourbons. Let France only be patient, and wait, and be silent — the time will come when Italy and the Papacy can become reconciled; when Cavour's motto will be a reality at Rome itself; when Spain, disgusted

with revolutions, will find some national ruler not ready to bargain with her honor and her interests; and when France will be able to draw more distinctly the line of her responsibilities. Now she must submit to every outrage; her only way to show her old spirit is not to fall into the snares of those false friends who would engage her in the most dangerous experiments. France long ago accomplished her civil and religious revolution; she need not be drawn into a new hundred years' war and make new crusades; she must remember now the famous despatch written by Prince Gortchakoff, after the Crimean war: "Russia collects herself" (La Russie se recueille). Not many years afterwards, Prince Gortchakoff was able to obtain by a peaceful negotiation the revision of the Treaty of Paris. Neither men nor treaties are immortal; France has nothing to expect except from time and from the consequences of her own abdication in Europe. She must, so to speak, make a vacuum, and it will be soon felt that the nation which can fight for an idea cannot be so well dispensed with. For the present, let the Italian Government ask for the withdrawal of the *Orénoque*, and let the *Orénoque* be withdrawn from Civita Vecchia. Let Germany ask for the recognition of the Serrano Government, and let Serrano's Government be officially recognized. It will not add much to the vitality of the Government of Spain, and hardly anything can be added to the humiliation we have already borne. When a man has lost his wife, he does not mourn over his dog.

IN HOLLAND.

THE HAGUE, August 8, 1874.

IT would amount to positive impudence, I suppose, to introduce these few impressions of Dutch scenery by an overt allusion to the beauties of the Rhine. And yet it was by the Rhine, a few days since, that I entered Holland, and it was along an arm of the Rhine, subdued to the likeness of a homely Dutch canal, that I wandered this afternoon in drowsy Leyden. As many as thirty years ago, I believe, it was good taste to make an apology for a serious mention, of the descriptive sort, of the vineyards of Bingen or the cloister of Nonnenwerth, and if the theme had been rubbed threadbare then, it can hardly be considered presentable now. But thus much I may boldly affirm, that if my corrupt modern consciousness had not assured me that these were terribly faded charms, I should not have guessed it from the testimony of my eyes. After platitudes, as well as after battles, Nature has a way—all her own—of renewing herself; and in a decent attitude, at the bow of the boat, with my face to Nature and my back to man, I ventured to salute the castled crags as frankly as if I were making a voyage of discovery. The time seems to me to have come round again when one ought really to say a good word for them. I insist upon the merits of no particular member of the crumbling fraternity; there are many worthy men whose pockets it might be awkward to examine; and the Rhenish dungeons, from a more familiar standpoint than the deck of the steamer, may prove to be half-buried in beer-bottles and lemon-peel. But they still pass their romantic watchword from echo to echo all along the line, and they "compose" as bravely between the river and the sky as if fifty years of sketching and sonneteering had done nothing to tame them. The fine thing about the Rhine is that it has that which, when applied to architecture and painting, is called style. It is in the grand manner—on the liberal scale; that is, it is on the liberal scale while it lasts. There is less of it, in time, than I had been remembering these fifteen years. The classic sites come and go within an easy four hours; and if you embark at Mayence you leave the last and most perfect of the castled crags—the Drachenfels—behind you just as your organism, physical and mental, is being thoroughly attuned to the supreme felicity of river navigation. It was a grayish day as I passed, and the Drachenfels looked as if it had been stolen from a background of Claude to do service in the Rhenish foreground. It has the ideal, romantic contour.

It stands there, however, like some last ringing word in an interrupted phrase. The vast white river sweeps along into Holland on a level with its banks, finally to die in a slush of marshes and a mesh of canals, within sound of the surge of the North Sea. I left it to its destiny, and gathered my first impressions of Holland from the window of the train. The most pertinent thing one may say of these first impressions is that they are exactly, to the letter, what one expects them to be. If you come this way, as I had, chiefly with an eye to Dutch pictures, your first acquisition is a sense, no longer an amiable inference but a direct perception, of the undiluted accuracy of Dutch painters. You have seen it all before; it is vexatiously familiar; it was hardly worth while to have come. At Amsterdam, at Leyden, at The Hague, and in the country between them, this is half your state of mind; when you are looking at the originals, you seem to be looking at the copies; and when you are looking at the copies, you seem to be looking at the originals. Is it a canal-side in Haarlem or is it a Van der Heyden? Is it a priceless Hobbema, or is it a meagre pastoral vista, stretching away from the railway track? The maid-servants in the streets seem to have stepped out of the frame of a Gerard Dow, and appear equally adapted for stepping back again. You have to rub your eyes to ascertain their normal situation. And so you wander about, with art and nature playing so assiduously into each other's hands that your experience of Holland becomes something singularly compact and complete in itself—striking no chords that lead elsewhere, and asking no outside help to unfold itself. This is what we mean when we say, as we do at every turn, that Holland is so *curious*. Italy is not curious, as a general thing, nor is England, in its leading features. They are simply both eminent specimens of a sort of beauty which pervades in a greater or less degree all our conceptions of the beautiful. We admire them because they stand, as it were, in the high-road of admiration, and whether we pass them at a run or at a walk our pace is part of the regular æsthetic business of life. But to enjoy the Low Countries, we have to put on a very particular pair of spectacles and bend our nose well over our task, and, beyond our consciousness that our gains are real gains, remain decidedly at loss how to classify them. This is the charming thing in Holland—the way one feels one's observation lowered to a relish of the harmonies of the minor key; persuaded to respect small things and take note of small differences; so that really a week's sojourn here, if properly used, ought to make one at the worst a more reasonable, and at the best a more kindly, person. The beauty which is no beauty; the ugliness which is not ugliness; the poetry which is prose, and the prose which is poetry; the landscape which seems to be all sky until you have taken particular pains to discover it, and turns out to be half water when you *have* discovered it; the virtues, when they are graceful (like cleanliness), exaggerated to a vice, and when they are sordid (like the getting and keeping of money), refined to a dignity; the mild gray light which produced in Rembrandt the very genius of chiaroscuro; the stretch of whole provinces on the principle of a billiard table, which produced a school of consummate landscapists; the extraordinary reversal of custom, in which man seems, with a few windmills and ditches, to do what he will, and Providence, holding the North Sea in the hollow of his hand, what he can—all these elements of the general spectacle in this entertaining country at least give one's regular habits of thought the stimulus of a little confusion, and make us feel that one is dealing with an original genius.

The curious fortunately excludes neither the impressive nor the agreeable, and Amsterdam, where I took my first Dutch walk, is a stately city, even though its street-vistas do look as if they were pictured on a tea-caddy or a hand-screen. They have for the most part a broad, sluggish canal in the middle, on either side of which a row of perfectly salubrious, but extremely attenuated trees grow out of a highly cultivated soil of compact yellow bricks. Cultivated I call it by a proper license, for it is periodically raked by the broom and the scrubbing-brush, and religiously manured with soapsuds. You lose no time, of course, in drawing the inevitable parallel between Amsterdam and Venice, and it is well worth drawing, as an illustration of the uses to which the same materials may be put by different minds. Sky and sea in both cases, with architecture between; winding sea-channels washing the feet of goodly houses erected with the profits of trade. And yet the Dutch city is a complete reversal of the Italian, and its founders might have carefully studied Venetian effects with the set purpose of producing exactly the opposite ones. It produces them in the moral line even more vividly than in the material. It is not that one place is all warm color and the other all cold; one all shimmer and softness and mellow interfusion of every possible phase of ruin, and the other rigidity, angularity, opacity, prosperity in their very essence; it is more than anything that they tell of such different lives and of such a different view of life. The outward expression on one side is perfect poetry, and on the other is perfect prose; and the marvel is the way in which thrifty Amsterdam imparts the prosaic turn to things which in Venice seem the perfect essence of poetry. Take, for instance, the silence and quiet of the canals; it has in the two places a difference of quality which it is almost impossible to express. In the one it is the stillness of order, and in the other of vacancy—the sleep of idleness and the sleep of rest; the quiet that comes of letting everything go by the board, and the quiet that comes of doing things betimes and being able to sit with folded hands and say they are well done. In one of George Eliot's novels there is a portrait of a thrifty farmer's wife who rose so early in the morning to do her work that by ten o'clock it was all over, and she was at her wit's end to know what to do with her day. This good woman seems to me an excellent image of the genius of Amsterdam as it is reflected in the house-fronts—I penetrated no deeper. It is impossible to imagine anything more expressive of the numerous ideas represented by the French epithet *bourgeois* than these straight façades of clean black brick capped with a rococo gable of stone painted white, and armed like the forehead of the unicorn with a little horizontal horn—a bracket and pulley for hauling store

able goods into the attic. The famous Dutch cleanliness seems to me quite on a level with its reputation, and asserts itself in the most ingenious and ludicrous ways. A rosy serving-maid, redolent of soapsuds from her white cap to her white sabots, stands squirting water from a queer little engine of polished copper over the majestic front of a genteel mansion whose complexion is not a visible shade less immaculate than her own. The performance suggests a dozen questions, and you can only answer them all with a laugh. What is she doing, and why is she doing it? Does she imagine the house has a speck or two which it is of consequence to remove, or is the squirt applied merely for purposes of light refreshment—of endearment, as it were? Where could the speck or two possibly have come from, unless produced by spontaneous generation? There are no specks in the road, which is a neat *parquet* of scoured and polished brick; nor on the trees, whose trunks are to all appearance carefully sponged every morning. The speck exists evidently only as a sort of mathematical point, capable of extension, in the good woman's Batavian brain, and the operation with her copper kettle is, as the metaphysicians would say, purely subjective. It is a necessity, not as regards the house but as regards her own temperament. Of a dozen harmlessly factitious necessities of the same sort, the canal-sides at Amsterdam offer lively evidence. Nothing could be more thoroughly in keeping with the *bourgeois* spirit than the way in which you everywhere find this brilliant cleanliness and ceremonious thrift playing the part not of a convenience but of a restriction—not of a means but of an end. The windows are of those huge plates of glass which offer a delectably uninterrupted field for friction; but they are masked internally by thick white blinds, invariably drawn, and the only use of their transparency to any mortal is to enable the passer-by to examine the texture of the stuff. The front doors are hedged in with little square padlocked barriers, to guard the doorsteps from the pollution of foot-prints, and the visitor must pocket his pride and apply at an humbler portal, with the baker and the milkman. In such houses must dwell people whose nerves are proof against the irritation of minute precautions—people who cover their books with white paper and find occasion for a week's conversation in a mysterious drop of candle-grease on the table-cloth. The traveller with an eye for details will find some eloquence in the fact that, though the canals at Amsterdam and Leyden offer continually this charming pretext of trees by a water-side, there is not in their whole length a single bench for a lounge and a half-hour's æsthetic relish of the situation. The traveller in question though, shrewd fellow, will not be prevented by the absence of benches from getting it, as he looks up and down and sees the wide green barges come floating through the respectable stillness, and the quaint old scroll-work of the gables peep out through the meagre density of the trees.

At The Hague, evidently, people take life in a lighter, more irresponsible fashion. There are two or three benches by the canals and an air of mitigated devotion to compound interest. There are wide, tranquil squares, planted in the middle with shady walks and bordered with fine old abodes of moneyed leisure, where you may boldly ring at the front door. The Hague is in fact a very charming little city, and I should be at a loss to say how much I find it to my taste. It is the model of a minor capital; small enough for convenience and compact sociability, and yet large enough to exhibit certain metropolitan airs and graces. It is one of the cities which please indefinably on a short acquaintance and prompt one's fretful fancy to say that just *this*, at last, is the place where we could come and lead the (from the worldly point of view) ideal life. It hits the happy medium between the bustling and the stagnant; it is Dutch enough for all sorts of comfortable virtues, and, where these intermit, it is English and French, and, in its diplomatic character, cosmopolitan. There must be very pleasant things done here, and I hope, for symmetry's sake, there are pleasant people to do them worthily. I imagine there are. But I do wrong to consume valuable space in these fruitless speculations when I have not yet said a word on the topic on which I had it chiefly at heart to touch. A week in Holland is necessarily a week in the company of Rembrandt and Paul Potter, Ruysdael and Gerard Dow. These admirable artists have had my best attention, but I do not know that they have given me any new impressions, or indeed that, in the literal meaning of the word, they have given me any impressions at all. I looked for a long time, only this morning, at the hand of Madame van Mieris in the little picture in the Museum here, by her husband, representing him and his wife playing with a tiny spaniel. He is pulling the dog's ear and she is pressing it against her bosom with an arm bare to the elbow. It seemed to me that it was worth the journey to Holland simply to see this appreciative husband's version of his wife's hand, and that if I had seen nothing else I should have been repaid; but beyond producing this eminently practical reflection, the picture was not suggestive. I find in my guide-book, on the margin of the page which dilates upon the great Van der Helst at Amsterdam (the Banquet of the Civic Guard), the inscription in pencil—*superb, superb, superb!* But this is simply a term of enjoyment and not of criticism. Let me however have the satisfaction of repeating, in ink for the printer, that the picture *is* superb. To the great treasure (after Rembrandt's Lesson of Anatomy) of the Museum here—Paul Potter's famous Bull—one would willingly pay some more elaborate compliment; not because it is a stronger work (on the contrary), but because it is the work of a lad of twenty-two. The subject is the most prosaic conceivable, and the treatment is perfectly in keeping; but if one considers the magnificent success of the enterprise from the painter's own point of view, there is certainly real poetry in the fact of his youth. It is hardly less true of Rembrandt than of his various smaller comrades (unusual as the judgment may seem), that he is not an intellectually suggestive painter. There are no ideas in Ostade and Terburg, in Metzu and Ruysdael (who, by the way, gives me the largest sum of tranquil pleasure of any painter of the school); but you bear them no grudge, for they give you no reason to expect them. It is one of the regular traditions, however, that Rembrandt does, and I can only say that in this case tradition has distinctly missed her way. It is the more singular that he should not, inasmuch as (I should go so far as to say) he was really not, strictly speaking, a painter. He was perfectly arbitrary, and he kept on terms with observation only so long as it suited him. This may be verified by reference to any of the most delusively picturesque of his works. They are magnificent, but compare them, for simple verity, with the little Adrian van Ostade in the Van der Hoop collection, and compare them, for thought, with any fine Tintoretto.

Notes.

THE twenty-second volume of the 'Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science' (Portland meeting, 1873) reached us just on the eve of the meeting this year at Hartford, concluded last week. We hope that the Secretary's anticipation that "the volume will naturally increase in size from year to year" will, owing to the new rules concerning publication, not be realized. The class of topics in the present volume ranges from "A Stroke of Lightning, with Hints as to Immunity," to the "Determination of Transatlantic Longitudes."——Prof. Ch. Fred. Hartt's paper on the Geology and Physical Geography of the Lower Amazons, read before the Buffalo Society of Natural Science last year, has been published separately from the Society's Bulletin. It treats of the interesting table-topped hills in the Ereré and Monte Alegre district, and is illustrated with a number of admirable little sketches of the above formation, and one general view of the valley of the Amazons, from the author's own pencil. An accompanying paper on the Devonian brachiopoda of Ereré, by Richard Rathbun, is illustrated by Prof. Hartt with forty-eight photographs of the fossils described.——Hurd & Houghton have issued for the American Social Science Association Number VI. of their Journal. This and the succeeding number will embrace nearly all the papers read at the New York meeting last May. We have already had occasion to notice the mistaken catholicity which admits such a paper as that of Mr. Flagg's on the Farmers' Movement. It is announced that the journal will hereafter be issued at least semi-annually, and quarterly if possible, making a volume of about five hundred pages. Subscriptions will be taken at the rate of one dollar for two hundred pages.——We have received from F. R. Wetmore & Co., stationers, Yokohama, a large map of Tokio, for the topographical exactness of which the publishers do not vouch, but which they say will reasonably answer the needs of tourists and foreign residents. A very full directory of the principal quarters, streets, bridges, public buildings, etc., accompanies the map.——A popular description of Pompeii, by Director Fiorelli, will shortly make its appearance, and as the subject is one which never stales, we may look for translations of the work into every European language.

—The dependence of the South on Northern presses and paper-mills, and the extremity to which the Confederate States were driven on account of the scarcity of paper, created a new field for the collector and bibliographer. Doubtless all our great libraries have as curiosities some specimens of trans-Mississippi journalism printed on wrapping-paper, or even on wall-paper, with perhaps a stray Confederate book or two. A recent catalogue of Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, gives a list of twenty-five books, "dingy and roughly printed" on Confederate paper, which are offered for sale along with a lot of sheet-music of the same manufacture. Nearly half the books are school-books, duty combining with necessity to produce a series uncontaminated with Yankee and Union heresies. Most of these, again, were published at Raleigh, where a Mrs. M. B. Moore was found willing to prepare a Dixie Primer, First Dixie Reader, Dixie Speller, Primary Geography, and Geographical Reader for the Dixie Children. This last, says the catalogue, has very rude and curious maps, in one edition roughly color-

ed by hand; and the abstract and permanent nature of the information imparted may be judged from the following passage, which was probably favorite reading with the Dixie children: "The Southern Confederacy is a great country. The Yankees thought to starve us out when they sent their ships to guard our seaport towns. We were considered an indolent, weak people; but our enemies have found us strong, because we had justice on our side." It was at Raleigh, too, that the Rev. Brantley York kindly revised his English Grammar, and adapted it to Southern schools, as even the Yankee grammar, with its useless distinction between *shall* and *will*, stood in need of overhauling; and that Mr. L. Johnson launched his Elementary Arithmetic, with its choice examples in short division. The rogue composed them as late as 1864, yet with as much confidence as if they were problems in celestial mechanics:

"If 1 Confederate soldier can whip 7 Yankees, how many soldiers can whip 49 Yankees?"

"7 Confederate soldiers captured 21 Yankees and divided them equally between them; how many did each have?"

It must have been a great shock to the "beginners" for whom this arithmetic was designed, to find a year later that, after all their dividing, there was still a considerable "remainder" of Yankees and none of Confederates. A Grammar of the French Language, "first C. S. A. edition," by John Christison, published at Richmond, is the most advanced text-book mentioned in Mr. Clarke's list. Bibliomaniacs ought to secure the New Testament, published at Augusta, Ga., by the Confederate States Bible Society, instituted in the year 1862.

—We have received a copy of General Pope's reports and letters on Indian affairs. His information and suggestions go quite sufficiently into detail, and justify the conclusions on which he bases many of the latter. The history of the reservations north and south of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi has been very different. The Indians on the north of the Ohio were placed in the country occupied or claimed by the Indians, and "the natural result followed." The white settlers crowded in, and narrowed more and more the range of the Indians. The Indians, on the other hand, found the reservations a place of refuge after committing robbery, murder, or arson. A little while only was needed to make it plain that the whites and Indians could not live in such close neighborhood on these terms, particularly as the lands of the reservations, rising in value, began to attract the cupidity of speculators, and it was thereupon determined that they must be removed to still further hunting-grounds. "The result has been," to quote the words of General Pope, "that the various tribes which once inhabited the States of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Missouri have been again and again removed from one reservation to another, until at last they are found along the western frontier of Missouri and within the limits of Kansas. The broils and difficulties attending their residence on these various reservations, and the suffering of the Indians from want and from other causes, have so diminished their numbers, that of the various powerful and populous tribes which once inhabited the great region east of the Mississippi, there now remain but a few insignificant and feeble remnants along the extreme Western frontier. What has become of the great tribes famous in our history—the Delawares, the Shawnees, the Miamis, the Sacs and Foxes, the Pottawatomies, the Winnebagoes, the Kickapoos, and many others equally populous and powerful? A few feeble, helpless, worn-out fragments alone remain of all these great Indian nations." In dealing with the Indians of the Southern and Southwestern States, however, the Government modified this policy, sending them all to one Territory, west of Arkansas, without making them pass through the intermediate stages which the northern tribes were forced to endure. The contrast between the two, now brought into immediate contact in the Indian Territory, is very striking—the southern tribes being "numerous and strong, and, as far as Indians can be, prosperous and improving; the other, poor, feeble, helpless, and hopeless."

—The "reservation" system is that which is now in full force. The Indian tribes are stretched in a north and south line on the extreme Western frontier of civilization. The whites are continually pressing upon them, quarrelling with and cheating them, and bringing down upon their heads retaliatory outbreaks. Up to the period of the outbreak the Interior Department has had the matter in charge; but soon as an attack occurs the War Department, utterly ignorant of the whole situation, is called in, and the troops sent in a fruitless pursuit of the Indians. The Indians, who are by this time safe and sound on their reservation, send down word that they would now like to make a "treaty," when the War Department troops retire from the scene, and the tribe, under safe-conduct, have a talk with the representatives of the Interior Department and sign a document promising to keep the peace, receive the whiskey, firearms, and ammunition and blankets they want, and then *da capo*. The remedy proposed by General Pope is to remove the Indian, not temporarily to a reservation which furnishes him a convenient base for warlike operations, but permanently, and to remove him, instead of westward, eastward, toward the sources of cheap food and clothing, in the rear of the advancing emigration, in the vicinity of a society well organized and well administered, where he will be protected not plundered, and if punished, punished legally, not in lawless revenge; and where all thought of return to his own country is hopeless. Whatever may be thought of the feasibility of this plan, there can be no doubt that General Pope is right in his strictures on the bungling of Indian management by the Government; and in his explanation of its causes; and in his belief that the treaty system is a delusion and a snare, based on the absurd legal fiction that the Indians are the owners of the soil, in the same sense that civilized communities are sovereign. "I have not undertaken," Gen. Pope says, "to discuss the question of the right of a few nomadic Indians to claim possession of the vast districts of country which they roam over, to check the advance of civilization, or to retain in wildness and unproductiveness, for the scanty subsistence of a few thousand savages, regions which would support many millions of civilized men. However such questions may be decided by abstract reasoning, all history shows that the result will be in some way the dispossession of the savage and the occupation of his lands by civilized man. The only practical question, therefore, for the Government to consider, is the means by which this result may be attained with the greatest humanity, the least injustice, and the largest benefit to the Indian, morally and physically."

—The *Geographical Magazine* for August (John Wiley & Son) is an exceptionally good number, the first three articles—on the Cameron expedition, the Lufiji River and the coral trade, and the voyage of the *Challenger*—being very interesting reading, and Mr. Godfrey Turner's "Impressions of Jamaica" continuing as entertaining and instructive in the second chapter as in the previous one. Capt. Davis's notes on the progress of the *Challenger*, the third of a series, are enlivened by the romantic story of two Germans, brothers, who were rescued by the vessel from one of the islands of the Tristan da Cunha group. Among the proceedings of geographical societies, which are regularly reported in this magazine, those of Hamburg deserve attention on account of the statistics of Italian emigration and colonization furnished in a paper read by Signor Negri, president of the Italian Geographical Society. Diligent and systematic enquiries through the consulates have enabled him to fix the number of Italians settled abroad at 400,000 to 500,000. The yearly migration, from home and from foreign parts, he estimates at 40,000, the main stream setting powerfully to the Plate River, where they do well as sailors, fishermen, and peasants, and in considerable numbers on the boards of theatres. In Buenos Ayres they form one-third of the entire population (84,000); in Peru, they are reckoned at 14,000. In Japan the number has increased, owing to the important trade in silkworms' eggs, which bring in Italy a profit of from eight to twelve million francs per annum. In the South Pacific, Italians do not as yet abound. Coming to the United States, Signor Negri assigns us about 70,000 of his countrymen, or but few less than the Argentine Republic lays claim to. This is, however, a manifest error, and one which ought to have been avoided when the Ninth Census was at hand to inform him that in 1870 our Italian-born population was just rising 17,000. California, he goes on to say, owns about 10,000; but the Census gives only 4,660, and it is unlikely that these have doubled in the interval. For good wild guessing there is nothing like estimates of population by simple "observers," and we remember to have seen the Italians in California and the adjacent States and Territories set down at from 20,000 to 22,000 "undoubtedly." This was by a correspondent of the *Eco d'Italia*, of this city, in 1872.

—Readers of M. Jules Verne's veracious history of Mr. Phileas Fogg's 'Tour Round the World in Eighty Days' will remember that one of the stirring incidents of that remarkable journey was the rescue of an Indian princess from death by fire at the hands of priests in an Eastern forest. Indeed, this was a very important part of the tour, for by his chivalrous act Phileas was delayed so long that had it not been for the fortunate scientific principle that by going round the world the traveller gains twenty-four hours, he would not have been able at the end to appear calm and imperturbable to claim his stakes on his eightieth day in his club in London. Most readers have probably considered this incident as an exaggeration, there being no custom of burning Indian maidens, such as that described, known to or recorded by the travelling public. M. Verne, however, who is no blind pedant in his love of literalness, probably had in mind the rite of *suttee*, and if we permit the reasonable romantic license of a widow being changed into a maiden, and the burning for similar reasons made involuntary, there is no reason why the fiction should not be considered as nearly founded on fact as many another; for it seems, notwithstanding the vigorous efforts of the English to put an end to suttee for half a century, it is still practised in

remote villages. A late Indian paper gives the following account of the rite in its present decadent and obsolescent condition:

"It seems that cases of suttee still occur in remote villages of Central India and Rajpootana. A few months ago the ancient rite was performed by the family of a money-lender in Bikanir. On that occasion the chief culprit was sentenced by the Rajah to ten years' imprisonment, and a fine of 300 rupees was levied on his village. Similar attempts have been made elsewhere to carry out the same barbarous usage, and the strangest thing is that they are frequently made among the lower classes, who in India as elsewhere are prone to imitate the manners and customs of the higher classes. In India, where the metempsychosis was also a cherished belief, they are also spurred by the hope of rising to a higher state of existence after death. The practice in such cases appears to be that, after the funeral pyre has been more or less burnt down, the widow should slip away from her house, perhaps under the pretence of going for the customary purification by bathing after a death in the family, and seat herself on the smouldering heap. If the fire has burnt too low to consume her, it is enough to ignite her clothes and lead to her death, then or afterwards, from the burns inflicted, unless she is discovered and rescued immediately, as sometimes happens. More often, perhaps, some member of the family, on coming up and finding the widow already scorched, will leave her where she is, adding fuel, if necessary, to the fire, in order to complete an act which he may still regard as a religious duty."

— The learned M Henri Gaidoz, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, advocates the reappearance of elephants on the battle-fields of Europe, and especially points to their usefulness in the artillery service, as shown by the successful experiments of the English in India. If drawn by elephants, guns of a much heavier calibre, and consequently of much greater efficacy than those commonly employed, could be used in the field. Thanks to her colonies, France could easily and cheaply procure the animals. The price of an elephant in Cochin-China, according to Ritter, varied from 150 to 200 francs forty years ago, and it is probably not higher to-day. The art of domesticating the elephant has been carried to great perfection in Cochin-China, and there the animals might receive their preliminary training. Once used to the report of cannon, they could be transported to Algeria, where their military education would be finished. Finally, sent to France, they might pass the winter under the genial sun of her southern provinces, and in summer take part in the grand military exercises at the north. Thus, in eighteen months or two years at the longest, they would be fitted for active service. Even from a pecuniary point of view, M. Gaidoz urges the introduction of elephants and their substitution, in some respects at least, for the costlier and weaker horse. Six horses are now required to draw a heavy field-piece, while guns which would throw shot 50 to 100 per cent. heavier than at present practicable could easily be drawn by two elephants. The cost of keeping them would be eight francs per day, while the cost of keeping six horses is 9 to 10 francs. Besides, the elephant is good for eighteen to seventy years of service, while the horse is worn out in ten years. Friends of the horse may still plead, however, that the elephant must for winter campaigns be acclimatized as well as tamed and drilled, and that he offers a much greater mark than the former to the enemy's projectiles. Whether elephants may fairly be employed under the terms of the Geneva convention, and whether, in any case regard should not be had for the feelings of the Prussian General Staff, are questions on which at present we suspend judgment.

HISTORICAL CRITICISM.*

MR. PAGET has no claim to be an historian, but he is a shrewd critic, who deals with isolated questions just as a skilful barrister handles the case of an opponent. 'Puzzles and Paradoxes' consists of a republication of the 'New Examen,' in which Mr. Paget sifted the evidence for several of Lord Macaulay's assertions. It consists also of fugitive pieces which hardly deserve to be published side by side with the pamphlet by which Mr. Paget earned his reputation. When meeting Lord Macaulay he was on his mettle, and did his best—and his best is certainly a good specimen of merely forensic criticism. When he does not fear his opponent, Mr. Paget relaxes his efforts and sinks from an able critic into a clever writer for the magazines. It is by his 'New Examen' that Mr. Paget should be judged. Estimated by the standard of his best work, he must be acknowledged as an enemy whom no historian dare despise. He seizes with readiness the weak points in the case which he attacks. He puts his own argument with force. He "gets up his brief" with care, and, moreover, is obviously influenced by an honest desire to meet the facts of the case. Up to a certain point, he is successful in making good his ground. After a certain point, he almost fails. His success is due to his skill in the legitimate arts of advocacy. His failure arises from his being an advocate and not an historian. The nature and extent both of his success and of his failure illustrate the function and effects of historical criticism.

It is no discredit to Mr. Paget to say that he has not the intellectual grasp of a writer who, whatever his faults, will take rank among English classics. Throughout the controversies between Mr. Paget and Lord Macaulay, you have a sense of witnessing a fight between an athlete and a warrior of twice his strength and size. But the very disparity between Mr. Paget and his opponent sets the former's success in a clear light, and shows that it is due, in great measure, to the strength of his position. Mr. Paget's strength lies in the tenacity with which he clings to the principle that no general knowledge will justify lax statement of particular facts, and that no historian, however eminent his talents, can safely make allegations which go beyond the assertions of his authorities. Take as example of Mr. Paget's mode of fighting (and of his success) the way in which he deals with Macaulay's allegation that Penn took part in the ransom of the "Maids of Taunton." The evidence in this instance lies in a nutshell; and Mr. Paget shows that it is possible, though not we think certain, that the Penn who dirtied his hands by the management of this affair was not the eminent Quaker, but a certain "Mr. Penne," whose hands were already so far from clean that they could scarcely be said to be dirtied by procuring for the Queen's Maids of Honor their ill-gotten money. Mr. Paget again throws considerable doubt on one of the specific charges made by Macaulay against Marlborough. That the great English general let the French Court know of the expedition against Brest is certain. But Macaulay, naturally indignant at this treachery, has certainly gone further than the facts warrant when he confidently asserts that the Duke was guilty "of the foulest of all treasons." His full moral guilt is, in spite of Mr. Page's pleading, still a fearful possibility; but when Macaulay asserts that "Talmash had perished by the basest of all the hundred villanies of Marlborough," he overlooks the fact that the French Court had received information of the intended attack before Marlborough sent his treacherous communication, and that the Duke possibly meant to betray rather James than William, and secure his own position by information which might gain him credit with James without in reality injuring England. This explanation of his conduct is at least possible, and, as long as such an explanation is possible, an historian is bound at least to point out its possibility. Whether, however, the favorable view of Marlborough's disgraceful intrigue is probable as well as possible, is a problem on which no one could pronounce an opinion without a comprehensive study of the life and character of the greatest of English generals and the most wily of English statesmen. It is characteristic of Mr. Paget not to perceive that the judgment formed of Marlborough's conduct in any given instance depends on considerations far wider than the special points with which his apologist deals. Macaulay may be inaccurate, and yet his general judgment of the Duke may be correct. All Mr. Paget says may be true, and yet Marlborough may for all that have been morally the murderer of his countrymen. A traitor does not cease to be a traitor because others have anticipated his treachery. Mr. Paget, even in this case, in which in our judgment he makes out his point, forgets that though an advocate may for practical purposes be content to show that his client is not proved guilty, this is a very different matter from proving that the accused is innocent. An historian is free from the technical rules of the law courts. He must in all cases take general character into consideration, and may think evidence conclusive against Marlborough which would not suffice to convict Wellington or Nelson.

Mr. Paget succeeds in dealing with single points where Lord Macaulay has been led astray either by party bias or by undue reliance on his own marvellous memory, for to defeat the historian on such points all that is needed is the skill of an advocate. But as we have said, Mr. Paget fails when he enters into discussions which require for their management more than the talents of a lawyer. He everywhere shows a tendency characteristic of a barrister, to underestimate the force of cumulative evidence, and attempts again and again to get rid of his rival's case by treating separately facts which derive their importance from being looked at collectively. This is the weak side of his otherwise able defence of Penn. It is, let us grant, probable that Penn had nothing to do with the ransom of the Maids of Taunton. It is possible that he sincerely believed in King James's most suspicious enthusiasm for toleration. His conversations with the Fellows of Magdalen are compatible with the supposition that he did not mean to suggest an ignominious surrender of rights they were bound in duty to uphold. The evidence that he conspired against William is, let it be granted, not conclusive. It is, in short, possible to make out that no one of the definite charges against Penn is so conclusively proved that a jury would, if called upon to try him, necessarily give a verdict of guilty. But if you look at the whole of his career, and not merely at the parts, the matter appears in a different light. A Quaker who is honored at court, an apostle of toleration who is the confidential adviser of one of the most intolerant bigots who ever sat upon a throne, a religious man who becomes the go-between in a discre-

* 'Puzzles and Paradoxes: Historical, Judicial, and Literary. By John Paget, Barrister-at-Law.' London and Edinburgh: Blackwoods.

ditable negotiation, occupies an ambiguous position. Macaulay may have been hasty in treating as proved charges against Penn which may possibly not be provable, but no one who weighs the whole of Penn's career can doubt that Macaulay's judgment of his character may be in the main correct, and that the great Quaker was one of those men in whose character warm philanthropy and strong religiosity were curiously intermingled with the tastes and suppleness of a courtier.

Mr. Paget's attack on William is marked by precisely the same merits and defects as his defence of Penn. It is on the whole the less successful performance of the two, because there is really little difference as to matter of fact between him and Macaulay, and everything in this instance depends on the general view taken of William's character. Both writers stigmatize the Massacre of Glencoe as an act of perfidious inhumanity. Each of them attributes a large share of its guilt to the Master of Stair. The existence and the terms of the letter from William are beyond dispute. Macaulay cannot deny that the order from the king gave in one sense an official sanction to the action of the Scotch officials. Mr. Paget cannot, we think, deny, in spite of the exaggerated emphasis which he lays upon the word "extirpate," that the letter does not of itself prove that William contemplated more than the forcible breaking-up of a band of what he may have supposed, rightly or wrongly, to be a gang of Highland marauders. The king's moral guilt depends first on the answer to the enquiry whether he did or did not know the results which would follow from his order, and, secondly, on the amount of blame due to a ruler who in perilous times does not punish rigorously enough the offences of zealous supporters. In his judgment on both points, the historian has the advantage of the advocate. The so-called "extirpation order" is exactly such a letter as must be interpreted by the character of the writer. If such a document were found among Lord Canning's papers, dated at the time when he was struggling to check the fury of the Anglo-Indians, no one would dream for a moment of thinking it inconsistent with his known humanity. Such an order signed by the First Napoleon would be naturally interpreted as the signal for a ruthless massacre. William was no humanitarian, but there is nothing in his character which justifies us in interpreting his ambiguous expressions as the instigation to one of the foulest crimes on record. The comparative immunity from punishment enjoyed by the guilty subordinates must always tell against the king, but it does not prove him a monster. Parliaments often cover by acts of indemnity deeds which no man of principle could dream of ordering. William acted in respect of the massacre neither much better nor much worse than an ordinary statesman would have acted in his place. His conduct in this matter detracts from his fame, but it does not support Mr. Paget's indictment for treachery and murder.

The truth is that on comparing the opposite judgments which honest enquirers have formed of William and Penn, we are forced to make a reflection which never seems to occur to Mr. Paget or to writers of his class. This reflection is that the different judgment formed by different minds about past events does not in many cases arise from what is called the uncertainty of history, but is due to the different estimate which, owing to the existence of varying moral standards, different men form of exactly the same transactions and characters. In other words, the difference arises, not from dispute as to facts, but from difference of moral principles. If Penn were alive, he would be held a saint by one class of men, and perhaps be thought little better than a humbug by another. William's policy would now excite the same admiration and the same invectives which it excited nearly two centuries ago. It may, perhaps, be objected that in the case of living no less than of dead statesmen, there does exist great uncertainty about the facts of their career. To avoid this objection, look at the judgments formed about such a man as Cicero. More is known of his life and character than of any other great man of antiquity. All that is known of him, and all that ever can be known of him, is open and has long been open to the examination of the whole world. Yet, now that more than eighteen centuries have passed since his death, he seems to one class of writers almost the model of an orator, a patriot, and a statesman, while, in the eyes of others, even the crimes of Catiline apparently receive some justification from that ruffian's hypothetical indignation at the success of an advocate who could excel in nothing but in his power of weaving splendid sentences. The disputes which rage about Cicero will continue as long as the world remembers the great Roman orator, or as men judge characters by different moral standards. Toward the solution of problems the perplexity of which arises from the variety of men's ethical judgments, Mr. Paget's lawyerlike acuteness can contribute nothing. But a clever cross-examiner performs important duties in the court of history no less than in the courts of law. His sharp and even captious criticism is needed to correct the errors of men gifted like Macaulay with the talents, the learning, and the imagination of an historian. The objections of Mr. Paget and of men like him are the sure test by which a great writer's assertions are tried. Criticism wears away what is untrue and unsound. The truth at last remains, and history at length pronounces something like a sound and definitive verdict on the facts of the past.

FARRAR'S 'LIFE OF CHRIST.'*

IT is necessary, in estimating the value of this large book, to bear in mind the especial purpose for which Dr. Farrar tells us it was written. After Strauss and Renan, this 'Life of Christ' is so violent a contrast as to be in some measure a disappointment. Nobody doubts Dr. Farrar's learning, of which there is the amplest evidence in these volumes themselves, and yet they seem written in boldest defiance of all good models. Their style is not simply popular, it is "sensational." To each chapter is prefixed some anticipatory quotation, as in Scott's novels—sometimes from a Greek or Latin father, again from Shakspere, or from the Bible, or from a modern poet. The picturesqueness of the narrative is increased by traditional touches derived from authorities which in the notes are repudiated. Indeed, it is scarcely too much to say that these volumes are a conspicuous example of that "mythopoic" fancy and that pardonable curiosity out of which the Apocryphal Gospels themselves arose.

But all this, and more, is accounted for by the special purpose for which Dr. Farrar wrote this book—it was written for the spiritual edification of Christian believers, and of these not for the few but the many. It is devotional, not critical; it is even picturesque rather than historical. Written at the request of his English publishers—whose aim, we are told, has long been "to spread as widely as possible the blessings of knowledge"—it is, perhaps judiciously, composed after the manner of sermons, with endless repetitions, copious verbiage, and perpetual antithesis. It is full of personal appeals and incitements to worship and utterances of passionate admiration. The "word-painting," being intended for almost scenic effect, is really scene-painting in words, and the effect is very startling to quiet students. When a note refers us from the splendors of the text to the scholarly repose of an Excursus, the relief is really astonishing.

Compare, as an example of scene-painting, the following passage with the simple words of the Evangelist—"He cried with a loud voice, Lazarus, come forth! And he that was dead came forth, bound hand and foot with grave-clothes, and his face was bound about with a napkin. Jesus saith unto them, Loose him, and let him go." This simplicity of artlessness reminds us of the simplicity of art with which Dr. Farrar is so familiar in his Greek and Roman classics. It must have been with a very painful effort that he translated the words of St. John into the sensational dialect of the nineteenth century:

"He stood at the entrance, and all others shrank a little backward, with their eyes still fixed on that dark and silent cave. A hush fell upon them all as Jesus raised his eyes and thanked God for the timely confirmation of his prayer. And then, raising to its clearest tones that voice of awful and sonorous authority, and uttering, as was usual with him on such occasions, the briefest word, he cried: 'Lazarus, come forth!' Those words thrilled once more through that region of impenetrable darkness which separates us from the world to come; and scarcely were they spoken when, like a spectre, from the rocky tomb issued a figure—swathed indeed in its white and ghastly cerements, with the napkin round the head which had upheld the jaw that four days previously had dropped in death, bound hand and foot and face, but not livid, not horrible—the figure of a youth with the healthy blood of a restored life flowing through its veins; of a life restored—so tradition tells us—for thirty more long years to life and light and love" (i. 170-171).

When the mere bulk of the Gospel narrative is increased more than fourfold, the space must somehow be filled up; and the passage quoted above reminds us that it is too often filled with untrustworthy tradition. The evidence that Lazarus lived for thirty years after his resurrection is utterly worthless—worthless historically, and more worthless still spiritually. But the necessity to be picturesque constantly misleads Dr. Farrar into a quasi-acceptance and actual use of legends and traditions for which, as he himself constantly admits, there is not a vestige of proof. This almost amounts to literary dishonesty. We may take an example from the beginning and from the end of the 'Life of Christ.'

"In the rude *limestone grotto* attached to it [the inn] as a stable . . . Christ was born" (i. 11). "How long the Virgin Mother and her holy Child stayed in *this cave* or cattle enclosure we cannot tell" (i. 15). Now, where does Dr. Farrar find "*the cave*" at all? Not in the Canonical Gospels. But his visit to the Holy Land has clearly intensified the natural desire to identify the sacred places; and the cave now covered by the Church of the Nativity at Bethlehem has almost served, in his judgment or feeling, as a real and actual verification of an utterly untrustworthy tradition.

* 'The Life of Christ. By Frederic W. Farrar, D.D., F.R.S., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; Master of Marlborough College; and Chaplain in Ordinary to the Queen.' In two volumes. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1874.

He refers to Justin Martyr as a kind of authority for that tradition; but Justin Martyr says not only that Christ was born in a cave, but that he was not strictly born in Bethlehem at all. "When the child was born in Bethlehem," he says, "since Joseph could not find a lodging *in that village*, he took up his quarters in a certain cave *near* the village" ("Dialogue with Trypho," sec. lxxviii.). In fact, so far as Justin Martyr is concerned, his acceptance of this legend clearly results from his curious explanation of Isaiah xxxiii. 16 (lxx.), as may be seen by comparing sections lxx. and lxxviii. of the "Dial. c. Tryph."; and the legend itself is taken from the Apocryphal Gospel of James, belonging probably to the middle of the second century (see Gospel of James, chap. xviii.)

The other example is from Dr. Farrar's account of Christ's trial before Pilate. "His own wife—Claudia Procula—ventured to send him a public message, even as he sat there on his tribunal, that, *in the morning hours, when dreams are true*, she had had a troubled and painful dream about that Just Man" (ii. 375). The words in italic are a translation of σήμερον. Dr. Farrar adds, in a note, "Her name is given in the Gospel of Nicodemus, which says she was a proselyte." But of what possible authority is the Gospel of Nicodemus? Will Dr. Farrar accept the preposterous rubbish which purports to be a narrative of Christ's descent to the under-world on the same authority? It was certainly not necessary for him to write a critical 'Life of Christ'; but surely the inevitable difficulties of the four Evangelists are quite sufficient, without those of the Protevangelium and the Gospel of Nicodemus.

Much liveliness is imparted to Dr. Farrar's narrative by illustrations from the Talmud, from which lively illustrations it may be well to take refuge occasionally in the quiet scholarship of Excursus xii.: "Anything more utterly unhistorical than the Talmud cannot be conceived. It is probable that no human writings ever confounded names, dates, and facts with a more absolute indifference. The genius of the Jews is the reverse of what in these days we should call historical" (ii. 485–491).

Die altdeutsche Reichs- und Gerichtsverfassung. I. Band. Die fränkische Reichs und Gerichtsverfassung. Von Rudolph Sohm, ord. Professor an der Universität Freiburg i. Br. (Weimar: Böhlau; New York: B. Westermann & Co.)—Although the first volume of Professor Sohm's work appeared in 1871, it is not too late to call attention to its value, more especially since the second volume will soon appear, and can hardly be appreciated without some preliminary examination of the first, and some idea of the results already established by it. If any further apology is needed, it is enough to say that works such as this are apt to remain new for a great many years. Dr. Sohm, who is now professor of law at the University of Strassburg, was already known within the narrower circle of Continental students for various essays published in periodicals, as well as for a small work on the 'Process der Lex Salica,' which has a great interest and value in connection with the early history of Germanic institutions. In these preliminary studies he laid the foundations of the great work now in course of publication, in which he proposes to explain the political constitution and judicial organization of all the Germanic races, excepting only the Norse. He begins with the Franks, and this part of the subject occupies his first volume, although occasionally the reader will find in this volume, in connection with some particular Frankish institution, suggestions of the author's theories in regard to the corresponding institution in other Germanic tribes.

The great national publication known as the 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica' of Pertz, in its volumes containing the 'Leges,' and the private but scientific editions of the 'Leges Barbarorum,' supplemented by the labors of Pardessus, Merkel, Richthofen, etc., have at length given the historian a solid foundation by supplying him with texts established according to the strict laws of sound criticism. Within the last twenty years, Germany has produced in this field of Germanic constitutional law not only innumerable learned monographs, but several works of the first class, such as those of Maurer, Bethmann-Hollweg, Gierke, and especially of Waitz and Roth. Prof. Sohm takes as his starting-point the four books of the two last-named authors: the 'Verfassungsgeschichte' and the 'Vassilität' of Waitz, and the 'Beneficialwesen' and the 'Feudalität' of Roth—works which are indispensable to every student of Germanic institutions; but while taking them as his starting-point, Sohm differs from their conclusions in some very important respects.

It is well known that the ancient Germans had three different kinds of public assembly for performing the necessary public business, whether religious, political, or judicial. They are known as the assembly of the confederation, of the tribe (the *concilium* of Tacitus), and of the hundred. It is agreed that these were of unequal importance so far as the number of members in each was concerned, but it has been believed that all were equally competent to deal with all those interests, religious, political, and judicial, which constitute the public duties of every people so far back as we can penetrate into history. And from this the conclusion was drawn that the ancient Germans, too ignorant to distinguish these public interests according to their nature, had no idea of the difference which exists between public and private law any more than they had of the division of powers into religious, political, legislative, and judicial; in short, that notwithstanding the admitted existence of three separate assemblies, the Germanic constitution offered a striking example of unity and simplicity. Prof. Sohm shows in the introduction and first part of his book that the assembly of the confederation united by a religious tie all the peoples or tribes which retained the tradition of a common origin. These tribes had the same sanctuaries. Their assemblies were for the satisfaction of religious duties. The tribal assembly, the *concilium* of Tacitus, united in one single permanent association the freemen who had the same political interests, and its political jurisdiction excluded that of any other assembly. This is the *civitas* of the Germans, their political organ. And finally, in the assembly of the hundred were regulated all judicial relations, under the presidency of a magistrate elected in the *concilium* or political assembly. The hundred court was therefore the peculiar and exclusive law-court of the ancient Germans. In the mechanism of this constitution the king performed no very important work. Where the king existed at all, he was merely a man, noble by birth, whom the people elected in their tribal assembly to appear as their representative. The king's functions before the epoch of invasion were functions of honor.

The author's demonstration of these theses is very well done, and seems to us convincing. He then proceeds to the foundation of the Germanic kingdoms on Roman soil, and shows what became of the ancient assemblies. The religious assembly disappeared. The *civitas* was replaced by the warlike association of tribes which had united for purposes of conquest. These confederations were the nucleus of the various German kingdoms, Frankish, Burgundian, Lombard, and the rest. As for the assembly of the hundred, with its judicial functions, it survived through all historical vicissitudes. This is an original idea of Prof. Sohm's, and he verifies it by numerous citations. This historical phenomenon is studied with peculiar care, and the author concludes by saying that the judicial organization of the hundred which existed in the epoch of Tacitus, "survived the storms of the folk-wanderings, the kingdom of Clovis, the reforms of Charlemagne, the dissolution of his empire, the dissolution of the shire constitution, the dissolution of the public authority by feudalism, and only succumbed to a more powerful enemy, the awakening German science of law in the sixteenth century."

The study of the Germanic constitution, as exhibited in the Lex Salica, forms the transition between the epoch of Tacitus and that of the Merovingians and Carlovingians. In some respects, the Lex Salica belongs to the earlier, in some to the later period. It is in this part of his book that Prof. Sohm has made most use of the results gained in his earlier investigations. The contrast between the old state of things and the new appears principally in the union of the rights of sovereignty in the hands of the Frankish king, and in the influence of the king on the political and judicial organism through the intermediate agency of the counts or grafs, "those first modern functionaries." The extent of his functions, and the relation of the count to the king, are examined in detail in the second part of the book.

This volume, the first of a series which, if it keeps its promise, will be one of the most admirable works that have ever appeared on the history of institutions, contains also several studies on minor points which the author has put in the Appendix I. The Appendix II. makes use of the last results obtained by philologists, especially by Kern ('Die Glossen in der Lex Salica,' etc. Haag. 1869), in explanation of the German words found in the 'Lex Salica,' to establish the relation between the so-called Malberg gloss and the *legis actio* of the oldest Roman procedure. This is not the least interesting of these monographs, which have all been recently translated by M. Marcel Thévenin, and added as appendix to his translation of Sohm's 'Process der Lex Salica,' lately published in Paris. If a fault must be found with Professor Sohm, we are tempted to say that he makes too much parade of erudition and really abuses the right of citation. His knowledge of texts is very deep and has no need of proof. The number of notices, references, etc., fatigues the reader, and, what is of more consequence, incessantly breaks the thread which connects the different parts of his argument. This is, however, a slight fault. The book is all the same a great work, one of the best and most scientific within our knowledge.

History of the Descendants of John Dwight, of Dedham, Mass. By Benj. W. Dwight. Two vols. in one, pp. xxx.–1,144. (New York: Printed for the Author. 1874.)—Everybody has heard the story of De Tocqueville's amazement on learning that the little yellow spot on the map called Connecticut was the parent hive of so many Congressmen, representing all parts

of the United States. Something of the same feeling is excited in one who runs through the index to this bulky volume, and endeavors to imagine a surname which is not recorded as having some connection, near or remote, with John Dwight, of Dedham, Mass. And if he turns to the author's "General Summary of Results" he will still experience a lively surprise on learning that "one-sixtieth of all the liberally-educated people of the land [graduates of American colleges] have been connected by blood or by marriage with the history of two of its families [Dwight and Strong], and one of them [Dwight] of very moderate dimensions." Of this sixtieth, "more than 350 have been graduates of Yale, or about a twenty-fifth of all its alumni." We need not push our enquiries further as to the quality of the stock of which such an exhibit can be made. A glance at the early generations of Dwights, in one line, is enough to show that we are dealing with a remarkable family, and one possessing the best characteristics of New England Puritanism. We pass over John Dwight, the emigrant, who "is described in the Town Records of Dedham as 'having been publicly useful,' and 'a great peace-maker,'" with the remark that his easy circumstances ("he was the second man of wealth in Dedham") doubtless had much to do with the position and culture of his immediate descendants. His son, Capt. Timothy, had the civic virtues of his father, held many offices of trust, fought against the Indians, and found time, in a brief career of eighty-eight years, to marry six wives. Next comes Justice Nathaniel Dwight, of Hatfield and Northampton, whose removal to the Connecticut Valley gave a new and important turn to the family development, and who fully maintained the inheritance of his father and grandfather. His first-born, Col. Timothy Dwight, was a lawyer and judge, who acquired his military title in the old French war, when the building of Fort Dummer was entrusted to him. He was of medium size, but very strong, and the author tells of him the incredible story (though vouched for by report from President Dwight) that he once "threw a stone not only across the Connecticut at Northampton, which was some forty rods from the point where he stood, but thirty rods more beyond, or 1,165 feet in all." This physical vigor he transmitted to his son, Major Timothy Dwight, who was born at Fort Dummer, and so took naturally to soldiering. He was truly a giant, standing six feet and four inches high, and was capable on occasion of stopping an ox-team in full motion by holding back the wheels. He was a judge of probate for sixteen years, and also held other offices. Of him it is related that having been entrusted with a certain number of Princeton College lottery tickets to sell, on condition of paying for those not sold or not returned and accounted for, he set aside one as his own venture, and neglected to return the remaining nineteen; and when one of these proved to have drawn the highest prize, and that for £4,000, he refused to avail himself of his privilege of buying in the nineteen, and cheerfully paid the price of his chosen blank. He married Mary, the daughter of the famous Jonathan Edwards, by whom he had thirteen children; the eldest, another Timothy, better known as President Dwight, of Yale, of whom it is stated on p. 165—we do not know with how much probability—that "his name is used, it is believed, more abundantly in New England, and the Northern States generally, as a baptismal name, than any other name in the land, beside George Washington's; and it is not certain that that should be excepted." The author of 'Travels in New England' is too familiar a character to need that we should dwell upon him here.

Among the well-known men of Dwight parentage or connection by marriage of the present day we may mention President Theo. D. Woolsey, Prof. Jas. D. Dana, Dr. Leonard Bacon, Prof. W. D. Whitney, Hon. Geo. Bancroft, Geo. S. Hillard, Prof. F. J. Child, Chas. Eliot Norton, David A. Wells, Judge Geo. Hoadley, James T. Gardner, etc., etc. The college-graduates from first to last represent twenty-seven different institutions: Yale counts 144, Harvard 71, Dartmouth 33, Williams 26, all others less than twenty—West Point 6. "The great area of family-expansion lay wonderfully, for nearly two centuries, along the line of the Connecticut River, within the range of a dozen miles on either side of it. At Springfield it had a large mercantile development; at Belchertown, an agricultural one; and at New Haven, Conn., one scholarly and professional." In the last-named class of families marriages have generally been late, and births not frequent. "The mortality that marked the larger families of Dwights in earlier times is certainly quite observable. It is believed that the history of other families in the land was of a similar type. If so, the statement is not worthy of acceptance that, inasmuch as our fathers were hardier than we, so their families were healthier and longer lived than those brought up amid modern refinements."

We could give, if we should try, but a faint idea of the amount of labor involved in the preparation of this book, which is the more extraordinary as it is the second one of the kind successfully carried through by the author on a grand scale. Genealogies belong at best in the class of *travaux longs et durs*, and the burden is immensely increased when the attempt is made, as here, to follow up the female lines as well as the male. Our author seems hardly warranted in his censure of those genealogists who have attended to the male lines solely. This justification is to be found in the fact that life is short, and that the field of research must somewhere be marked out with reference to human endurance and to perspicuity. Nobody will regret that Mr. Dwight has gathered so much as he has done between two covers, but he, too, has had to fix limits for himself, and he has not avoided an obscurity of arrangement which contrasts unfavorably with similar works that we could name. A few other trifling criticisms might be made if we were not aware that no amount of praise that he is likely to get for his disinterested endeavors, and no pecuniary return, could compensate the author for the drudgery of this compilation. Those only who have dabbled in the same fascinating pursuit can appreciate the physical cost of so vast an undertaking, or enter into the spirit which prompted him to commence it and sustained him to the end.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 24, 1874.

MONEY continues to rule easy at 2 to 3 per cent. on call, with the bulk of business doing at 2½ per cent. Commercial paper is in excellent demand at 5 and 6 per cent. for that having a short time to run, and at 6 to 7 per cent. for 3 and 4 months paper.

The Bank of England minimum discount rate was reduced on Thursday at the weekly meeting of the directors from 4 to 3½ per cent. The Bank gained £683,000 in bullion during the week.

The statement of the Clearing-House banks of this city for the week ending August 22 was unfavorable, showing a further reduction of $2,720,950 in the net surplus reserve—the banks now holding $26,730,275 in specie and legal-tenders over and above the amount required to be held by law against their liabilities; the surplus the previous week was $29,451,225.

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 15.	August 22.		Differences.
Specie	$22,352,000	$19,554,900	Dec..	$2,797,100
Legal tenders	66,578,100	65,891,400	Dec..	686,700
Total reserve	$88,930,100	$85,446,300	Dec..	$3,483,800
Reserve required against deposits	59,478,875	58,716,025		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	29,451,225	26,730,275	Dec..	2,720,950

During the past week stocks have advanced from one to three per cent. on the speculative share list. The most active dealings have taken place in Lake Shore, Western Union, Union Pacific, and Pacific Mail.

Milwaukee and St. Paul and the Northwestern stocks have remained steady, not sharing to any great extent in the rise which took place in the general list, owing to the pending litigation between them and the State of Wisconsin, which still remains undecided.

The investment stocks are all strong, although the demand for them has been limited. Delaware, Lackawanna and Western advanced to 103, at which figure a few hundred shares only changed hands. A semi-annual dividend of 5 per cent. has been declared upon the stocks of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, and the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad Companies, payable on the 15th of September; these two roads being both under the same management by the perpetual lease of the Burlington and Missouri by the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy.

In the Government bond market a moderate amount of business has been doing, the principal demand running on the old 10-40's for home account. Prices at the close of the week were a fraction higher as compared with those of the previous Saturday. The market closed this evening at the following quotations:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118⅜	118⅝	Registered 5-20, 1867, c	117⅝	117⅞
Registered 5-20, 1862, c	112¾	112¾	Registered 5-20, 1868, c	117¾	118
Registered 5-20, 1864, c	116	116¼	Registered 10-40's, c	114⅜	114¾
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N.	117⅛	117⅜	Registered 5's of 1881	112⅜	112⅝
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J	116⅛	116¾	U. S. Currency 6's	117⅜	117¾

The gold market has remained quiet and steady, the price fluctuating between 109½ and 110. The dulness which exists at present in the Gold-room is best shown by the statement of the Gold Exchange Bank of the amount of clearings for the past week, which, in round figures, was $92,500,000, against $128,500,000 for the corresponding week of last year. The shipments of specie during the week amount to $693,229. On Thursday the Treasury sold only $1,250,000, on account of the low prices of many of the bids. The total amount bid for was $4,733,000.

The following shows the range of gold quotations for the week ending August 22:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Aug. 17	109⅜	109⅝	109⅜	109⅝
Tuesday, Aug. 18	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝
Wednesday, Aug. 19	109⅝	109⅞	109⅝	109¾
Thursday, Aug. 20	109⅞	109⅞	109⅝	109⅞
Friday, Aug. 21	109⅞	110	109⅞	109⅞
Saturday, Aug. 22	109⅞	110	109⅝	110

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 3, 1874.

The Week.

THE Tennessee whites have given renewed illustration, during the past week, of their determination to prevent the insolent black man from attempting to maintain his impudent assertion of equality —the means taken being the hanging of a few helpless, utterly defenceless negro prisoners by a large mob of armed men. The negroes, to the number of sixteen, who were confined in the Trenton jail on a charge of kidnapping, were taken out by this mob about two o'clock on the morning of the 26th ult., the jailer having been frightened into letting them into the prison. Firing was afterwards heard, and four negroes were found to have been shot dead and two wounded, ten remaining unaccounted for, whose bodies are said to have been afterwards found in the river-bottom. The pretext for this wholesale murder was the usual story, circulated in the neighborhood, that the blacks were on the point of rising; that "400 or 500 armed negroes were marching into town to burn the buildings and kill the people"; that a hundred negroes had been seen, "a portion armed, cleaning up everything"; that the negroes were "standing around groups of white men trying to ascertain what they were talking about"; and that the negroes were "organized over the entire country." On the circulation of these reports there was the usual excitement among the whites, who assembled from all quarters, to the number of 1,000 men, ready to sell their lives dearly; but, strange to say, the opposing negro army could not be discovered anywhere, "fourteen negroes, a portion armed," being the only trace of an African rising to be found in the country. The discovery of this foe produced no effect on the courage of the white troops, and all of the fourteen who had weapons were disarmed, only one resisting, who "came very near being shot." A great meeting was then held, and speeches were made deprecating any ill-feeling between the races and the murder of them by masked men.

It is only fair to say that the respectable people of Tennessee are as much disgusted and horrified at such outrages as this as respectable people are in any part of the country. The Memphis *Appeal*, a strong Democratic paper, says that the lynching was as unnecessary as it was barbarous, and makes the sensible observation that as the whites in Tennessee are a thousand to one in moral and physical force to the negro, and also in possession of the State and of all the machinery of government, there seems no particular reason why the present moment should be selected for subverting and defying the laws. The Governor of the State has determined, it is said, to make an example of the outlaws who did the lynching; and we can assure him that he could not do a better thing either for his party, or for the State, or for the country at large. Southerners are now making great efforts to build up the industries of their section, and what they need more than anything else is a supply of cheap labor, which they can expect to attract only by a quiet and orderly state of society. They succeed, however, about this time of year, by the help of their correlative and opposing Northern agitators—who, like Frederick Douglass, want to have an extra session of Congress called to deal with the local disturbances arising from the savage and half-civilized character of the population—in giving a picture of the country which will encourage few people to help them revive anything there. Fights like that between Jones and Bowley in South Carolina lead one-half of the North to say for themselves, There is no help for it, the South is becoming another Africa; and lynching like this in Tennessee leads the other half to the conclusion that nothing short of exterminating every one who has a shade of color in his skin will satisfy the whites.

Conventions were held last week in Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Kansas, and other States. The platforms are of little interest except as they touch upon the currency and kindred questions. In Pennsylvania, the Democrats are in favor of bringing the legal-tenders to par with gold, and returning to specie payments "at the earliest possible period that resumption can be effected with safety." The Illinois Liberals and Democrats declare themselves in favor of a revenue tariff; the restoration of gold and silver "as the basis of the currency"; and of resumption at the same time laid down by the Pennsylvania Democrats; and that they are opposed to inflation and in favor of paying the national debt in the money of civilized countries. The Ohio Democrats, on the other hand, resolved "that a sound currency is indispensable to the welfare of the country"; that "its volume should be regulated by the necessities of business"; that "all laws that interfere with such natural regulations are vicious in principle and detrimental in their effects"; and announce themselves "in favor of such an increase of the circulating medium as the business interests of the country may from time to time require." They are also of opinion that one-half the customs duties should be payable in greenbacks; that the national banks should all be abolished as soon as possible, and legal-tenders substituted for the notes; that the 5-20's ought to be paid in greenbacks; and that the act of 1869, pledging payment in gold, was a "wicked sacrifice" of the interests of taxpayers. The Missouri Democrats announce the same opinion with regard to the 5-20's; favor the abolition of the national banking law, and the substitution of legal-tenders for the notes, but are plainer-spoken with regard to the intention of this scheme than their Ohio brethren, for they say that by this means $24,000,000 annual interest will be saved to the people; they are opposed to a paper currency, and think that the way to get back to specie payments is by making legal-tenders receivable for duties on imports. The Missouri, Indiana, and Ohio Democrats stand upon the same ground, and their resolutions show that they have learned nothing from their struggles and misfortunes during the past fifteen years. The resolutions in the other States are not of much importance, and, taking them together, they cannot be said to foreshadow anything very distinct, though, as between the two parties, the Democrats make, all things considered, the worse appearance.

The Louisiana Conservatives, forming a combination of all the parties opposed to Kellogg, have held their convention, made a nomination for state treasurer, and adopted resolutions declaring the existing government a fraudulent despotism; denouncing the Radicals for inflaming the passions of the negroes against the whites, and declaring the necessity forced upon the white people of acting together "in self-defence, and for the preservation of white civilization"; that "the rights of all men under the Constitution and the laws of the land must be respected and preserved inviolate, irrespective of race, color, or previous condition." They deny that Congress has any power to pass measures making social equality between the races compulsory; disclaim any intention of violence toward the negroes; and declare that they expect the assistance of a large colored vote. They promise payment of the just, and repudiation of the dishonest and fraudulent, debts of the State, and assure their friends that all they mean to do is to secure reform by putting honest and capable white men in office. The election in Louisiana will be of a good deal of importance, as the whites and blacks are very evenly matched,and it seems quite likely that, with a fair election, a good many blacks might appear on the Conservative side. The latest news from Louisiana is of the murder of several white Republicans, near Coushatta, in cold blood.

In the Essex District in Massachusetts, General Cogswell, mayor of Salem, announces his willingness to run against Butler

for the Congressional nomination. His platform is that the Republican party must take an honest and pronounced stand on the currency question, that specie payments must be resumed as soon as possible, and that, while not insisting on any particular plan, he would oppose all postponement of a settlement of the means to be used, as he would also any inflation. He would reform the present condition of the civil service and the abuses of patronage, and on the railroad question he actually says, in so many words, that he does not believe in the recent Western legislation, but thinks it ought to be revoked, "for it is unjust to those who have in good faith invested their money in railroad enterprise." What General Butler will do in this district does not yet seem to be settled; but, whatever he does, we sincerely trust that General Cogswell's nomination may be secured.

Mr. Hugh McCulloch has written a letter on the financial question to a number of prominent citizens of Cincinnati. He recognizes the supreme importance of the adoption of a settled policy, and suggests as a practical plan of resumption, first, that Congress should fix a period, say the 1st of December, 1876—or any other date not far off—after which United States notes should cease to be a legal-tender; second, that the Secretary of the Treasury should be authorized to retire (by the use of the surplus revenue, and, if this should be insufficient, by the sale of bonds) at least $50,000,000 of United States notes per annum, until all have been retired, and be prohibited from reissuing the notes thus retired, under any pretext or circumstances whatever; third, that in lieu of the United States notes retired, an equal amount of bank-notes, if they should be required, should be issued to national banks; fourth, that when the specie standard has been re-established by the repeal of the legal-tender acts, banking should be made free, and Congress should cease to interfere with the currency except so far as may be necessary to prevent illegal issues and to provide that the money in circulation by authority of law shall be secured beyond contingency, as is now the case, by a deposit of United States bonds in the Treasury. Mr. McCulloch, it is hardly necessary to say, is sound on the subject of repudiation.

The renomination of General Dix having apparently been decided upon by the New York Republicans, an effort is making to damage his reputation by showing that he was "mixed up" in the Crédit-Mobilier swindle. The facts about the connection of General Dix with the Crédit Mobilier seem to be these: He was at one time president of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, which was certainly a misfortune, as things turned out, for anybody, but is not, so far as we understand it, yet recognized even by the strictest moralists as in itself a crime. When he left the presidency, being then Minister to France, he had an unsettled account with the Company, his salary being in arrears; and, the settlement of the matter being left in the hands of his friends, the Company liquidated their debt to him by the payment of $50,000. While in office, he as president approved of the extension of the Hoxie contract, under which the road, or part of it, after the contract had been assigned to the Crédit Mobilier Company, was actually built. He never derived any benefit from the contract, nor owned any Crédit-Mobilier stock. The way in which these facts have been presented to the public is this: That Dix blackmailed the Company and got $50,000 by writing a threatening letter, and that he afterwards refused to appear before the Investigating Committee—a charge which has not a shadow of foundation, inasmuch as some communications of his recently published show that he was ready, and even more than ready, to go before the committee, but they did not order him to appear.

The Crédit-Mobilier scandal seems now to have reached that stage in which the facts have been pretty much all forgotten, but the association of anybody's name with the investigation throws a haze over his reputation—any discrimination between innocence and guilt being at this distance of time inconvenient and tiresome. It may, therefore, not be out of place here to say that the people who were really found guilty of heinous offences were those Congressmen who, being in a position of trust and profit with regard to the Pacific roads (*i.e.*, being members of a body from which the road really got all its aid), took an interest in a contract made by and among the directors, and involving the interest of the Government, without any proper enquiries as to its nature, and with every reason to believe, as the event showed, that they were getting an opportunity to make money out of the Government of which they were a part, solely by reason and in consideration of their position. As to General Dix, the Republicans, if they want to keep the control of the State in their hands, cannot do a better thing than make the nomination of him. Of all the politicians brought to the surface by the Reform movement, he is almost the only one who has managed to strengthen instead of impairing his good fame while in office, and he is almost the only man who, in this city, would call out what we might call the respectable and disgusted vote.

The committee of Plymouth Church has made its report on the Beecher-Tilton case, acquitting Mr. Beecher on all points. The verdict is a proper one on the evidence submitted. No tribunal could have reached any other conclusion. But the report itself makes no pretence to be judicial in tone. On the contrary, it says exactly what we might have expected certain friends of Mr. Beecher to say who had been asked by him to look into certain charges made against him by a man they despised, and who had done their work with the strongest presumptions in their pastor's favor. There is nothing surprising about this. It is what the public must have been prepared for. We are bound to say that we think they present a fair history of the case, but the summing up is that of counsel, not of a judge. The report was read to a crowded and excited meeting of the church on Friday evening, at which, after a review of some points of the case by Professor Rossiter W. Raymond, the conclusions were adopted by a unanimous vote, Moulton, the Mutual Friend, who was present, alone saying nay. He interrupted Professor Raymond by giving him the lie, and on leaving the church at the close came near being mobbed. He is, as might be expected, very angry, and is preparing another "statement," in which he promises to finish Beecher. Tilton is preparing one too, and what with these and the lawsuits the case promises to drag on until Christmas. It is of course Tilton's interest to keep it alive as long as possible, as its close will leave him in degraded obscurity, and Moulton is now so furious that he will keep on throwing mud at Beecher as long as any of it can be made to stick, but we hope the respectable papers will not give the pair any further facilities for keeping themselves before the public. Moulton's own account of his doings puts him beneath decent people's notice. We trust, too, that in any legal proceedings taken Mr. Henry C. Bowen will be somehow put into the hands of a skilful cross-examiner. The escape of this worthy thus far is one of the most discreditable features in the investigation. The temporary suspension of the business of "bringing souls to Christ," in which he says he is engaged, would be a cheap price to pay for having him turned inside out by a remorseless and practised hand in open court.

The discussion of the emigration question still continues, both in the English and in our papers. The "Bohemian" whose letters on the subject we lately noticed, and who drew such a doleful picture of his adventures in America, has been replied to from all sides, and so many of his statements have been shown to be utterly wild that his evidence must be considered worthless. The "Society of the Sons of St. George," however, at Philadelphia, have published a much-needed "caution to emigrants," in which they say that for the three months ending with the 23d of July, out of 450 applications to the Society for relief, "a large proportion have asked to be assisted to return to England, and through the kindness of two of the steamship companies the Society has been enabled to aid many to return who had nothing but want and suffering before them here."

They also say that this "applies more particularly to the great mass coming from your [English] manufacturing centres"; that the panic of last year, having paralyzed the manufacturing industry of the country, such men as these could not get any work. Farm-labor is out of the question for them, the "average English artisan" being "as helpless on American soil as he would be on an English farm." The Society declare that they are far from wishing to do anything to discourage "legitimate emigration"; indeed, they say "there is ample room for the whole of your population if they desired to come, and the country could have no better material; but 'there is a time for all things,' and the time to emigrate to America is not when all her industries are temporarily crippled by a panic so disastrous as that which began with the failure of Jay Cooke." The Society also warn intending emigrants of lying placards posted throughout England, announcing that 10,000 men are wanted to work on the Centennial building at Philadelphia at $5 a week, the whole thing being an absolute invention. At this port the arrivals have diminished by about fifty per cent. since the panic, and very naturally.

We are very sorry to have to add even one to the list of demagogues and mountebank agitators of the labor question here and in England; but it seems that Mr. Joseph Arch is, if not to be classed with the Odgers and Bradlaughs, very much more near them in feeling than he ought to be. Mr. Arch has been one of the leading promoters of the recent farm-laborers' lockout in England which has just come to such an unfortunate termination for the men, and the result, to say the least, shows that he induced them to embark in a very ruinous enterprise, in which the strength of the respective forces was much miscalculated. This might have been an error of judgment; but the leading agitators went far beyond advising the men to hold out against their employers. They assured them that the lock-out was only the beginning of a great revolution, which would end in the land being taken away from the owners and divided among the laborers, and these tales the simple-minded people listened to with great readiness. It seems hardly credible, but since the termination of the lock-out, and the discovery that there were no more funds in the Union treasury, and that the men must migrate, emigrate, or shift for themselves, the same kind of thing is still going on; a great meeting of locked-out men has recently been addressed by Mr. Arch, who assured them "that there was no such thing as a surplus of labor on the land," that "the land would bring double the produce into the market if more labor was employed upon it," that "the root of the evil lay in the monopoly of the land," and that it was high time all the uncultivated land should be seized, so that the state could "cultivate it for the people." And all this seems to have been a perfectly satisfactory solution of the question to the men who had been just turned out of their homes through having acted in accordance with this very advice.

The condition of Sicily is causing the Italian Government much uneasiness. The island is suffering from an outbreak of the form of brigandage called *malandrinaggio*, or that kind of lawlessness of which the railroad robbers in Missouri, and the gangs that formerly infested Central New York, furnish notorious examples. They plunder in the cities and in the fields, rescue any of their number who may be caught, or prevent their being brought to trial by intimidating judges and jurors. The evil has become so flagrant that the Government is urged to suspend trial by jury in the island; and it certainly appears better that the Government rather than the highwaymen themselves should suspend it. In a recent case at Palermo, where a pawnbroker's shop had been robbed, it was found impossible to go on with the trial, as a legal jury could not be obtained. Those on whom the lot fell preferred paying the fine for neglect to exposing themselves to the vengeance of the confederates of the accused. The crowd in the court-room, too, grew to be ominously large, and it was deemed prudent to search certain characters for concealed weapons. Sicily is seen to be too far behind the civilization of the best parts of the peninsula to make it possible for constitutional forms to maintain themselves there. The ignorance of the population is still, in spite of praiseworthy efforts on the part of the Government, very dense, and the influence of the priesthood as great as it is pernicious. Ecclesiastical marriages, which have no civil validity, prevail to a large extent, and the opposition to the secular administration of the kingdom shows but little sign of yielding to the advance in enlightenment and the material improvements in roads and railways. For these chronic causes of violence and sedition there is, of course, no remedy but time, patience, and education. The present disturbances call for summary measures and at least a temporary state of siege. Assassination has become alarmingly frequent in the cities.

A committee of which Dr. Döllinger is the head has appointed a convention or conference to be held at Bonn on the 14th of the present month. It will be composed of men belonging to different churches who desire "the grand future union of Christians," and who on the present occasion will examine together the formulas of faith of the early ages of the church, as well as the doctrines and institutions deemed essential in the Eastern and Western Churches prior to the separation. The object of the enquiry is not union, absorption, or fusion of the different churches, but the establishment of an ecclesiastical communion on the basis of "unity in things necessary," while preserving every peculiarity of each church not inconsistent with the substance of the ancient faith. One can hardly anticipate from such a movement any result worth the pains. There never has been, and it is safe to say that there never will be, outside of an infallible Pope, any practicable criterion for distinguishing what is particular from what is essential in church doctrine; and the historical essence, if it could be ascertained, would be about as useful in promoting Christian unity as the Sanskrit roots in furnishing a universal language for modern use. It appears, too, to be of small consequence whether common ground could be discovered on which Catholics like Dr. Döllinger, Father Hyacinthe, and his reverend brother the "little Mortara" might stand, so long as we have the scientific world not only fast settling down into Darwinism, but calmly giving ear to Tyndall's resolution of mind into matter, and matter into the only conceivable Creator of itself and of all phenomena.

A letter of Lieutenant Cameron's to Lord Derby on the East African slave-trade has been published, and is worth noting on account of the remedy which it proposes. The writer gives a minute description of the various phases of the trade between Lake Tanganyika and the sea, from which it appears that there is nobody among the inhabitants of that belt of country who does not engage in the business, either mainly or as an incident of warfare. There is even a band of runaway slaves, "who have their headquarters not very far from Ugogo," who subsist altogether by slave-trade and plunder. "With regard to its suppression," says Lieutenant Cameron, "it is and will continue an impossibility until communication with the civilized world is opened up." This could be done by means of a narrow-gauge railway constructed from Bagamoyo to Ujiji, which would encounter no engineering difficulties, and could be completed for $4,000,000. "The present traffic on this line would pay an interest of 5 per cent.," and the business would double or treble in a few years, owing to the multiplication of articles of export. In place of ivory and slaves alone, as now, natural products like cotton, India-rubber, palm-oil, rice, grain, coffee, spices, and hides would demand transportation. The English commissioners of the road should be stationed at Mbumi and Ujiji, with a small force of Indian soldiers, and enough European subordinates to repress the slave-trade and the petty wars which foster it. A few small vessels would also be needed at Ujiji for the police of the lake. Lieutenant Cameron even goes on to predict branch lines to the Victoria Nyanza and to Urori, and lines on the other side of Tanganyika. He will perhaps seem less of a visionary if he succeeds in proving the connection of the last-named lake with the Khedive's Nile.

CHICAGO AND THE INSURANCE COMPANIES.

THE politicians of Chicago have lately had laid before them an alternative which, to judge by the discussions now going on in that city, they seem to consider of a good deal of importance. This alternative is contained in an intimation from the insurance companies doing business in the city that unless certain material alterations are made in the municipal provisions for protection against fire, the companies will withdraw in about a month, cancel all their policies, and take no more risks. Their demands upon the authorities are, among other things, that the fire limits of Chicago shall be extended and the wooden buildings in them removed, that the supply of water shall be made sufficient for any emergency, and that an efficient fire department, entirely non-political, shall be created. It is unnecessary to state that the reason of this demand on the part of the insurance companies is the fact that Chicago, since the great fire of 1871, has taken no adequate means of preventing a recurrence of such a catastrophe, and the proof of this is to be found in the recent conflagration there, which destroyed several millions of property, and was only prevented by pure accident from going through the entire city, as the earlier one did. Under these circumstances, the insurance companies have naturally become timid. They maintain with considerable force that if the business of insurance is to be carried on at a profit, it is necessary that the insured property shall not in all cases be burned to the ground. What the city of Chicago will do about the matter seems not as yet decided. The politicians are divided, some of them favoring an immediate compliance with the companies' demands, others maintaining that these demands are only another instance of the arrogance of capital; that the best thing for the city would be to show, once for all, its independence; and that it is a matter of indifference to Chicago whether they go or not, for Chicago would "insure herself," if they all went. Exactly what is meant by Chicago "insuring herself" is not explained, and, indeed, as the city has been built up by Eastern capital, and the prevailing rate of interest on loans secured by real estate there is ten per cent., it seems unlikely that there is any large amount of capital lying idle which might be profitably employed in insurance of property regarded by Eastern capitalists as extra-hazardous. This view, indeed, is that held by the property-owners, who are strongly in favor of complying at once with the demands of the insurance companies.

The business of protection against fire throughout the United States has since the beginning of the Government been in the hands of a person who is fond of describing himself as the Practical Man. The book-worm, the closet-thinker, the pedant, and the critic have had little or nothing to do with it. What has been learnt in the United States about protection against fire has wholly come from experience of a rather bitter and dismal kind. Almost as soon as it was settled that "this should be a government of divided powers—co-ordinate, yet each independent in its own sphere," the system of volunteer fire departments was organized in all the large and growing towns. These volunteer fire departments —which consisted of "practical" but perfectly untrained men, called together on occasions of necessity and emergency—did very well so long as no very complicated difficulties arose. In thinly-peopled towns where the houses were low, far apart, and so almost protected by nature, this sort of fire militia was no doubt of great service, and did whatever was needed. But in the crowded cities, into which these towns presently began to change, the case was quite different. There the dense packing of the houses, the tremendous draughts furnished by the streets, and the complications introduced by modern improvements, such as elevators, in the houses and stores themselves, soon made protection against fire a complicated question, and one that needed, in order to be properly dealt with, a high degree of almost military organization, strict subordination, special training, and professional devotion. The volunteer firemen, therefore, became every year more and more useless, and every year they converted their excursions to fires into midnight orgies, frequently ending in faction fights; and the men, instead of becoming more and more devoted to their business, became more and more devoted to politics. As the fire companies became more and more useless, however, the belief in their virtues became among the Practical Men and politicians more and more profound, and about the time that experience had conclusively proved them utterly worthless, the Practical Man had convinced himself that they were one of the finest institutions of this or any country, and on public occasions he usually referred to them as a sort of bulwark of liberty like the trial by jury or habeas corpus. The legend about the institution even penetrated into foreign countries, as any one may satisfy himself by reading that amusing parody of American life, Laboulaye's 'Paris in America.'

By-and-by, however, the unpractical people who happened to live in the large cities discovered to their amazement and dismay, what might have been easily found out before by studying the history of protection against fire in other countries, that the "boys," instead of doing any good by running with the "machine," were making themselves a nuisance, and by their riotous, undisciplined behavior and lack of knowledge, and their frivolous way of treating the very grave charge they undertook, were a source to the cities they nominally protected of almost more danger than if they had no protection at all. The first step, therefore, in fire reform was the abolition of the volunteers and the creation of paid fire departments, utterly free from political interference, officered by responsible and trained men, and with the subordinates under a semi-military discipline, certain of promotion for good behavior, and of degradation for bad; and this step was made after much opposition and resistance from the Practical Men.

We believe we may say, without fear of contradiction, that the cities which since the volunteer period ended have been proved to be most secure from fire have been those in which this new régime has been most thoroughly and in good faith adopted. Any one who has looked into the subject at all knows that Portland, Boston, and Chicago had at the time of their great fires as bad fire systems as any in the country. New York, bad as most of its government undoubtedly has been, probably has had, till lately, the best. It cannot be questioned, either, that Chicago has had an opportunity within the last four years of discovering what its deficiencies were in these respects, and remedying them. But Chicago is one of the great headquarters in modern times of the Practical Man. There is, perhaps, no place of an equal population which contains so many men who have made their fortunes by a sharp look-out for the chances of a rise or fall in the market from day to day, without the slightest regard to ulterior conditions. The Practical Man who has settled in this great commercial centre is full of energy, full of perseverance, and always sanguine of success, and, in fact, has always been in the habit of laughing at any one who warned him of any danger to his future from any quarter. He was among the people, too, who were always confident that "what the politicians did" made no sort of difference, that if they did anything very mischievous the people would be sure to rise in their might and make them do right, and that, whatever might happen, it would "all come out right in the end."

It would appear that this plain, practical, common-sense way of looking at things the Chicagoans have applied to the question of protection against fire as well as to everything else; and, so far as can be made out, they have built up the city since the great conflagration of 1871 in very much the same condition in which the fire found it, and that their fire department is in much the same condition in which it would have been had they never heard of the fires in Boston or Portland. There has been no protection by means of open squares, and the department is as much in politics as it ever was, and because the department is in politics the city is partly composed of highly inflammable structures, put up and inhabited by the constituents of the men whose votes are necessary for their removal; and they have just had a second fire which has destroyed several more millions of property, and caused the insurance companies to threaten to cease doing business in the city.

It must be confessed that the Practical Man has, on the whole, made a bad record for himself with regard to protection against

fire. Within the past five years he has managed, by letting politics take care of themselves, to destroy as much property in the United States as would have been lost in a good-sized war. The critic, on the other hand, has had the best of the argument, and, unlike most prophets of evil, has had his predictions of disaster verified almost as they were uttered. We may say in conclusion, that we have no doubt that the Chicago authorities will now learn wisdom and accede to the demands of the insurance companies. It seems almost incredible that they should not. But it also seems almost incredible that they should have been so blind to the consequences of their own acts as they have been. The rest of the country has many interests centred at Chicago, which cannot be long submitted to a Fourth-of-July recklessness, established there as a principle of government. What with the railroads, that have built up Chicago, threatened on the one hand with robbery by the farmers, and the politicians of the city gravely discussing whether they will allow the property-holders to obtain insurance or not, we seem to have reached a point at which even the most Practical Man of them all must find time to ask himself whether he really is the finest product of civilization, or whether he is not capable, even in this most flourishing country and in this most flourishing age, of bringing disaster and ruin upon his foolish head by his extravagant and impudent conceit.

VILLAGE IMPROVEMENT.

THE discussion which always goes on in the newspapers during the summer as to the merits of the various places of retreat or amusement which the country affords the tired business man and his family, has this year brought to light some new facts about internal village economy in certain parts of the country which have attracted, as they deserved, a good deal of attention. It does not seem to have been generally known, to judge at least from the way the matter is referred to—as if it were a complete novelty—that now for a good many years in many of the villages in New England a vigorous attempt has been made by voluntary associations to render the villages in question attractive and pleasing to the eye, by the planting of trees and shrubs, the maintenance of orderly-looking and neat town-ways, and by infusing into the minds of the inhabitants a pride in the appearance and reputation of their town. How far the movement has extended it is difficult to tell, but there has been enough of this kind of æsthetic reform to attract much attention and serve as a good example. It is noticeable that this village-improvement ardor appears to have seized upon the minds of the rural innovators at about the same time that all the large cities in the United States began to consider the question of parks and of suburban improvement. There is no great difference, except the important one of magnitude, between the two schemes; it is not unfair to consider them together as a general indication of the rapid advance of the country in taste, and in that appreciation of the beautiful which has certainly been most sadly needed.

These village associations have one remarkable feature in common—that they are voluntary. In no case that we have seen has any attempt been made to use the town organization for the purpose of carrying out the objects of the society. If we were to make predictions on such a subject, we should undoubtedly look to see the improvements being made by the town organization itself, through the political machinery of which it is already in possession, and through which it has locally all necessary power. But we find, on the contrary, in all these cases that the voluntary associates have as little as possible to do with politics, and avoid as far as they can all connection with the regular machinery of town-meetings, assessors, and tax-collectors. The town, of course, in many cases carries on improvements of its own, renews bridges, subscribes for stock in railroads, or builds drains, but in all this they have no legal or substantial connection with the improvement reformers. So that, in those towns in which this beautification movement is in full force, we have two bodies at work, both directed theoretically to the same end—the benefit of the community; but one acting by the direction of the town itself, the other acting of its own motion, like a private corporation—an extra-legal town within a legal town. It would seem natural, perhaps, that one of these organizations should swallow up the other, but, as it is, they both go on side by side, one attending to the routine laid down for it in the statutes of the State, the other inventing and performing its own self-imposed duties as they from time to time suggest themselves.

If we look further into these villages, we shall find what is perhaps one explanation of this division of labor. Any one would naturally imagine, in communities so much interested in self-improvement, that the general political tone was high; that these were the old democratic communities of New England of which we have heard so much; that here at least town government had remained in a pure and sound state—the people really electing the best men to office, and controlling them with a vigorous public opinion. If, however, you make enquiries into the political condition of the village, you will be told that it is not by any means perfect, and, on pursuing your investigation further, you will very likely find that the people speak of the politicians of the place much as any one in New York would speak of Tweed or Sweeny; that they will assure you of the existence of a corrupt "ring," interested in jobs of all kinds, will point out some bridge or piece of canal that is well known to have been fraudulently enhanced in cost by the politicians who managed the contract; and will very likely end by giving you an amusing account of the device by which the town treasurer made use of his balances to build the neat-looking cottage which is attracting your attention on the other side of the way.

With the causes of the political decline in town life we have been made familiar by the discussions in the newspapers. We know very well how it is that, what with the emigration of large numbers of the young and able-bodied men to the West, the influx of the nomadic, ignorant foreign population has made the so-called "declining towns" of the older parts of the country the ideal home of the smaller and more disreputable politician, who by means of an ignorant laboring vote is able during ordinary times to keep control of the local machinery, and, by not committing any very outrageous or prominent crime, to feather his nest very comfortably. On the other hand, it is equally evident from such movements for local improvement as we hear of from time to time, if indeed we did not know it from other evidence, that there is a vast amount of energy, public spirit, and a genuine desire for a more pleasing and wholesome civilization than rural life commonly affords; and that, if it could only be set in motion, very important steps might be made in advance.

There is only one direction in which we can look for assistance, and fortunately it is the one from which assistance is apparently coming. What is wanted in the "declining towns" of the older parts of the country is the establishment of a class of responsible land-owners, fastened to the soil by interest and affection, and forced by their circumstances to take an active part in the local affairs. That there is a good deal of reason to believe in the appearance of such a class of people in the older parts of this country there can be little doubt. The steady creation of wealth, and the necessity of employing it, the overcrowding of professional life in the cities, and the natural attraction for a country life felt by all people of our race, make it not only possible but highly probable that year by year many of the small farms of the East will gradually be swallowed up in large farms, of one kind or another, and that the owners will in course of time acquire that sense of responsibility which long ownership and a complete identification of interest give. We may see this process now going on in New England. The change will have, among other good results, the effect of making the work of the individual reformer easier than it now is. It is not the influence of wealth and property in politics, but its illegitimate influence, that is to be deprecated. At present, in the cities, the system of municipal government in vogue takes away political weight from the man of wealth, position, and education. He is made to submit to and govern himself

by laws which he has no hand in making, and which are passed frequently as a bid for the vote of a part of the population whose interests are diametrically opposed to his. The consequence is that he is tempted to gain the ends fraudulently which he cannot secure by fair means. He is overtaxed, and despairing of any equal taxation he gets rid of his taxes by bribery, by having a friend in the board of assessors, by applying to corrupt courts to have assessments set aside, and so on; and in this way he in the end secures his object, but at what a cost! In the country, however, there is not generally this division of interest. In the country, the great foundation of all interest is the land: he who owns the most land is the best man—most respected, most feared, and most followed. Taxes are light because great public enterprises are unnecessary, and most of all because the taxes must in the country be voted by those who pay them. For this reason it is that in rural communities there is a real opportunity for men of means and education who desire the public good, to obtain lasting influence and power. At present, owing to the changing and unsettled character of the population, these local governments are corruptly used, but we believe reform will be made easier by the very change its elf.

A LESSON FOR SENTIMENTALISTS.

IT would be a pity if the public disgust with what has been going on over in Brooklyn, or public weariness of the pros and cons of the Tilton-Beecher case, should prevent some of its more obvious lessons from being laid to heart. The first thing which strikes one in the letters, "statements," "confessions," and other documents of the parties to the affair, is the extraordinary use made by them of the English language. In their hands, it seems almost to lose the character of an instrument for the expression of definite propositions—or, in other words, for the communication by one human being to another of formulated thought—and becomes a mere mode of indicating certain states of feeling, like the noises made by the lower animals. On reading their compositions, one has to guess at what they really mean, the only thing certain being that they are either happy or miserable, just as when a dog howls or barks we know that he is either glad or sorry or angry, but cannot well make out what he would like to have us do. They resemble the lower animals, too, very strikingly in the absence from their minds of all gradations of feeling, and of all reserve in their intercourse with each other. They seem to have no more power of pursuing a middle course, of making distinctions and allowances, of adapting their expression to circumstances, than our humble friends of the kennel and stable. They pass from the extreme of violent love and admiration to the fiercest hatred and malignity. Tilton, for instance, will one day call Bowen "a great and good man," and the next denounce him as the prince of evil, with no more bashfulness or sense of absurdity than a horse would have in kicking the mate he had just neighed for and run after. They embrace men whose acquaintance they have only just made as if they were friends of their youth, and call people by their Christian name almost at the first interview, so that you can infer nothing from their language as to the real length or nature of their relations with anybody. Mr. Beecher addresses Moulton, who was an avowed "heathen," and a Butlerite heathen to boot—and whom he *knew*, in the sense in which the word is ordinarily used, only very slightly—in terms of affection which leave him (Mr. Beecher) absolutely no means of describing his feelings towards a lifelong, trusted, and dearly loved associate belonging to his own church. The separation between religion and morality in the minds of many Sentimentalists, which often seems so shocking to outsiders, and of which this Brooklyn case furnishes so many examples, is often only apparent, and the appearance of it is due to their loose way of talking. Their extravagance of speech often leads people to infer that they hold opinions and cherish feelings which they really do not profess, and if questioned closely would not pretend to profess. They, therefore, often seem hypocrites when they really are not. Much of their religious phraseology, for instance, taken coldly and literally, ought to indicate an abiding sense of God's presence, which should keep them from the grosser forms of wrong-doing at least; but we see them use this phraseology one minute with great unction and tell barefaced lies the very next; and it in reality indicates merely a mushy, spasmodic, and for the most part feeble desire to be better men and women than they are. It is, in short, an expression of moods rather than of purposes, and they resort to it somewhat as an Italian takes up a violin, as a vent for feeling.

The most curious and illustrative phenomenon in their recent history has undoubtedly been the rise of Woodhull into prominence, and with some of them even into influence. This woman, before her appearance on the surface, had been the keeper of a disreputable house and a fortune-teller in Chicago; under ordinary circumstances, she would have been received in New York nowhere out of Greene Street; but when she came on here she found the Sentimentalists in a state of mind that made her rise into eminence among a portion of them easy and rapid, and finally enabled her to secure the services of a Sentimentalist editor as a biographer, and actually gave her, in the eyes of some of them, the position of a martyr, even though they did not share what they called her "opinions." It was in this character that she, we have been informed, came near getting an invitation to unpack her stock of "truths" before the Boston Radical Club. This state of mind was the direct result of a false analogy, a species of error which is constantly bringing Sentimentalism to grief. The imaginations of most of them were profoundly impressed by the anti-slavery agitation, especially by the contrast offered by its brilliant and dramatic close to its arduous and unpromising beginning. Now, the most striking thing in its history, as well as in the history of two other great movements—Christianity and the Reformation—was that doctrines which were first preached by a small body of reviled and persecuted men, and were held in detestation by what is called the respectable portion of society, finally convulsed the state, and triumphed over all opposition. The reasons of this success in all the three cases are, of course, to be found in the character of the doctrines and in the social and political conditions in which they made their appearance. The early insignificance of the Apostles, and the contempt and hostility with which they were at first received, are only secondary incidents, which account for nothing, explain nothing, and offer no materials for predicting the final results. The vast majority of strange doctrines preached by odious men have vanished from the world without leaving a trace on the surface of human affairs; and one needed neither great learning nor ability, nor anything but a stock of plain common-sense, to see that when a strumpet began to preach fornication as an instrument of social regeneration, the disgust of the public indicated, not that she might turn out to be a Luther or Savonarola or Garrison in disguise, but that she would probably and deservedly be put in jail for indecency. The Sentimentalists, however, had not as much common-sense as the occasion called for, and were rather startled by her appearance, and some of them began to ponder her dirty gospel with amazing seriousness. She took rank among the reformers, and made her way in this city into a not very savory locality, described by the reporters of the Brooklyn case by the term "inner suffrage circles," and actually got a nomination for the Presidency from the more crazy ones before her downfall.

For a while, all went on swimmingly. She used the proper reform phraseology, and seemed to be thoroughly in earnest, and was heartily persecuted by society. Hotels would not receive her; she could not hire a house; and no decent man would preside at her lectures. This, combined with the fact that she wanted to "emancipate" somebody, was opposed to "bonds," and was waging war against long-established usages, was all that was needed in a good many Sentimentalist eyes to entitle her to a respectful hearing. She ought not, they thought, to be "crushed" or "choked down." It was best that she should be allowed to utter what was in her. At this point another Sentimentalist illusion came to her aid—viz., that propositions which people do not want to listen to are probably "truths," and the more precious because "unpopular truths." Let any earnest body begin saying things which people find unpleasant, and his wares are at once put in the same category with Kepler's laws or Harvey's discovery, without any examination of their quality or composition. So Woodhull found herself for a while peddling goods which some people thought were "truths," and others thought might be "truths," and accordingly ought to be handled reverently. She was to be listened to, also, in the interest of liberty, which, according to many Sentimentalists, is a good in itself and not a means towards the attainment of good. Any sort of antics which show you are "free" are valuable, and ought not to be repressed.

The whole affair from first to last is a most impressive reminder of the value of reasonableness and sober-mindedness; of, in short, the necessity of cultivating, not the faculties we possess in common with the brutes, but those which differentiate us from the brutes. The family, the church, and the state are all best saved and defended, not by animal credulity, illogicality, impulsiveness, recklessness, but by human perception, discrimination, and forethought. The enthusiasm of the Puritans founded states, changed forms of government, and influenced the destiny of mankind, while the enthusiasm of an Irish clan usually produces nothing more lasting than a riot. The first duty of everybody is to cultivate habits of accurate speech and of sober discrimination, of honest respect for facts, and of reverence for the efforts heretofore made by the race to which he belongs towards right living.

IN BELGIUM.

OSTEND, August 14.

BELGIUM, in most itineraries, is visited conjointly with Holland. This is all very well so long as Belgium is visited first; and my advice to travellers who relish a method in their emotions is in this region to reverse the plan which is generally most judicious, and proceed in all confidence from south to north. Passing from the Low Countries into Flanders, you come back into the common world again—into a picturesque phase of it, certainly, and a country rich in architectural and artistic treasures. But you miss that something, individual and exquisite, which forms the charm of Holland, and of which, during the last forty-eight hours of my stay there (it seems a part of the delicacy of all things that one calculates one's stay in the little Dutch garden by hours), my impression became singularly deep. It has become deeper still in retrospect, as such things do, and there are moments when I feel as if in coming away I had wantonly turned my back upon the abode of tranquil happiness. I keep seeing a green canal with a screen of thin-stemmed trees on one side of it, and a foot-path, not at all sinuous, on the other. Beside the foot-path is a red-brick wall, superstitiously clean, and if you follow it a little while you come to a large iron gate flanked with high posts, with balls on top. Although the climate is damp, the ancient iron-work of the gate has not a particle of rust, and its hinges, as you turn it, are in perfect working order. Beyond it is a garden planted with tulips of a hundred kinds, and in the middle of the garden is a pond. Over the pond is stretched, from edge to edge, a sort of trellis of tense cord, which at first excites your surprise. In a moment, however, you perceive the propriety of the pond's being carefully guarded, for its contents are singularly precious. They consist of an immense number of gigantic water-lilies, sitting motionless among their emerald pads, and of a brilliancy and softness which makes you fancy they are modelled in wax; of a thousand little gold-fishes, of so deep a crimson that they look as if they were taken out every morning and neatly varnished over with a fine brush; and, lastly, of a majestic swan, of the purest porcelain. About the swan there is no doubt; he is of the finest Dutch delf—a substance which at a certain distance looks as well as flossy feathers, and has the advantage that a creature composed of it cannot circulate to the detriment of varnished fishes and waxen lilies. I do not know how this pond looks on paper, but in nature, if we may call it nature, it was delicious. There was a skyful of rolling gray clouds, with two or three little patches of blue, and over the tulip-beds there played a little cool breeze, with its edge just blurred by dampness. Under the trees was just one bench, but it was strictly sufficient.

I must not linger on Dutch benches, however, with all the art-wealth of Flanders awaiting me. I have by no means in fact examined it all, and have had to pay the tourist's usual tribute to reluctant omission. In such cases, if you are travelling *con amore*, the things omitted assume to the mind's eye a kind of mocking perfection, and the dozen successes of your journey seem a small compensation for this fatal failure. There is a certain little *hôtel de ville* at Louvain and a cathedral at Tournay which make a delicious figure in the excellent hand-book of M. Du Pays; but I hasten to declare that I have not seen them, and am well aware that my observations are by so much the less valuable. I first made acquaintance with Belgium, however, through the cathedral of Antwerp, and this is a first-rate introduction. I went into it of a Sunday morning during mass, and immediately perceived that I was in a sturdily Catholic country. The immense edifice was crowded with worshippers, and their manner was much more *receuilli*, as the phrase is, than that of the faithful in Italian churches. This too in spite of the fact that the great Rubenses were unveiled in honor of the day, so that all the world might behold them gratis. To be *receuilli* in the presence of a Rubens seems to me to indicate the real devotional temperament. The crowd, the Rubenses, the atmosphere, and the presence of some hundred or so of dear fellow-tourists was rather hostile to tranquil appreciation, so that at first I saw little in the cathedral of Antwerp to justify its great reputation. But I came back in the late afternoon, at that time which a wise man will always choose for visiting (finally at least) a great church—the half-hour before it closes. The Rubenses, those monstrous flowers of art, had folded their gorgeous petals; but this I did not regret, as I had been in the interval to the Museum, where there are a dozen more, and I had drifted to a conclusion. The church was empty, or filled only with the faded light and its own immense solemnity. It is very magnificent, not duskily nor mysteriously so, but with a vast, simple harmony which, like all great things, grows and grows as you observe it. Its length is extraordinary, and it has the peculiarity, unique in my observations, of possessing no less than six aisles, besides the nave. Its height is in harmony with these splendid proportions, and it gave me altogether (I do not know the literal measurements) an almost unequalled impression of vastness. Externally, its great tower, of the most florid and flamboyant, the most embroidered and perforated Gothic, is one of the few worthy rivals of the peerless steeple of Strassburg.

The Antwerp Museum is very handsomely housed, and has an air of opulence very striking after the meagre and dusky contrivances in this line of thrifty Holland. But there is logic in both cases. You bend your nose over a Gerard Dow and use a magnifying glass; whereas, the least that can be done by the protectors of Rubens's glory is to give you a room in which you can stand twenty yards from the canvas. I may say directly that even at twenty yards Rubens gave me less pleasure than I had hoped. I say hoped rather than expected, for I was already sufficiently familiar with him to have felt the tendency of my impressions, and yet I had fancied that in the atmosphere in which he wrought, in the city of which he is the *genius loci*, they might be diverted into the channel of sympathy. But they followed their own course, and I can express them only by saying that the painter does not please me. If Rubens does not *please* you, what is left?—for I find myself utterly unable to perceive in him a trace of that intellectual impressiveness claimed by some of his admirers. I read a while since a charming book in which an acute French critic, M. Emile Montégut, records his impressions of Belgium and Holland, and this work was partly responsible for my supposition that I should find more in the author of the "Descent from the Cross" collectively, at Antwerp, than I had found in him, individually, at London, Paris, and Florence. M. Montégut, I say, is acute, and the number of things his acuteness finds in Rubens it would take up all my space to recount. According to him, Rubens was not only one of the greatest of mere painters, but he was the greatest genius who ever *thought*, brush in hand. The answer to this seems simple: Rubens, to my sense, absolutely did *not* think. He not only did not think greatly, but he did not think at all. M. Montégut declares that he was a great dramatist superadded to a great painter, and calls upon the people of Antwerp to erect to him in the market-place a colossal monument (the one already standing there will do, it seems to me) and inscribe upon the pedestal his title to the glory of having carried his art beyond its traditional limits, and produced effects generally achieved only by the highest dramatic poetry. If the great painter of rosy brawn had had half his commentator's *finesse*, he would have been richly endowed. M. Montégut finds, among other things, unutterable meanings in the countenance of the Abyssinian king who is looking askance at the Virgin in the "Adoration" of the Antwerp Museum. I remembered them so well that, in leaving the cathedral, I hurried to commune with this masterpiece of expressiveness. I recommend him to the reader who may next pass that way. Let him tell me, from an unbiassed mind, how many supplementary emotions he finds reflected in the broad concupiscence of the monarch's black visage. I was disappointed; dramatists of the first order are rare, and here was one the less. If Rubens is anywhere dramatic, in the finer sense of the term, it is in his masterpiece, the "Descent from the Cross," of the cathedral; of all his pictures, this one comes the nearest to being impressive. It is superbly painted, and on the whole very noble; but it is only a happier specimen of the artist's habitual manner—painting by improvisation, not by reflection. Besides the Rubenses at Antwerp, I have seen several others. Those at Brussels, unfortunately, with most of their companions of the Flemish school, have been now some two years invisible. They are being restored; but one is curious to see the effect of two years' refreshment upon the native robustness of most Rubenses. I need not speak of these various productions in detail; some are better, some are worse, all are powerful, and all, on the whole, are irritating. They all tell the same story—that the artist had in a magnificent degree the painter's temperament, without having in anything like a proportionate degree the painter's mind. When one, therefore, says that he was perfectly superficial, one indicates a more fatal fault than in applying the same term to many a more delicate genius. What makes Rubens irritating is the fact that he always *might* have been more interesting. Half the conditions are there—vigor, facility, color, the prodigious impulse of genius. Nature has given them all, and he holds the other half in his own hands. But just when the others should appear and give the picture that stamp which draws from us, over and above our relish of the natural gift, a certain fine sympathy with the direction it takes, Rubens uncloses his careless grasp, and drops them utterly out of sight. He never approaches something really fine but to miss it; he never attempts a really interesting effect but to vulgarize it. Our deepest interest, as to an artist, depends on the way he deliberates and chooses. Everything up to that point may be superb, but we care for him with a certain affection only when we feel him responsibly selecting among a number of possibilities. This sensible, intellectual pulsation often gives a charm to the works of painters to whom nature has been anything but liberal, and the great limitation of Rubens is that in him one never perceives it. He takes what comes, and if it happens to be really pictorial, he has a singular faculty of suggesting that there is no merit in his having taken it. He never waits to choose; he never pauses to deliberate; and one may say, vulgarly, he throws away his oranges when he has given them but a single squeeze. The foolish fellow does not know how sweet they are! One ends, in a man-

ner, by disliking his real gifts. A little less facility, we call out, a shade or so less color, a figure or so the fewer traced in, a bosom or two less glowingly touched; only something once in a while to arrest us, with the thought that it has arrested you!

Almost as noteworthy as anything else in the Antwerp Museum is the title of a picture by Titian, of average Titianesque merit. It is worth transcribing for its bizarre conflict of suggestions: "John, Bastard of Sforza, Lord of Pesaro, husband, by her first marriage, of Lucretia Borgia, and then Bishop of Paphos and Admiral of the Pontifical Galleys, is presented to St. Peter by the Pope Alexander VI." Add to this that St. Peter is seated upon a fragment of antique sculpture, surrounded by a frieze representing a pagan sacrifice! Even that harshly sincere genius, Quentin Matsys, who shines hard by in a brilliantly pure piece of coloring, can hardly persuade us that we are in simple Flanders, and not in complex Italy.

It often happens in travelling that places turn out to be less curious than we had supposed, but it is a comparatively rare fortune to find them more so. And yet this was my luck with Brussels, a city of which my imagination had made so light that it hung by a hair whether I should go there or not. It is generally spoken of by its admirers as a miniature Paris, and I always viewed it with that contempt with which a properly-regulated mind regards those shabby, pirated editions of the successful French books of the day which are put forth in Belgium. These ill-conditioned little volumes are miniature Victor Hugos and Michelets. But Brussels should ask to be delivered from its friends. It is not a miniature anything, but a very solid and extensive old city, with a physiognomy and character quite its own. It is very much less elegant than the Paris of the last twenty years; but it is decidedly more picturesque. Paris has nothing to compare for quaintness of interest with the Brussels Hôtel de Ville, and the queer old carved and many-windowed houses which surround the square. The Hôtel de Ville is magnificent, and its beautiful Gothic belfry gives, in quite another line, an equal companion in one's memory to the soaring campanile of the palace of the Signory at Florence. Few cities have a cathedral in so impressive a position as St. Gudule—on a steep hill-top, with a long flight of steps at the base of its towers; and few cities, either, have so charming a public garden as the Parc. There is something peculiarly picturesque in that high-in-the-air look of the Parc as you glance from end to end of its long alleys, and see the sky beneath the arch of the immense trees meeting the bend of the path. All this part of Brussels, and the wide, windy Place Royale, handsome as the handsome was understood fifty years ago, has an extreme brightness and gaiety of aspect which is yet quite distinct from the made-to-order brilliancy of the finest parts of renovated Paris. The Brussels Museum of pictures is admirably arranged; but, unfortunately, as I have said, only half of it is now accessible. This, however, contains some gems of the Dutch school—among them a picture by Steen, representing a lad coming into a room to present a fish to a ruddy virago who sits leering at him. The young man, for reasons best known to himself, is sticking out his tongue, and these reasons, according to M. Montégut, are so numerous and so recondite that I should like the downright old caricaturist himself to have heard a few of them. I wonder where *his* tongue would have gone.

Ghent I found to be an enormous, empty city, with an old Flemish gable-end peeping here and there from its rows of dull, white houses, and various tall and battered old church-towers looking down over deserted sunny squares. In the very middle of all this, in the stately church of St. Bavon, is the great local treasure, the "Adoration of the Lamb," by the brothers Van Eyck. This is not only one of the pictures of Ghent, but one of the pictures of the world. It represents a large daisied meadow shut in with a great flaming tangle of hedges, out of which emerge various saints of either sex, carrying crowns and palms. In front are two other groups of apostles and prophets, all kneeling and worshipping. In the middle is an altar, surmounted with the fleecy symbol of the Word, and surrounded with a ring of adoring angels. Behind is a high horizon of blue mountains, and the silhouettes of three separate fantastic cities, all apparently composed of church-towers. The picture is too perfect for praise; the coloring seems not only not to have lost but actually to have been intensified and purified by time. One may say the same of the precious Memlings at Bruges—and this is all I may say of that drowsy little city of grassy streets, and colossal belfries, and sluggish canals, and picturesque memories.

Correspondence.

THE LYING IN THE "SCANDAL."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: It is not often that your paper lacks perspicuity, but your article on "Moulton's Story" I cannot understand fully. Last week, reviewing Mr. Beecher's Statement, you said not guilty; this week, reviewing "Moulton's Story," you say "it adds nothing to the testimony against Beecher, nor anything which Beecher's Statement does not seem sufficient to explain except Moulton's assertion, etc." Closing, you say "the lying in *every* direction seems, etc.," and "it has come to be a conflict of veracity between people whose moral standard is not that of respectable men."

As, according to your own showing, it is now either "Moulton's assertion" or "Beecher's assertion," do we understand you give up faith in Mr. Beecher, and include him among those whose "moral standard, etc."; and, as the lying is tremendous in *every direction*, you also believe Beecher lies? I cannot understand what you mean, and would like to.

With respect, J. A. Walker.

August 27, 1874.

[Our phrase was certainly loose and careless, but was born of increasing disgust. We did not intend to include Mr. Beecher among the "liars." The charge of "unblushing and tremendous lying" we only intended to bring against those actors in the affair who are liars *on their own showing*, and in this category we place Tilton and his wife, Moulton, and "Bessie." Mr. Beecher may, humanly speaking, as they say in Brooklyn, have been guilty of falsehood, but it does not appear on the surface. He has not contradicted himself, or told two different tales about the same transaction. If he has told a lie, it is about the central fact of the case, and on this point there is nothing against him, thus far, except Moulton's and Tilton's assertions, they having, judiciously or injudiciously, destroyed Mrs. Tilton's "confession." At the same time, in a conflict of veracity between Beecher and Moulton, we are prevented from ruling Moulton out and accepting Beecher's assertions as final on points on which Moulton has not shaken his own credibility, by the fact that, so late as July 13, Beecher maintained his confidence in him and expressed it.—Ed. Nation.]

THE CHENEY DECISION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Two points of more than general interest were decided by Judge Williams in the recent litigation in the Circuit Court of Cook County, involving the status of Rev. Dr. Cheney.

The first of these was as to the extent to which civil courts will go in examining into ecclesiastical proceedings; the second, as to the powers inherent in the office of a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.

Rev. Mr. Cheney was put upon his trial for the alleged offence of leaving a word out of the prescribed office for the administration of Infant Baptism, in July, 1869, before an ecclesiastical tribunal of five of his brother clergymen, selected by himself, or the Standing Committee for him, out of a list of eight furnished by the Bishop of Illinois, in accordance with the provisions in that regard of the Diocesan Canon.

An injunction against further proceedings was granted by the Superior Court of Chicago upon grounds not now necessary to be adverted to, and the trial suspended until January, 1871, when the injunction was dissolved, and Mr. Cheney's bill dismissed by the Supreme Court of Illinois. In the meantime, one of the five presbyters constituting the ecclesiastical court had been consecrated Bishop of Arkansas, and was disqualified from sitting. When, therefore, in February, the trial was resumed, but four members of the former tribunal assembled. The accused, through his counsel, protested that the court as such had ceased to exist, and that the four gentlemen had no power to try in the premises—in other words, had no jurisdiction. The trial, nevertheless, was proceeded with, and resulted in a finding of guilt and a sentence of suspension, which sentence having been pronounced and disregarded, Mr. Cheney was again impleaded for such violation of the sentence, and, being tried and found guilty, was sentenced to deposition. The case just decided was a bill in equity to enjoin the wardens and vestry of Mr. Cheney's parish from employing and paying him, the gravamen of the bill being the alleged deposition. The legality of both the sentences was therefore in issue.

Had the civil court the right to investigate and determine the question of the validity of the sentences?

The language of the opinion pronounced by the Supreme Court of the United States, in the celebrated case of Watson *v.* Jones (13th

Wallace) justified the complainant's counsel in contending that the decision of an ecclesiastical court as to *its own jurisdiction* was as conclusive upon the civil courts as its decision upon any other matter in controversy before it, and this position was further fortified by the opinion of the Supreme Court of Illinois in Chase *v.* Cheney, in which it was stated: "It is conceded that where jurisdiction attaches, the judgment of the church court is conclusive as to purely ecclesiastical offences. It should be *equally conclusive* upon doubtful and technical questions involving a criticism of the canons, *even though* they might comprise jurisdictional facts."

This proposition was criticised by the *Nation* (Jan.-Feb. 1871) as inaccurate at the time the opinion was published. Judge Williams, however, held that the sentences of church courts were entitled to no higher authority than those of other courts, and that their jurisdiction as to the person and the subject-matter must necessarily be open to scrutiny; that in the case before him the question of jurisdiction was simply a naked question of power, a question of *its existence* uncomplicated with any enquiry as to *its exercise;* and that, "to establish the doctrine that church courts shall, *in all cases*, be the sole judges of their jurisdiction, would not only be to give them precedence in this regard over all civil courts, but to yield them powers dangerous in the extreme to civil liberty."

The conclusion reached, though apparently obvious enough, and sustained by a long line of authority in England and Scotland, has, nevertheless, been considerably obscured in this country by the loose language used by learned judges in the delivery of opinions in this class of cases.

The second noticeable ruling by Judge Williams relates to the inherent powers of a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and arose in this way. Conceding for the sake of the argument that Mr. Cheney had never had a canonical or any trial, it was contended that the sentence of his bishop was nevertheless practically conclusive upon him—practically conclusive because, although such sentence might be voidable, there was no church judicatory or authority by which it could be set aside. This position rested upon the proposition that by the ecclesiastical common law the power of discipline to the extent even of deposition inhered in the office of a bishop, that such power was neither conferred nor could be taken away by the church, and that hence, deposition without trial, even though the latter were prescribed by the constitution and canons, would present the case of a defective exercise of power, and not the want of it, and would, therefore, be voidable and not absolutely void. Upon this branch of the case a large amount of evidence was taken, embracing the depositions of Judge Hoffman, Bishops Whitehouse, Odenheimer, Vail, Whittle, Kip, Cummins, Drs. Goodwin, Fulton, Seymour, Tyng, Nicholson, Chase, Locke, and others.

Judge Williams held that it seemed to be the universally accepted doctrine of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America that a power of government and discipline inheres in the office of a bishop, but that, as the law of that church now existed, the power in question was not held to be arbitrary and absolute. Assuming that, in the time of Cyprian, bishops claimed and exercised the power of condemning and sentencing offenders of their own volition and without the intervention of ecclesiastical judicatories, yet such could scarcely be considered the law of a church in this country, because so hostile to the genius, object, and spirit of the institutions of a free government. If the Protestant Episcopal Church had asserted the infallibility of its bishops, that would be a strong fact in favor of the existence of precisely the same church polity in the nineteenth as in the third century, but it had never done so. The experience of the church has been not dissimilar to that of the state. The assumption and usurpation of power on the one hand has been denied and resisted on the other, and the result of the conflict has been the gradual extinction of absolutism and the slow uprising of limited and constitutional governments; and where changes in church polity are not forbidden by the ecclesiastical law, then the church regimen has universally conformed in some degree to the civil government. The Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States is a church of law and not of will, and whatever the powers of a bishop in ancient times, they were undoubtedly abridged by the constitution and canons. These canons furnish the stipulations between the parties, and constitute the law for the conduct of the trial. "To hold that, in such a case, the bishop could suspend and depose a clergyman without a trial, would be to overthrow the whole theory of the civil courts in this country in reference to church discipline and government as the same has been developed and settled by a long series of adjudications. It would be substituting the uncontrolled will of the bishop in the place of the solemn agreement of the parties and the limited supervision of the courts of law."

It will be perceived that the decision upon this point is of the profoundest interest to the clergy of the Episcopal Church, and it certainly seems to admit of but little doubt that (as decided in England in Long *v.* Bishop of Cape Town) the oath of canonical obedience does not mean that the presbyter will obey all the commands of his bishop, but only those which the bishop is by the pact between the parties authorized to impose. It is due to the memory of the lamented Bishop Whitehouse to say that that eminent prelate did not for a moment assert that it would be right for a bishop to proceed in any case contrary to the canons. His contention was that, simply as a matter of ecclesiastical law, an uncanonical sentence was voidable and not void, and was therefore practically absolute because irreversible.

MELVILLE W. FULLER.

COOLBAUGH'S, MONROE CO., PA., Aug. 24, 1874.

Notes.

THE entire remaining stock of the late Professor Agassiz's publications, "all printed at the author's private expense, and at great sacrifice, during his sojourn at Neuchâtel as Professor of Natural History," has been purchased of his family, and is now offered for sale by Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London. The titles and prices of these works will be found in Mr. Quaritch's 'Rough List, No. 21.'——The fall announcements of J. R. Osgood & Co. embrace a noticeably large proportion of native American productions, though in no case is expectation greatly aroused by them. Poetry by J. T. Trowbridge, by Whittier ('Hazel Blossoms'), Holmes ('Songs of Many Seasons'), Aldrich ('Cloth of Gold'), Bayard Taylor ('The Prophet'—a tragedy), and Lucy Larcom ('Childhood Songs'); essays by Emerson ('Poetry and Criticism'), Lowell, and Prof. T. Sterry Hunt ('Chemical and Geological Essays'); tales by Howells ('A Foregone Conclusion'), H. H. Boyesen ('Gunnar'), and Julian Hawthorne ('Idolatry'); a new volume on the education of girls, by Dr. E. H. Clarke; a companion volume, by Wilson Flagg, to his 'Woods and Byways of New England'; 'Ten Days in Spain,' by Kate Field—are all works whose measure we can pretty accurately take in advance. The same may perhaps be said of Mr. John Fiske's 'Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy.' Under the head of art and architecture we find the following works, new and old, but for the most part of approved merit: from the French of Viollet-le-Duc, 'The Story of a House,' translated by Geo. M. Towle, and 'Discourses on Architecture,' translated by Henry Van Brunt, both illustrated; 'Homes, and How to Make them,' by E. C. Gardner, illustrated by the author; 'Art in the House,' from the German of Jacob Falke, by Harriet W. Preston, edited by C. C. Perkins, and illustrated with heliotypes. Also, a quarto illustrated volume, 'Famous Painters and Paintings,' by Mrs. J. H. Shedd; a new and enlarged edition of Spooner's 'Dictionary of Painters and Engravers,' in two volumes; and 'The Antiquity of Engraving, and the Utility and Pleasure of Prints,' by W. S. Baker, with heliotype illustrations.——The Boston Public Library has, by annexation of suburban libraries erected into branches, and by the usual means of purchases and donations, been increased by nearly 25 per cent. during the past year. The total number of volumes is now 260,550. No less than 103 persons are employed in the library and its branches. The new Chicago Public Library reports about 26,000 volumes, of which 21,000 are adapted for circulation. In the sixteenth week after opening (on the 1st of May) the average daily circulation had reached the surprising figure of 1,118 volumes, or one in twenty of the entire collection; a striking evidence of the deprivation caused by the great fire.——The Centennial Commission desire early applications for space from American exhibitors, in order to be able to make the proper assignment to foreign nations. Early provision should also be made for the organization of such collective exhibitions of the natural resources and raw materials of different sections of the country as cannot be made by individual exhibitors. "The importance of this, as an incentive to immigration and to the investment of foreign capital, cannot be overestimated."——The *American Garden*, a monthly illustrated journal, devoted to garden art, published by Beach & Son, Brooklyn, now commences its third year and a new series, with James Hogg as editor. It ought to be excellent, and the opening number (for September) is so. The publishers' preface does not overstate the worth and the services of the late Thomas Hogg, who was almost the father of horticulture in this city, nor of his two sons. Let us note in passing that, in correcting the account of another journalist respecting the Jerusalem artichoke, the editor perhaps lays himself open to correction. It is very doubtful if it was "introduced into England from Canada in 1617, having been previously brought there from Brazil." It is pretty certain that it does not belong to Brazil, and most probable that it went to Europe from Louisiana.——The London *Academy* (July 18) devotes nearly half a column of its Notes of Travel to an account of a remarkable magnetic cave discovered in California. It copies without misgiving the statement that a hatchet, carried by one of the

exploring party, was "wrested from him by a magnetic rock near which he passed, and the combined strength of four of the party was insufficient to detach it"; that "a pocket-knife, accidentally dropped to the floor, had to remain there, none of the party having sufficient strength to pick it up"; and, finally, that one of the explorers had to be lifted out of his nail-studded miner's boots, which were left immovably fixed to the magnetic floor of this cavern.——Number 251 of *Nature*, which Macmillan & Co. will have for sale on Saturday next, will contain a full report of Professor Tyndall's Presidential Address before the British Association at Belfast. With the same number of *Nature* will be given a portrait of Professor Tyndall, engraved on steel by Jeens, with a notice by Professor Helmholtz, forming the fourth of the series of illustrated articles on "Scientific Worthies" which is appearing in this periodical.

—We find in the California *Mail-Bag* for August a sketch of the career of James Lick, whose extraordinary disposition of his immense property in founding an asylum, an observatory, an art school, free baths, etc., etc., is well known to our readers. It appears that he was born Aug. 25, 1796, at Fredericksburg, Lebanon Co., Penn., being of German descent through his paternal grandfather. His first occupation was in an organ factory at Hanover in his native State; afterwards he obtained employment with a piano manufacturer in Baltimore. Shortly after the independence of the South American republics was declared he embarked for Buenos Ayres, and for a number of years in that country, in Chili, and in Peru he carried on the manufacture and the sale of pianos chiefly, acquiring a tolerable capital. With this, in 1847, he landed in California, where his real-estate investments in San Francisco soon made him wealthy, and ended in making him a millionaire. A better education than it was possible for him to obtain in his boyhood would probably have modified the character of some of his endowments, but as it might also have made him more selfish and less public-spirited, perhaps it is as well not to deplore the roughness of our diamond. Mr. Lick's conveyance is printed in full in the *Mail-Bag*, together with photographic likenesses of himself and his seven trustees (including the present mayor of the city and two ex-mayors), and of Leland Stanford, President of the Central Pacific Railroad.

—It is not often that a conviction for theft is followed by a spontaneous expression of sympathy with the thief on the part of property-owners; yet such seems to have been the result of the conviction of the unfortunate Mr. Weightman, an English barrister, who was sentenced some time ago to six months' hard labor for stealing books from the library of the Inner Temple. Mr. Weightman has been disbarred by the benchers of his inn, too, though they remarked "that it was a matter of great pain to them to have to do what duty had rendered imperative, but, while they regretted the circumstances compelling them to the decision at which they had arrived, yet they could not, after the commission of a crime so derogatory to the honor of the profession, relax their severity, but must do that which would protect and uphold the dignity of the bar"; and on being released from prison a check was handed to him, being the result of a public subscription of £600. The explanation of this sympathy is not to be found in the fact that Mr. Weightman had been engaged in the political arena and so needed a vindication, but that he had been actually compelled to steal books to save himself from starvation, and, according to rumor, he had, out of the proceeds derived from the sale of one book, applied a portion to the sustenance of a brother barrister since dead, who, like himself, was at the time of the theft starving and dying. These revelations of destitution in the profession have led to the institution of a fund for the relief of poor barristers in London.

—A libel suit brought in England by Mr. John R. Herbert, R.A., against the proprietor of the *Westminster Gazette*, has brought to light a form of libellous attacks which exhibits in the inventor considerable ingenuity. It consists of a series of questions addressed to the person whom it is intended to bring into public ridicule and contempt, the answers to which are rather implied than stated, and which are indeed expected to be suggested to the unhappy victim by the remorse of his own guilty conscience. For example, the first question which the Royal Academician was requested to answer by Mr. E. Welby Pugin, who seems to have been the original libeller, was: "Did I not try to cajole Pugin out of a house worth £4,000 for £2,000? did I not, in conjunction with others, act as though he dare not strike a blow in his defence? did I not, under the impression that he was penniless, exclaim, 'Now I have drawn my sword it shall not be sheathed until it is covered with glory or gore?'" and second, "Did I not resort to every dirty and filthy trick to avoid paying my just liabilities?" third, "Have I not loved my 'louis' more than my honor?" fourth, "Am I not a cur of the worst breed to have shirked opening my own letters, and to have requested my wife to keep them from my sight?" fifth, "Am I not a coward of the most contemptible nature to have made such a request, and then to have gone howling about the country, 'I did not mind so long as his letters were addressed to myself, that I could endure; but to have placed them in the hands of one's wife exceeds the bounds of endurance?'" sixth. "Am I not a dog, too contemptible to be worth kicking, for having apologized to Edward Barry for having written what I believed to be true?" seventh, "Have I not justly incurred the wretchedness I am suffering? Shall I not be a man utterly ruined both in reputation and purse?" eighth, "Will not the evidence that will be admitted at the trial make me wish I had never been born?" ninth, "Can I deny that I am a perjurer?" tenth, "Can I deny that I am a slanderer?" eleventh, "Can I deny that such conduct as I have been guilty of makes me, even in my own estimation, more stinking than the dunghills, more foul than the cesspools, to which Pugin has referred?" twelfth, "Have I gained anything by dragging an influential friend and kind patron into the vortex where my folly and rascality has (sic) driven me?" thirteenth, "Have I not, after the habit of the monkey, sought for cat's-paws to do my dirty work?" fourteenth, "Have I not conspired to effect this man's ruin?" fifteenth, "Have I got a hope on earth left?" sixteenth, "Can I expect mercy hereafter?" and in conclusion, Mr. Pugin comprehensively asks, "Now, sir, if you have courage to read this, the above examination of your conscience, is there an interrogatory that you can answer in the negative with any satisfactory result? I will now leave you to your reflections, and I do not envy you, but remain, E. Welby Pugin." Should this lively gentleman's publisher come well out of the suit brought against him, we may expect the catechistic form of libel to become very popular, as it manifestly suits the needs of a large and worthy class in every community.

—A writer in *Nature*, August 6, publishes part of a letter addressed him by M. Houzeau, author of a work in which the mental faculties of animals are compared with those of man. M. Houzeau is a resident of Jamaica, and has for a year past been studying the comparative development of intelligence in children belonging to different races. For two hours daily he taught fifteen pupils from neighboring families, and carefully watched their proceedings and rate of improvement under a common instruction. His conclusions, which are not to be regarded as final, but provisional, are, in brief, that "the rate of improvement is due almost entirely to the relative elevation of the parental circle in which children live—the home influence." In the unequal progress exhibited he finds nothing that can clearly and unmistakably be referred to the differences of race; and even the "personal coefficient" of each child—the degree of intellectual proficiency peculiar to itself—has less to do with the differences observed than he had anticipated. "Those whose parents are restricted to the narrowest gauge of intellectual exercise, live in such a material and coarse *milieu* that their mental faculties remain slumbering and gradually become atrophied; while those who hear at home of many things, and are brought up to intellectual life, show a corresponding proficiency in their learning." M. Houzeau's views derive a weight to which so limited an experiment would not entitle them, not only from the studies already mentioned as the basis of a former work, but from his having had some rare opportunities of studying "inferior races," including American Indians and half-breed Indians of the mixed race of Mexico. "I believe," he says, "that most of the savans of Europe have but a very incomplete idea of the mental, and still more the moral, status of 'inferior societies.'" His main conclusion is certainly a very strengthening one, and it is likely that the influence of the *milieu* has been as much underestimated as he perhaps overestimates it. His correspondent, Mr. W. Lauder Lindsay, reminds him of the "impossibility of duly estimating the direction or amount of future or adult mental development by the study of mental phenomena in the young." Familiar examples of this are the frequently superior quickness of girls over boys in acquiring knowledge up to a certain age; and the superiority in mental endowments, at certain stages of development, of the young of animals over the human child.

—One of the losses caused by the burning of the library of the Louvre under the Commune was a unique manuscript, entitled "Glorieuses marques du militaire français.' It was prepared in 1809 by Jean-François-Louis d'Hozier, herald-at-arms, and undertook to record the name and regiment of French officers of every grade killed or wounded from the time of the Crusades down to and including the reign of Louis XVI., and the engagement in which each suffered. By great good fortune, M. Louis Paris had as early as 1861 begun publishing this record in his magazine, *Le Cabinet historique*, and had made a complete copy of the original. This he is now reproducing in four volumes 8vo, with a supplement, in which the same service is rendered the killed and wounded of the French marine. A work which in some sort is a companion to the foregoing (of which the new title, by the way, is 'L'Impôt de Sang, ou la noblesse française sur les champs de bataille') is General Susane's 'History of the French Cavalry,' which gives the genea-

logy of the regiments from their formation down to 1815, and the chronology of each one.

—A society has lately been formed in Paris for the publication of texts relating to the history and geography of the Latin Orient, comprising in this term the kingdoms of Jerusalem, Cyprus, and Armenia, the principalities of Antioch and Achaia, and the Latin Empire of Constantinople. These texts are such as are, by reason of their secondary value, neglected by the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres in publishing their 'Collection of Historians of the Crusades.' Pilgrimages to the Holy Land, for instance, will receive the especial attention of the new society. Its publications will be at the rate of two volumes annually, and will be in three series—historic, geographical (illustrated with maps), and poetic. The texts will be Latin; Greek, Hebrew, Slavic, Scandinavian, accompanied by a Latin version; French, Italian, Spanish, German, and English; and will be mostly printed for the first time. There will also be a limited number of phototypographic facsimiles of rare pieces. The profits accruing from sales and subscriptions will be capitalized until such time as they will permit the publication of two folio volumes of the cartography of the Latin Orient in the Middle Ages, and its numismatics, sigillography, and epigraphy. The society will admit three hundred and fifty associate subscribers, who, on the annual payment of fifteen francs, will be entitled to the book publications of the year. Applications should be addressed to Monsieur le Gérant de la Société Bibliographique, 75, rue du Bac, Paris.

—The French Minister of the Interior, General Chabaud-Latour, and his under-secretary, M. Cornélis de Witt, both happen to be Protestants. This circumstance, which displeases the Bonapartists, is not a source of unmixed gratification to the shorn remnant of the minister's coreligionaries—some 700,000 to 800,000, exclusive of the Alsatian Protestants. The Orthodox party menaces the Liberals with ministerial interference in favor of the Synod to which the latter so strenuously object; the Liberals can only say that General Chabaud-Latour is too high-minded a man to act as judge in questions in which he has a personal interest as a member of the Synod and of the Paris Consistory. A literary event in which both parties should take some satisfaction is announced in the *Renaissance* of July 18. This is the approaching publication of a new translation of the Bible by Professor Reuss, of the old faculty of Strassburg—a French scholar, so say his publishers, who was prior to 1870 an object of envy to Germany, and whom, after that date, she fondly counted upon as part of the booty of the conquered territory. His option, however, was for France, and so was that of MM. Sandoz and Fischbacher, who issue his prospectus. The work is not a small one. Besides the translation, it includes an introduction to each book, explanatory notes on the Old Testament, and a complete commentary on the New, making 12 to 15 volumes, or 7,000 pages octavo.

—The historian of Austria since 1848, Baron von Helfert, has recently issued a pamphlet—'Die Böhmische Frage in ihrer jüngsten Phase'—advising his countrymen of Bohemia to lay aside their passive policy of abstinence from imperial affairs, and to carry on their contest against the Austrian Government within the Government itself. The author professes the fullest sympathy with the objects of the anti-administration party in Bohemia, the maintenance of Bohemian nationality and the same degree of independence for Bohemia which is enjoyed by Hungary; he thinks, however, that the time has come when these objects can be best attained by a change of policy. The most interesting, or at least most novel, portion of the pamphlet is that in which he sketches the earlier constitutional struggles in Bohemia; from 1845 on, that is. Everybody knows something of the noble struggle of Hungary against Austrian despotism; it is not generally known, however, that Bohemia was likewise the seat of a vigorous and able constitutional resistance, which, like so many other promising movements, was brought to nought by the spasmodic revolution of 1848; but even after this there was a renewal and succession of similar efforts down to the present time. The history of these constitutional struggles is narrated by Baron von Helfert in a clear and interesting style and with the illustration of abundant documents.

DEMOCRATIC ILLUSIONS.*

MR. MORRIS'S sketch makes no pretensions to original research. It is a clear statement of the results of modern enquiry into the history of the great Revolution. But, though a book which cannot from its nature lay claim to originality, it is a very valuable and instructive essay. Mr. Morris (except in his far too favorable view of the influence of the Roman Catholic religion and the Roman Catholic hierarchy) has carefully followed the best and soundest modern authorities. He has the rare good sense to keep his head clear in treating of events which have generally seemed to affect injuriously the judgment of those who attemped to narrate them, and has kept in mind throughout his sketch the sound but constantly forgotten principle, that revolutionary crises must be examined and judged of, like all other periods, by the rules of ordinary common-sense and ordinary morality, and must not be looked at as times of miracle, when human nature puts forth unheard-of powers, and is freed from subjection to ordinary ethical rules. The belief, expressed in a thousand different forms, that revolutionary movements, because they display human nature in unaccustomed forms, and divested of some of the restraints of custom, have a virtually supernatural character, is the source of half the delusions which pervert modern views of the events which make up the history of France from 1789 to 1815. These transactions are wonderful enough in themselves, but imagination and sentiment have turned wonders into miracles, and have given birth to a whole host of democratic illusions and revolutionary legends. False theories have produced misconceptions of fact, and misconceptions of history have in their turn been made the basis of erroneous theories. Gradually a whole mass of errors has grown up which obscures our views of the past, misguides our judgment of the present, and leads to mistaken anticipations of the future. It is of course impossible, in a mere essay consisting of three hundred and odd pages, to confute and expose errors which can only be undermined by the judgment and industry of philosophic historians. But it is Mr. Morris's great merit to have at least pointed out to the notice of intelligent readers a number of delusions to which the history of the Revolution is supposed to give countenance. Thus, he has shortly noticed the indubitable fact that the Terrorists were, with the possible exception of Danton, not men of marked ability, and by this mere statement has given a fatal blow to the illusion that at periods of excitement, popular judgment being as it were inspired, the instinct of the people becomes a substitute for statesmanlike prudence. The notion, however, that a politician who commits great crimes must therefore be a great statesman is happily, in spite of declamation and sentimentality, being dispelled by the force of ordinary good sense and common moral feeling, and it is a proof that mankind does, after all, make some slight progress, that modern revolutionists have on the whole avoided the precedents of the guillotine and the *noyades*. It is of more consequence to call attention to other delusions which, to borrow the language of Bacon, may be termed revolutionary "idols," and are supposed to be supported by the facts of the great Revolution.

The most striking occurrence of the whole Revolutionary period is the repulse of the coalition by the arms of France. Make what deductions you will, the fact that the great military powers of Europe retreated before the half-organized levies of the French Republic; that the sovereigns who had sent forth their armies to restore the French king to power were defeated and routed, and their territories invaded by the Republicans whom they despised, remains, and always will remain, one of the marvels of history, bearing witness of the strength sometimes to be found in the national and political enthusiasm of an invaded people. But here, as elsewhere, a wonder has been transformed into a miracle. The received legend is that the armies of Europe set forth against France at a time when her forces were entirely dissolved, and that the European coalition was met by bodies of Republican volunteers who, under a Dumouriez, beat back the trained veterans of Austria and Prussia. The legend is undoubtedly grounded on fact, yet, taken alone, it is almost as misguiding as a pure fiction. France, it is forgotten, had been before the Revolution the great military nation of Europe. Her armies were in one sense dissolved when she was attacked by the coalition, because the result of the recent changes had been to break up the existing organization, but she was full of soldiers. Dumouriez's army was not by any means a mere volunteer force. He had in his ranks numbers of soldiers trained under the old régime. His troops, moreover, were as it was all but defeated, and defeated just because they consisted in great part of raw recruits. The men who in a year or two carried the tricolor into all the capitals of the Continent, exhibited in their first campaign all the defects of volunteers, and in spite of Dumouriez's generalship would have been routed had their opponents acted with vigor. For it is again forgotten, and this oversight is fatal to a true comprehension of the military history of the Revolution, that the coalition were not really united. If Brunswick in 1792 had been half as determined to reach Paris as was Blücher in 1814, the Prussians might, for all the heroic efforts of France, have crushed for a time the forces of the Revolution. Disunion among the allies, bad generalship on the part of Brunswick, and the existence of all the elements of military strength among the French nation, do not in the least deprive of their due fame national efforts which ought to be specially borne in mind at a time when there is a marked tendency to underrate the military prowess of France, but they do afford an explanation of the Revolutionary victories, and conclusively show that these successes lend no support to the idea that popular enthusiasm can of itself fit untrained vol-

* 'The French Revolution and First Empire: An Historical Sketch. By William O'Connor Morris.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1874.

unteers to meet bodies of trained veterans. "The efforts," writes Mr. Morris, "of France to resist her foes were heroic, and have hardly perhaps been ever surpassed, but should not blind by false illusions. The allies might without the least difficulty have entered Paris in the summer of 1793, and, memorable as its struggles were, the Revolution triumphed only through the divisions and negligence of its antagonists." This is the conclusion drawn by common-sense from the undoubted facts of the case. It is at once curious and melancholy to reflect that "illusions," based on erroneous views of history, have led revolutionary leaders of even such genius as Mazzini into errors of policy which resulted in the futile sacrifice of many of the best and bravest democrats of Europe.

The delusion that volunteers could meet trained veterans and defeat them by the force of mere enthusiasm, was no doubt an error; but it was an error clearly suggested by a superficial view of the facts of the great Revolution. It was in fact a mistake which could hardly be avoided by those who did not command the knowledge which the present generation possesses of the secret intrigues of the allied powers. A more curious, because far less plausible, illusion is to be found in the idea that in a popular insurrection the insurgents have a fair chance of defeating soldiers really inclined to use their arms. This notion is one which, till recently, was entertained by kings no less than by democrats. A student of the movements in 1848 will see that one crowned head after another yielded to mobs which might have been dispersed by the use of a very small body of troops whose fidelity could have been relied upon. Monarchs fell in panic dread of popular insurrection, just as democrats entertained superstitious belief in the certain success of hastily armed insurgents fighting behind barricades. The strange point is that the whole history of the revolutionary movements from 1789 down to 1870, gives scarcely any support whatever to the terror of monarchs or the confidence of revolutionists. What history does show is that troops cannot be relied upon to put down an insurrection with which they themselves sympathize. But history as conclusively shows both that trained soldiers will rarely, under proper guidance, fraternize with insurgents, and that, unless the troops desert, citizens have even under favorable circumstances no chance of success in a combat with a military force. During the whole of the great Revolution there were but few occasions on which the mob were met by troops really inclined to resist them. On the 10th of August, the Swiss would almost certainly have routed their antagonists if they had not been deserted by the king. On the 13th of Vendémiaire, Bonaparte showed that the famed sections of Paris could be put down by any general prepared to make use of grape-shot. The history of 1848 and of 1870 reads exactly the same lesson. Cavaignac suppressed the most formidable insurrection which Paris has witnessed by the use mainly of National Guards and of young Gardes Mobiles, drawn from the very populace against whom their arms were turned. The army which had been defeated on every battle-field of France, which was half-disorganized, and perhaps more than half-sympathized with the insurgents, was yet strong enough to put down the Commune, which had held possession of the capital for weeks, which had in its ranks numbers of trained soldiers, which commanded the services of at least one skilful commander, and was, moreover, supplied with arms, forts, and artillery. The triumphs of Garibaldi may perhaps be cited in proof of the strength to be found in volunteer levies, but Garibaldi was himself a first-rate guerilla leader. He was in his Sicilian campaign accompanied by military adventurers, and even there he triumphed rather by the sympathy of the armies sent against him than by the force of his own troops. He might have been foiled at last at Gaeta but for the aid of the Italian army, and Mentana bears witness how little his volunteers could effect against disciplined soldiers. It would in many respects be well for the chances of human freedom could rational men believe that a brave people could always in a last resort protect their liberties by insurrection. But experience proves that in war, as elsewhere, trained skill must triumph over untrained ignorance, and forbids the illusion that what is called the people rising in its might will be found to be anything else than a mob doomed to slaughter by its weakness.

The most deep-seated of all revolutionary delusions is the belief in the effect of words and phrases. How deeply rooted the belief is may be understood by any one who will observe with intelligence the history of modern revolutions. To many leaders it is quite clear that the word republic has come to possess a magic force. Within the last two years all the world has seen the Republicans of Spain refuse to support a monarch who sacrificed his position rather than break through his constitutional obligations, and who from his position was compelled to act as a supporter of political freedom and religious liberty. But Castelar preferred the uncertainties of revolution and a nominal republic to the reality of freedom under a constitutional monarch; and, whatever may be thought of his wisdom, acted in strict conformity with the revolutionary belief in the supreme consequence of words. This superstition or creed is obviously derived from the supposed facts of the First Revolution. It is certainly the case that words and formulas possessed or seem to have possessed at that period an influence which modern students find it hard to appreciate. The ground of this importance is probably at bottom that the revolutionary symbols, such as the pretentious dogmas of the rights of man, gave expression to the general feeling of European society, which at the end of the last century longed, and rightly longed, to get rid of the burdensome relics of feudalism. What was really important was not the formulas, but the sentiment to which the revolutionary dogmas appealed. As the French armies advanced on to foreign soil, they found themselves in the midst of populations who either actively welcomed, or at the lowest passively aided, armies which promised to bring deliverance from oppression. The rights of man, the proclamation of human equality, and the promise of universal fraternity, were in fact the passwords by which lovers of freedom recognized one another throughout the world. The greater part of European nations have now attained the kind of freedom for which at the end of the last century all rational men sighed, and, until the Revolution broke out, sighed in vain. The old forms and words have lost their meaning because the feeling which they expressed has more or less passed away. The history of the Revolution proves the force not of words, but of widespread sentiments. To believe in the magic effect of democratic formulas is to mistake the form for the substance, and to cherish the most dangerous because the most subtle of revolutionary delusions.

THE MAGAZINES FOR SEPTEMBER.

IN *Scribner's* Mr. John Burroughs writes some notes of travel. The name, "Mellow England," which he gives to the country which he visited, indicates the general impression produced on him by his journeyings, and this he pleasantly conveys; but the interest of his notes is their particularity—a recipe for interest which one might wish all travellers would have, did the world not know too well the kind of particulars to which nine in every ten of us would make the others listen. Mr. Burroughs, who is great in woodcraft, found his first refuge from the effects of his very inferior seamanship in watching for the birds that lighted in the ship's rigging. Not the sea-birds, with which he professes no sympathy, but the lost birds of the land which had disastrously missed their course: "No doubt," he thinks, "the number of our land-birds that actually perish in the sea during their autumn navigation, being carried far out of their course by the prevailing westerly winds of this season, is very great." On the other hand, if a land-bird perishes at sea, a sea-bird is equally shipwrecked on land, and Mr. Burroughs has known the Sooty Turn, with its almost omnipotent wing, to fall down in utter exhaustion two hundred miles from salt water; the want of food in this case doing what the combined want of food and of rest does in the case of land-birds cast away at sea. Making port and travelling through Southern England, Mr. Burroughs was first struck by the uninhabited character of the landscape and by its beauty as a garden; it seemed as if not only the land were tilled by gardeners, but as if the virtues of generations of gardeners had been worked into the soil itself. Then, returning to his birds, he wonders at the enormous number of them. He believes that were all the birds in the United States to be gathered into any two of the largest States they would not people the earth and air as Southern England—earth, water and sky—is peopled by its clouds of various kinds of fowl. Among these he by-and-by heard the sky-lark, and his description of its song, if not exactly that given by the poets, is worthy of the songster's repute. He makes bold, however, to doubt if poetry reports with exact accuracy when it loses the lark "at heaven's gate" in "a privacy of glorious light." About four hundred feet, this gratuitous sceptic thinks, is as high as those sky-larks went which he saw on the South Downs. He adds, however, that though he could follow the bird with his eye and see it all the while as it was making its greatest altitude, yet if he took his eye off he had a difficulty in finding his lark on looking for it again. He is candid enough to add further that perhaps in the spring-time, when the bird's heart is fullest of its impulse of song and its body fullest of strength—the time when the poets have naturally been busiest with it—the flight may be higher than in the autumn; and moreover, by reason of the lesser clearness of the vernal atmosphere, the bird may then more easily arrive at the point of invisibility. With the original statement as thus modified, no one will probably find fault. The sky-lark's song Mr. Burroughs found much less melodious than that of some of our birds, as for instance, that of the bobolink in the meadows, the vesper sparrow in the pastures, the purple finch in the groves, the winter wren, or any of the thrushes in the woods, or the wood-wagtail, whose song is like the sky-lark's, but even more rapid and ringing, and delivered in a similar manner. "But the wonder of it is its copiousness and sustained strength. . . . Our birds all stop when the sky-lark has only just begun. Away he goes on

quivering wing, inflating his throat fuller and fuller, mounting and mounting, and turning to all points of the compass, as if to embrace the whole landscape in his song, the notes still raining upon you as distinct as ever after you have left him far behind." So good are the words of a competent observer that, even after Jeremy Taylor and all the rest, this description which we have quoted will seem worth having. As regards other English matters than bird-songs, Mr. Burroughs is an observer and philosopher who requires not so much attention. All that he says is true, and evidently it is a record of individual impressions, but it is not often new or important. Among its other contents, the September *Scribner's* has Mr. Bret Harte's chat about a young Chinese boy whom he once knew; some account of our New York City Normal School, an institution of which most of us know nothing; Mr. Edward King's travels in Alabama and Mississippi; and a story by Miss Constance Woolson, noticeable for the raw coarseness of its assault on the feelings, and the unsteady, unskilful hand with which some commonplace figures of fiction are drawn. Our band of heart-wrenching female dealers in false feeling was never, we think, so numerous as now. Some of them are better, some worse, but all their performances, from Mrs. Harding Davis's down to "Saxe Holme's" and her companions, have the general truth of sentiment of a romance by the leading graduate of a young ladies' seminary. Their good effects on their writers and their readers may be guessed.

In the September *Atlantic*, Miss Woolson has another tale, wildly improbable, destitute of the truth of fact or the truth of fiction, which appears under the title of "The Lady of Little Fishing." It is of this as much as of her story in *Scribner's* that we are thinking when we speak of the large school of female writers to which she belongs, and of whom there is none who seems able to keep on her feet and write a moderate word when the reader's feelings are to be touched, by the display of the throbbing feelings of the characters. Of the uses of restraint and of the nature of reserve they seem to have really about as much conception as if they wrote letters for the Beecher-Tilton case; and of good sense as little. They are, in a strict and now obsolete sense of the word, indecent.

The *Atlantic* for September is not a very good number. Mr. Howells's story goes on; Prof. N. S. Shaler writes popularly, and with an occasional dip of the pen into the purple ink, about the moon; Mr. J. J. Jarves, with an evident fondness for the place, writes enthusiastically about an Italian village in the Apennines, and about its happy unsophisticate population; Mr. G. C. Eggleston describes the merits of the Confederate currency in a way that should please Mr. Bundy of Ohio; and there is, finally, a narrative of a journey in Chinese inland waters which attracts curiosity, but does so without repaying it. These articles are to be called fairly good, except Mr. Howells's, which is more than that; but apart from these and the book-reviews, the contents of the *Atlantic* are noticeable for other qualities than goodness or readability. Half-a-dozen of them together are such as to be considerably below the standard of poorer magazines than the *Atlantic*. There is nothing, for instance, in "A Vision of Lost Souls" which would seem capable of overbearing its resemblance to the very highly mannered "Blessed Damozel" of Mr. D. G. Rossetti. Two of the stanzas of "The Vision" we quote:

"And haply may God's Christ
Bend down from his high seat,
Or send his angels, who
Shall guide our wavering feet;
And cannot love's self make
Each bitter thing seem sweet?

"He stooped and kissed her hair
That glimmered golden red;
She leaned on him as when
On earth they two were wed;
And heaven was in her face
And peace—no word she said."

In the publication of such a poem as this in the *Atlantic* there appears to us to be a failure of taste and of judgment which is unaccountable, unless, indeed, it is intended that Mr. Bret Harte's remarkable imitation of Mr. Browning's "The Statue and the Bust" shall be followed in the magazine by similar excessively close imitations of all the celebrated pieces of contemporary poetry. The book-reviews of this month are of more variety and liveliness than usual, though not of more ability—Mr. Proctor, the English astronomical lecture-maker and book-maker, being talked about in a way to surprise and horrify Mr. James Redpath and all the other lecture-course agents and hundreds of thousands of the purchasers of the *Tribune's* "Lecture Extras."

All persons whom circumstances have thrown into the way of reading infinitely more magazine literature than falls to the lot of other human beings, will agree with us that while no one would say that *Lippincott's* is a magazine of great pretensions, or indeed of the greatest achievements in literature, there would nevertheless be difficulty in finding one in exchange for which they would more willingly throw away the matter, "cultured" or otherwise, turned out by the writers, great and small, of the other magazines. Doubtless the absence of pretension counts for much in bringing this about. A set comparison between the Philadelphia product and that of Boston and New York would probably show in the pages of the former a solid mass of the regulation article. But still there would also be found in *Lippincott's* a comparative freedom from staleness and familiar routine, which would command the good-will of the expert examiner. With the beginner the case would perhaps be different. This month Mr. Black's novel of "The Three Feathers" moves on; Mr. Adolphus Trollope contributes recollections of D'Azeglio, whom he greatly admired; "The Bearer of Despatches in London" is a tale which we imagine we must have dreamed before reading it here; "The New Hyperion" is as far from Paris as ever. In "Violins and Violin Players" persons interested may read an historic-anecdotical article of the kind periodically recurring in magazines, to the end, as we suppose, that each generation may know as much about violins (or Malays running a-muck, or the leaning tower of Pisa, or the Thugs, or the Austrian salt-mines, or the comparative longevity of animals, or Edmund Kean, or the great organ at Haarlem, or what not) as was known to the generation preceding it.

Old and New publishes an essay to which on its promised appearance in another form we may be able to give due attention, in which it is attempted to show that the character of Tiberius has been grossly and inconsistently blackened by Tacitus, and that the Emperor, neither tyrant nor debauchee, has for ages been made the victim of senatorial hate. The essayist, a Professor Huidekoper, is much in earnest, and evidently has satisfied one man of the good character of his hero.

Mr. Richard Grant White, in the *Galaxy*, discourses of the Abbé Liszt and his music. In what degree of esteem Mr. White holds this composer the reader learns very readily: "That dreariest of composers, Franz Liszt," whose compositions "remind us of some sermons that we all have heard, in which the doctrine was orthodox, the sentences well put together, the language pure, the illustrations scholarly, and the result barrenness"—Liszt, who "has probably covered more music-paper with his writings than Mozart and Beethoven did together" (having been working at music for more than fifty years), "and in all that time has not produced one musical idea that is worth one of the buttons on one of his old velvet paletots—not one which has character enough, even in its badness, to be recognized as one of his"—Liszt, of whom it is true to say that "the more he writes and the harder he works, the more does the stony sterility of his mind appear"; "who spends the first part of a movement in announcing that something is coming that never comes, and the last in subsiding from a climax that has never been reached"; who, finally, "for every deed of his not done on the piano-stool ought to sit on the stool of repentance." If Liszt, both as composer and as a life-long monument of curious affectation and indulged petty insolence, moves Mr. White to wrath, he is little better pleased with the Abbé when he thinks of him as a champion of "the music of the future," although he believes Liszt's proper place to be in Herr Wagner's camp, and believes, moreover, that Liszt's friendly patronage of Wagner was much to his personal credit. But still, in Mr. White's view, a musician who professes a devotion to the music of the future is simply a musician who is ignorant of the first principles of the art of which he wishes to be a practitioner, and, as such, is in heresy and schism; the latter part of his essay is therefore as warm as the former part, and, if the former will be disliked in the Conservatories, the latter will call to arms many loud-clanging warriors who follow Mr. Theodore Thomas in the cause of Wagnerism.

Other articles in the *Galaxy* are one by General Custer, and the first half of a depreciatory sketch of Marshal MacMahon, by M. Elie Reclus. M. Reclus is republican enough to think monarchs an infamous class of creatures, and of MacMahon he is free to assert that while at Metz Bazaine betrayed only the Empire, at Sedan MacMahon betrayed France. General Custer is as verbose as usual, and writes with an attention to the judicious breaking-up of his narrative into magazine lengths which does not savor very much of the camp, and, indeed, it may be the magazine office that is responsible for this. As for the verbosity and other defects of writing, they will no doubt maintain themselves in use among our literary army-officers till English is reasonably well taught at the Academy—if not afterwards, in fact.

Of *Harper's* we may say that the reader not having a monthly familiarity with the magazine will find in the September number an article on the materials used in making a long list of perfumes, the method of their preparation, and other points of interest about them. The *Catholic World* for this month contains nothing of interest to the secular reader.

The Centennial Gazetteer of the United States. By A. von Steinwehr, A.M. (Philadelphia: Zeigler & McCurdy.)—This work derives its chief

and exceptional value from the fact that it is the most recent of its kind. Its list of names is therefore more complete and its statistics more trustworthy, the compiler having had the benefit of the results of the Ninth Census. The typographical execution is very good indeed. Some fifty pages of description of the United States serve as an introduction, and deal in a competent manner with the physical geography of the country, its population, industries, etc., ending with an outline of the form of government, and a condensed history from the session of the first Colonial Congress. In discussing the present white population, General von Steinwehr roughly estimates the number of Anglo-Saxons at 8,340,000; Germans, of all countries, 8,930,000; Dutch and Scandinavians, 728,000, or a total of 17,998,000. The Celts, principally Irish, amount to 10,255,000; the Romanic nations to 1,016,000; and all other nationalities to 4,326,000, leaving a balance of about 2,400,000 in favor of the Germanic stock. "Were the fusion of these diverse elements complete, then, of 100 drops of American blood, 25 would be Anglo-Saxon, 27 German, 2 Dutch or Scandinavian, 30½ Celtic, 3 Romanic, and 12½ uncertain." Our distressingly unregulated town nomenclature is made apparent on every page of this gazetteer. As an example we take the name of *Lincoln*, which we might naturally suppose to have multiplied since 1861. In the first edition of Lippincott's Gazetteer the name occurs fourteen times in the United States, and in the appendix to the revised edition of 1865–6 thirteen times—in all, twenty-seven. It is specially mentioned under Lincoln, the capital of Logan Co., Illinois, that "this place, the origin of which is quite recent, was named in honor of President Abraham Lincoln." Now comes the 'Centennial Gazetteer' with upwards of 115 towns, townships, and counties called Lincoln, and it is probably fair to assume that the increase (about ten per annum) is almost wholly due to the same motive which determined the naming of the Illinois town. It is further to be remarked that Iowa, which had but one Lincoln in 1866, now endures the confusion of twenty-five.

Compendious Dictionary of the French Language. French-English; English-French. By Gustave Masson. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.)—Purchasers of this handy volume will get the usual vocabulary and definitions in a compact and clearly-printed form, but in place of the usual pronunciation of the French words their etymologies, as given by Littré, Schéler, and Brachet. This feature is carried still further in a separate list of the principal diverging derivations in the language, taken from Brachet's 'Dictionnaire des Doublets,' as, for example, *catafalque* and *échafaud*, from Low Latin *catafalcus; Cravate* and *Croate; nombre* and *numéro; libération* and *livraison (liberationem)*, etc. But above all will be valued the tables prefixed to the Dictionary proper. These are: (1) Chronological tables of the history of French literature from the ninth century to the Second Empire. Not only the chief writers, but the momentous political events of each period, are enumerated, and its characteristic literature analyzed, with groups of writers and titles of works which it is extremely convenient to have in such small compass for ready reference. Another very useful list is (2) that of the principal chronicles and memoirs on the history of France from the days of Villehardouin (1160–1213) to the present time, ending with the Comte Philippe de Ségur's 'Histoire et Mémoires.' Then follow (3) a synoptical table of the principal *chansons de geste* composed in the *langue d'oïl*, indicating those which have been printed; (4) a synoptical table of the French mediæval dialects, after M. Fallot; (5) a chronological list of the principal French newspapers published during the Revolution and the First Empire; (6) a concordance of the French Republican calendar with the Gregorian; and (7) the Republican calendar itself. It will be seen that the dictionary is no ordinary compilation, and that its merits recommend it to all who seriously undertake the study of French.

Famous Trials. The Tichborne Claimant; Troppman; Prince Pierre Bonaparte; Mrs. Wharton; The Meteor; Mrs. Fair. By John T. Morse, jr. (Boston: Little, Brown & Company. 1874.)—Mr. Morse has, in this collection of essays (mainly reprinted from the *Law Review*) made an entertaining contribution to a kind of literature which stands midway between history and the newspaper criminal reports—not quite as pretentious as the former kind of writing has in these later days become, not so dry and detailed as the latter. The stories of the various trials are told in an entertaining and vivid manner, and if they do not add much to our previous knowledge of the subject, they are presented in an entertaining way. The longest and most elaborate of course is that of the Tichborne Claimant, while the most strictly novel and foreign to American readers are those of Troppman and Prince Bonaparte, giving as they do some insight into the peculiar judicial proceedings which in France are considered as conducive to the elucidation of truth. The French judge, bullying and browbeating not only the witnesses, but the prisoner at the bar, or it may be sustaining and encouraging him if he is a prisoner of the right kind, is one of those social monstrosities to which the Anglo-Saxon reader can only reconcile himself by reflecting that the prisoner and witnesses, as well as the judges, are French.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Allen (J. H. & W. F.) and Greenough (J. B.), Cæsar's Gallic War, Books I.–IV.	(Ginn Bros.)	
Butler (N.), Grammar of the English Language	(J. P. Morton & Co.)	
Cox (G. W.), The Crusades	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	$1 00
Frere (J. H.), Works in Prose and Verse, 3 vols.	(A. Denham & Co.)	7 50
Henn (Dr. P.), Ahn's Series of French and German School-Books	(E. Steiger)	
Ahn's French and German Reading Charts	(E. Steiger)	
MacGinley (T. C.), Introduction to General Biology	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	0 75
Marsh (G. P.), The Earth as Modified by Human Action	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Petermann (K.), Literaturgeschichtliches Lesebuch, Vol. 2	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Pennell (R. F.), Ancient Greece	(John Allyn)	1 00
Schuckers (J. W.), Life of S. P. Chase	(D. Appleton & Co.)	5 00
Seebohm (F.), The Era of the Protestant Revolution	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 00
Trafton (Adeline), Katherine Earle: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard)	
The Ancient Nation	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Trotter (L. J.), History of India	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Wordsworth (Dorothy), Tour in Scotland, 1803	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 50
Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin, No. 51, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, August 31, 1874.

MONEY on call continues very abundant at 2 and 3 per cent., with the bulk of business doing at 2½ per cent. Commercial paper is in good demand at 5 and 6 per cent. for prime loans having a short time to run, while that running 3 and 4 months sells readily at 6 and 7 per cent.

Cable advices report a further reduction of ½ per cent. on the Bank of England rate of discount—the rate now standing at 3 per cent. The Bank lost £537,000 in bullion for the week ending on Thursday last.

The weekly statement of the Clearing House Banks on Saturday was favorable, the important features being the loss of $916,800 in specie, and gain of $1,391,200 in legal tenders. The surplus reserve shows a gain of $440,400 as compared with that of the previous week.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	August 22.	August 29.	Differences.	
Loans	$278,576,000	$278,319,800	Dec..	$256,200
Specie	19,554,900	18,638,100	Dec..	916,800
Legal tenders	65,891,400	67,282,600	Inc..	1,391,200
Deposits	234,864,100	235,000,100	Inc..	136,000
Circulation	25,820,000	25,803,300	Dec..	16,700

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 22.	August 29.	Differences.	
Specie	$19,554,900	$18,638,100	Dec..	$916,800
Legal tenders	65,891,400	67,282,600	Inc..	1,391,200
Total reserve	$85,446,300	$85,920,700	Inc..	$474,400
Reserve required against deposits	58,716,025	58,750,025		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	26,730,275	27,170,675	Inc..	440,400

The stock market, which opened strong and buoyant on Monday, subsequently became dull and heavy, and finally closed on Saturday at the lowest figures of the week. The chief feature of the market in the downward movement was Wabash, which was seriously hammered by the bears, who made use of the reported falling off in the earnings of the road as a means of depressing its market price. The decline in Wabash was equal to 2⅞ per cent., and the decline on the balance of the list ranged from ¾ to 2 per cent., the principal dealings being in Union Pacific, Lake Shore, Western Union, and Pacific Mail.

The market to-day was active, especially for Erie, which sharply advanced from 32¾ to 34⅛, in sympathy with the market in London, where an upward movement is being engineered. The advance in Erie is said to be based upon the recent closing-out in London of a loan for the Company, which was only partially subscribed for under the old management, but, when reopened by the new management, was promptly taken. The indications are, judging from the looks of the market to-night, that an upward movement in Erie has commenced, which bids fair to carry the quotation up to 40 before it is over.

The feature in the railroad-bond market has been the Income bonds of the Union Pacific R. R. Co. Of the original ten millions of these bonds, seven millions have been converted into the third mortgage 8 per cent. bonds, which the Company recently offered to give in exchange to the holders of the former at the rate of $12,000 of the new bonds for $10,000 of the Incomes. The Incomes fall due September 1, and it is said that, unless the Company pays the face value of the remaining unconverted bonds in cash, legal proceedings will be commenced to compel the Company to do so. We understand that the Company holds to its determination not to pay the bonds in cash, and will, if necessary, stand suit in the matter. During the early part of the week, the Incomes advanced to 87¼, but subsequently, when an effort was made to sell, the price quickly dropped to 85, the bonds being offered at that this afternoon with no bid.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, August 29, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	102¾ 103⅜	.... 102⅞	102⅜ 102⅜	102¼ 102⅜	102¼ 102⅝	101⅜ 102½	10,900
Lake Shore.....	74⅜ 74⅞	74⅛ 74⅜	73⅜ 74⅛	73¼ 73⅞	73⅜ 73⅝	73 73⅜	107 800
Erie.....	32⅜ 33⅛	32¼ 32⅝	31½ 32	31⅜ 31⅞	31⅜ 32⅛	31¼ 32⅛	24,900
Union Pacific.....	29½ 29⅞	29¼ 29⅝	28⅞ 29⅛	28⅜ 29	28⅜ 29	27⅜ 28⅛	64,400
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N. J. Central.....	.... 106⅜	 106	.... 105½	 106	.... 105⅞	....	500
Rock Island.....	102½ 103⅜	102⅛ 102⅞	101⅝ 102⅛	101¼ 101⅞	101¼ 101⅝	100⅜ 101⅛	28,900
Mil. & St. Paul....	36 36⅞	35⅝ 36¼	35⅜ 35⅞	35½ 35½	.... 35½	34⅜ 35¼	2,900
Do. pfd...	54½ 54⅞	54⅛ 54½	.... 54⅜	.... 54½	 54	....	....
Wabash.....	37 37⅝	36⅞ 37¼	36½ 36⅞	35⅜ 36⅜	35 36½	33⅝ 33⅝	48,600
D., L. & W.....	.... 108½	 109	108⅜ 109	.... 108⅜	.... 108⅜	 109	1,900
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Pacific Mail	47¼ 48⅛	47½ 48¼	47⅝ 48⅛	47⅜ 47⅝	47½ 47⅝	47⅜ 47⅝	70,700

In Government bonds prices have been well maintained in the face of only a moderate demand for home account. Prices closed a fraction higher than last week. The following are the closing quotations to-night:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c.....	118½	118⅝	Registered 5-20, 1867, c.....	117⅝	117¾
Registered 5-20, 1862, c.....	112¼	112⅜	Registered 5-20, 1868, c.....	117⅝	118
Registered 5-20, 1864, c.....	115⅞	116¼	Registered 10-40's, c.....	114⅜	114⅝
Registered 5-20, 1865, M and N.	116⅞	117⅛	Registered 5's of 1881..	112⅝	112⅝
Registered 5-20, 1865, J and J..	116⅜	116⅝	U. S. Currency 6's.....	117¾	118

The quotations for gold have ranged between 109⅝ to 110. The short interest in gold is considerable, and is indicated by the fact that a small bonus was paid for its use at different times during the week. At the Treasury sale of $1,000,000 on Thursday, the total amount bid for was $4,470,000, which shows that there is a good demand for it. The shipments for the week were inconsiderable in amount, and mostly of foreign specie *in transitu*.

The following shows the range of quotations for every day during the week ending August 29:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Aug. 24.....	110	110	109⅞	109⅞
Tuesday, Aug. 25.....	110	110	109⅝	109⅝
Wednesday, Aug. 26.....	109⅝	109¾	109⅝	109⅝
Thursday, Aug. 27..	109⅝	109¾	109⅝	109¾
Friday, Aug. 28.....	109¾	109¾	109¾	109¾
Saturday, Aug. 29.....	109¾	109¾	109⅝	109¾

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 10, 1874.

The Week.

THE President has determined to put a stop to the disturbances in the South by the use of all means in his power; and has given general directions to the Attorney-General and the Secretary of War to take what steps may be necessary in the premises. The Attorney-General has accordingly issued a circular to United States attorneys and marshals, calling their attention to the provisions of the Civil Rights Bill, passed April 9, 1866, the Enforcement Act, passed May 30, 1870, and the Ku-klux Act, passed April 20, 1871, which, with their amendments, he says, "make these deeds of violence and blood offences within the jurisdiction of the General Government." He directs them to spare no pains to arrest and punish the perpetrators of outrages, informs them that troops will be established at convenient points to give them all the aid they may need, and warns them not to interfere in politics, but devote themselves to the protection of the lives and property of all classes of citizens. The President's letter to General Belknap reads well enough, and the reference to the Attorney-General is no doubt intended to produce an impression on the public mind of law-abiding intentions at Washington.

Unfortunately, the Attorney-General has not much of the confidence of the public, and his caution about interference in politics will not tend to strengthen what there is of it. Comparing his circular with the laws referred to in it, it looks as if the Attorney-General had not yet made himself familiar with the contents of these acts. The second section of the Enforcement Act provides that whenever in any State or Territory any act is required by law as a "prerequisite or qualification for voting," and by the local laws any "persons or officers" are "charged with the performance of duties in furnishing to citizens an opportunity to perform such prerequisite, or to become qualified to vote," it shall be the duty of any such official to furnish such opportunity to such citizens alike, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition of servitude; the penalties for refusal or wilful omission being a liability in damages to the amount of $500, with costs and allowances to the aggrieved citizen, and also a criminal prosecution with the penalty of fine and imprisonment. Another section makes it a misdemeanor for any person to interfere with the right of voting in various ways, and enumerates such as threats of depriving voters of employment or occupation, of ejecting them from rented houses or lands, and of refusal to renew leases or contracts for labor. How this law is to be enforced without a very minute supervision of local politics we do not know, and indeed, considering that the application to the President for troops comes chiefly from notorious Southern politicians like Kellogg, and on the eve of important elections, the whole thing looks like a disingenuous attempt to bring about political ends under cover of a laudable effort at the preservation of the peace.

The Southerners are apparently learning, however, that it will be well for their own interests to discontinue lawlessness, and that the effect of Southern outrages of any kind is to strengthen the hands of the Republican party. As an instance of this, we may mention the fact that the Republican chieftains in this State are reported to be rubbing their hands over the Coushatta affair and other disturbances, and maintaining that the Democrats are not so strong here now as they were six weeks ago. The Coushatta murders are not fully explained yet, but it seems to be established that the "Conservatives" in that part of the country, having come to the conclusion that the blacks were engaged in a conspiracy against the whites assembled in force and demanded the resignation of the Republican office-holders, who were all, or nearly all, white. They then proceeded to convey these office-holders out of the State or to some distant point; but while on their way a "rescuing" party appeared, took the prisoners, and immediately put them to death. Whether there was any real negro conspiracy, whether the escort behaved in good faith, or who the murderers were, will probably never be determined. The *Tribune* has a report that the President has decided upon a plan of action with regard to Southern Federal appointments which ought to have a better effect than the Enforcement or the Ku-klux Acts in quieting the South. This is nothing else than to turn out of office all the incompetent officials who owe their commissions to the Republican Senators, and are scattered over the South in great numbers, and fill their places with new and suitable men—and to do this whether the Senators agree to it or not.

The Vermont election passed off very quietly, the Republicans carrying the State by a large majority, as usual. Public interest principally centred in the Congressional Districts. In the District hitherto so well represented by Mr. Willard, the regular nominee, Mr. Charles H. Joyce, was rewarded for his fatiguing campaign by an election; while Judge Poland has been defeated through dissatisfaction caused by the spectacle of his recent career in Congress. Judge Poland, as far as one can make him out from his own speeches and Congressional proceedings, represents a class of politicians who in some way contrive by their curious attitude in all important matters to make respectability itself disreputable. Mr. Poland has had a good enough reputation, and in deportment he is said to be irreproachable; he never does anything in Congress hastily or angrily; never gives his fellow-members the lie direct, never shakes his fist in their faces, but on all occasions conducts himself in a dignified and strictly parliamentary manner; he is an educated man, also; nevertheless, he is best known to the public at present as the author of the "Poland Gag-law" and of the Crédit-Mobilier report, and the defender of the "Back-pay grab." This dubious record has ruined him in Vermont, and another election will be held to choose his successor—the first having resulted in no choice. In the second, a plurality will suffice, and to all appearances the man who at present stands the best chance is well fitted in every way to fill the vacancy.

The People's Convention in Missouri, as it is called, has been held, has adopted a platform, and made nominations. The resolutions declare that long and painful experience has taught the people of Missouri the folly of confusing local affairs with those relating to the National Government and of electing State officers on partisan issues; demand the suppression of lawlessness and mob violence, "without regard to popular feeling"; denounce "proscription" for political differences of opinion; declare that to encourage emigration and investment the State needs a "faithful enforcement of the law." They demand strict fidelity to obligations of all kinds, oppose the increase of the State debt, and make noncommittal declarations on the subject of transportation and the currency—the hard-money men in the convention avoiding a struggle over the last question as being a "national issue," though it is not apparent why as a national issue it is spoken of at all. The material of the convention was thoroughly popular, and as the Republicans have since resolved not to make any nominations, the chances of success of the Independent movement have suddenly become very good. Mr. Gentry, the "People's" candidate for governor, is a wealthy farmer. Among the resolutions we notice one which indicates the tide of public feeling as to the value of our legislative bodies. One of the

planks in the platform declares the convention in favor of a constitutional provision requiring a session of the Missouri Legislature only once in four years, "unless in case of emergency." The Ohio Republicans have renominated their State officers, and adopted a platform "reaffirming the principles" of the Republican party, declaring for a tariff for revenue with incidental protection, denouncing all forms of repudiation, demanding the restoration of specie payments "gradually but certainly," and condemning the Southern outrages.

A correspondent writes to us from Massachusetts to say that there is grave reason for supposing General Cogswell, who has announced his willingness to run against Butler for the Congressional nomination in his district, to be really a Butler man in disguise. We had noticed this story already as one of the perplexities of Massachusetts politics, and take this opportunity of saying that we do not profess to have an intimate acquaintance with all the ins and outs of Butlerite politics, and do not know on what foundation the rumors about General Cogswell rest. But we have never seen any substantial proof of their truth, and there is no doubt whatever that the declaration of principles recently made by him is one of the very few straightforward, honest, and enlightened expressions of opinion about really important questions that have appeared for a long time from the benighted district represented at Washington by Butler. It is a platform to which a constituency can hold a man, which is more than can be said of most platforms, and it seems to us almost beyond the bounds of belief that its author could be in secret alliance with Butler. If he is, there ought to be some proof of it; for in that case, he is one of the most enormous hypocrites and rascals now at large in the United States, which is not exactly the character he has generally borne among his acquaintances hitherto. Of course, if a better man can be found, there will be no reason for nominating General Cogswell.

The discovery of gold in the Black Hills has caused a good deal of excitement in some parts of the West, and there are stories of the formation of expeditions at Sioux City and Yankton for the invasion of the country. General Sheridan has taken means to prevent this, by issuing an order directing the arrest of any persons concerned in violation of the Indian treaties in such an attempt, the burning of their trains, and destruction of their outfit. The Black Hills country really belongs to the Indians, and the Government is greatly to blame for the publicity it has given to the gold discoveries. The expedition of General Custer seemed from the outset—provided, as it was, with sensational correspondents, and led by a military man acting as chief of the corresponding staff—as if almost designed to bring about the very invasion which General Sheridan is now trying to prevent. There could certainly be no better way devised of sending off half of the desperadoes of Sioux City or Yankton towards the Black Hills. It is fortunate for General Custer that he is not in the "political arena"; if he were, the letters and despatches would probably be explained as the result of an arrangement with the gold-men, and exceptionally wise statesmen would be shaking their heads over him as having been, like so many others, "bought up." We suppose the real explanation is to be found in the reckless disregard for professional etiquette of any kind that distinguishes the conduct of the Government.

The *Tribune* has a correspondent in the West who sends on nearly every week, besides much useful information about the railroads, some curious scraps of Granger morality and philosophy. In a recent letter, in defence of the Potter law, he explains that large numbers of farmers in the State mortgaged their farms in order to buy stock in new railroads, which afterwards borrowed money on mortgages, and then the mortgages were foreclosed and the farmers' stock became worthless. He argues, therefore, that there is "something wrong" in all this, and that the farmers who have sustained these terrible losses are now justified "in fighting the railroads." What this means is simply that the farmers foolishly borrowed money to invest in railroads, which they lost. Hundreds, if not thousands, of people in this city are to-day exactly in this predicament. They have lost heavily by buying the stock of new roads, which the mortgagees, who were entire strangers to the original transaction, have taken away from them under a lawful contract. Now, what would be said if they were to assemble in large crowds at the offices of the companies, with sticks and stones, and declare that the bondholders must receive no interest, or have it reduced, in order to reimburse the poor fellows who had lost their money in the speculation? Is it possible that there is one code of morality and of mercantile usage for the Holy Farmer, and another for the poor trader or lawyer or mechanic? Why is it lawful for an unfortunate speculator to rob railroads in the West because he has lost money in them, any more than here? If a New York artisan buys a Milwaukee and St. Paul bond, valid under the law of the land, why has he to share his interest with a Wisconsin Granger who years ago speculated unfortunately in the stock, any more than with an unlucky railroad man here?

The general dearth of topics of interest in the newspapers shows what a godsend the Beecher-Tilton case was. It is almost painful to see the meagreness of the items which the reporters are now able to pick up about it. In their distress they have already published the verification of the answer filed by Mr. Beecher in Tilton *vs.* Beecher, the certificate attached to the jurat, and the acknowledgment of service made by the plaintiff's lawyers. The only hope now is that Moulton will speedily produce that second "statement," which is daily expected. In the meantime, we must request Plymouth Church to stop praying publicly for Tilton. This disgusts the community, which is already much nauseated, and does Tilton no good. Plymouth Church has had charge of his moral and religious training, and has failed in it so miserably that we are confident that no petition it now utters about him will receive any attention. The affair has produced some very curious suggestions for the regulation of the relations of the clergy with their flocks, amongst others, one that the minister's unfortunate wife should accompany him wherever he pays pastoral visits. It would seem to be plain enough that if pastors need surveillance in their domestic intercourse with their flocks, they ought to stop visiting. All remedies for evils such as are here hinted at have to be radical. The only thorough protection against being drowned is avoidance of water; and if ministers have to be watched when they call on ladies, the only adequate remedy is the cessation of calls.

The revival of the fall trade has, during the past few weeks, been a prominent subject of public discussion, and great and commendable activity has been displayed by reporters, and all connected with the press, in collecting facts bearing on the condition of business. The difficulty with these reports has been, not so much that they have been too complete, as that they have been, perhaps, too full of earnestness and fire, and hence now and then contradictory. We believe, however, that it is established that the fall trade has on at least one, if not two occasions, been entirely revived, though unfortunately, on the days when this took place, owing to the lack of effective means for keeping the movement going, and the absence of ready communication between the centres of business (the revival having come to a head toward sunset, and between the publication of the evening and the morning papers), it died out again after a few hours. A survey of all the evidence collected with regard to the arrivals of jobbers at the hotels, the bidding at auction sales, the announcement of withdrawals of foreclosure sales of real estate, will convince any impartial man that if there is not a sudden permanent revival of trade very soon, it will not be because the subject has not been thoroughly studied. One source of information, however, has as yet escaped observation;

and, for the benefit of the profession, we feel that we ought to call attention to it—and that is, the large boxes and packing-cases now standing in such great numbers on the Broadway sidewalks, in front of leading dry-goods establishments. We have not examined into the contents of these boxes, but this might easily be done after dark. If they were found to contain a "full line of dry-goods," they might be considered a distinct evidence of prosperity; if, on the other hand, they turned out to be empty, we do not know exactly what light the discovery would throw on anything, but we have that confidence in the ability of our brothers in the way of making inferences and generalizations that we have no doubt the discovery would prove to convey some valuable lessons. We should like, ourselves, to know what is in the boxes, and we think the public has a right to know.

The English papers, some even of those best acquainted with American politics, seem to be laboring under the idea that General Grant is determined by hook or by crook to get himself nominated for a third time. Even the *Spectator* fancies that if he cannot induce the Republicans to set him up, he will throw himself into the arms of the Democrats. After what the Democrats did in Greeley's case, it is of course not wonderful that foreigners should think it likely that they would undertake the job of putting Grant in the Presidency once more; but surely the result in Greeley's case ought to make it clear that no such candidate would have any chance of success. There is a public outside the ranks of both parties which punishes all such absurdities sternly, however carefully they may have been prepared at primary meetings and conventions. The "third term movement" never had any root in public opinion, and never received any countenance outside newspaper offices. General Grant cannot be either elected or nominated a third time, and he probably knows it. Even if the people wanted him, the politicians would not have him. He is no longer a winning card, and besides this, all the managers are satisfied that the time is coming for "a new deal." His return to private life is therefore certain, in spite of the dying out of all active opposition to him. From this he has been saved by his veto, and by the discovery that whether the Currency Bill means inflation or contraction, nobody has yet noticed any effects from it either way. In fact, the "Potter law" in Wisconsin is the one tangible result of all the "reform" movements which have been attempted under the Grant régime, and this reminds one of the mediæval priest who used to strip travellers on his way to say mass.

A controversy has been raging in England for two or three weeks, and occupying a large share of public attention, over the question whether a Wesleyan minister is entitled to prefix "Rev." to his name. A Wesleyan minister named Keet put up a headstone in the parish churchyard at his daughter's grave, on which he described her as the daughter of the "Rev. H. Keet, Wesleyan Minister." To the "Rev." the vicar objected, addressing himself to the stone-cutter, and refusing to hold any communication whatever with Mr. Keet himself. Whereupon the latter appealed to the Bishop, Dr. Wordsworth, who passes for a sensible and able man, but he sided with the vicar. Mr. Keet then went to the Archbishop of Canterbury, who condemned the vicar's conduct, and addressed Mr. Keet as "Rev.," and very courteously. The Bishop, however, stood his ground, and Mr. Keet then went before the public with the correspondence. The Bishop's position is that "Rev." is a title which belongs exclusively to the clergy of the Anglican Church, and that it is therefore wrong and inexpedient to give it to ministers of any other denomination, and he persistently addressed Mr. Keet as "Mr. Keet, Wesleyan preacher." The public appear, however, to have only one opinion about the matter, and that is that the conduct of the vicar was arrogant, ill-bred, and unlawful, and that the Bishop is all at sea in his logic, law, and social philosophy. A whole band of writers have rushed into print, showing that nobody is entitled legally to the prefix "Rev.," and that it is purely a title of courtesy; that its application even to Episcopal clergymen is of comparatively recent date; that it is officially given to ministers or religious teachers of all denominations; and that the vicar had no right to meddle with the headstone on this ground. The case is going into court, and there have been plenty of warnings addressed to the Bishop on the danger to the Church establishment of exasperating Dissenters about matters which are of no real importance to the Church, and in fact furnish materials for nothing better than petty insults.

Father Hyacinthe has resigned his charge at Geneva, on the ground that while he thought only of reforming the Catholic Church, he had to do with men who wished to found a new church, and were, in short, radicals rather than liberals. The Superior Council of the Reformed Catholic Church has accepted the resignation, and, having discussed it, ended by passing a series of resolutions condemning it. There are, it says, only three things which can have given him dissatisfaction—the laws for the organization of worship; the principles of the reform movement; or a disposition on the part of priests or people to destroy the basis of Catholicism. As for the laws, they relate only to the secular interests of the church, and Father Hyacinthe voted for them, as a member of the council, and swore to obey them as curé. As to the principles of the reform movement—opposition to Ultramontanism, abolition of sacerdotal celibacy and of auricular confession, and the conduct of worship in the vernacular, which Father Hyacinthe has preached—the Reformed Catholic Church has adopted and holds to them all. If there be any movement against them on the part of clergy or people, Father Hyacinthe, more than any other man, the council says, is responsible for it, but there is no such movement. With this they dismissed his case. In the meantime, he has gone into "retreat" in the mountains. It looks a little as if the Father was somewhat impracticable, if not unstable; timid he undoubtedly is.

In France there is nothing new. The Permanent Committee, which sits as lieutenant of the Assembly, hauls the Ministry over the coals about administrative details. Some members protest against certain suppressions of newspapers; others against certain arbitrary arrests; others against the recognition of Spain, and some keep a sharp lookout on the Bonapartist speeches and circulars. The election in Normandy, on which we have commented elsewhere, has greatly stimulated the activity of the Imperialists, and another election, which is fixed for the 13th inst., in the Department of Maine-et-Loire, is looked forward to with great interest. The *Univers* has been suspended for attacking Serrano, and in fact the press appears to have been rarely in hotter water.

The Government of Spain has been recognized by the great powers, which has given an amount of satisfaction at Madrid of which it is difficult for outsiders to see the reason. But the fact is that the non-recognition gave great encouragement to the Carlists, who were thus able to treat themselves as standing on an equal footing before the world with Serrano's Government, and apparently somewhat shook the confidence of the Madrid people in themselves. At all events, there has been within the last week or two a considerable revival in the activity of the operations against the Carlists, but as yet with no important results. The general muddle which followed Marshal Concha's defeat brought about a change of ministry, the only important feature of which is that it will probably send Moriones into the field again against the Carlists in place of Zabala. Puigcerda, which the Carlists have been besieging, has been relieved, and they are entrenching themselves once more about Bilbao. The French Government has at last taken vigorous measures to close the frontier to Carlist supplies.

AN "OFF-YEAR" IN NEW YORK.

IT sometimes seems as if the citizens of the United States had come to the disheartening conclusion that only once in about four years, when a President is to be elected, can popular feeling or belief have the slightest chance of influencing any nominating convention; and as if, as a consequence of this conclusion, they had made up their minds that during the intervening years they might as well let politics take care of themselves; let the politicians nominate with a view to their own convenience; let the platforms be drawn up with a single eye to the same object; and let the result of the vote be determined very much by the state of the weather on the day of election. Certainly, the four millions of innocent people whose votes in November will decide whether the State of New York is to be a Republican or Democratic State for the next year or so have probably, at the present moment, no very definite idea of what work their leaders are now engaged in; indeed, we may go further than this, and say that if they want to know they will find it extremely difficult to get any information. Beyond the fact that the Republicans have decided to renominate General Dix (supposing this to be a settled fact), we at least do not know that any one thing is determined upon. This certainly does not come from the unimportance of the election this autumn, either in the number of the candidates or what used to be called the dignity of the offices; there are no less than fifty-nine offices of all sorts to be filled, and of these two are judicial offices with large salaries; a governor is to be elected, a mayor for the largest city in the United States, and half-a-dozen members of Congress are to be chosen; and as there are three nominating conventions to be held, we may have in the field one hundred and seventy-seven candidates all told.

But, although it is difficult to gain any precise or accurate information about the movements or intentions of the political leaders, it is by no means difficult to get information and rumors which by their amount and variety make up for any other defects. Giving up all hope of accuracy, therefore, we will state the case as impartial rumor has it.

The next Legislature of this State will have to elect a senator to succeed Mr. Fenton, and as there is great doubt about the relative strength of the Republicans and Democrats, the main question which the politicians are at present considering is not, as the public foolishly suppose, who is to be governor, or mayor, or judge of the Court of Appeals, or even who are to be Congressmen, but how they can arrange matters so as to control this election of senator. To do this, it is necessary for the Conklingites to "fix things" in the Assembly districts, and this they could do but for one obstacle. There are in the world not only Conklingites but Fentonites, and Fenton, it should never be forgotten, is one of the leaders of the Liberal Republican party in New York—a party which, though it does not control many thousand votes, always holds conventions, and furnishes a very convenient base for fierce attacks upon the regular Republicans. The Liberals, indeed, hold to the regular party now very much the same relation which has in former years been held by the Young Democracy or the Apollo Hall Democracy to Tammany. They hire halls, make speeches, distribute documents, threaten awful exposures, insist on purity and reform, and so put their leaders into a position very convenient for making bargains with the enemy. This, it is now rumored, is exactly the use which the sagacious Fenton has made of the Greeley movement of 1872, and he, it is said, is now throwing out hints that he may, by means easily guessed at, make the majorities of the Republicans in the districts very small—so small, indeed, in some as to throw a large number into the hands of the Democrats, and thus prevent the election of a Republican senator. The Liberals hold their convention this week; and, whatever the convention may do, it is believed by the Conklingites that under cover of it Fenton is playing a double game—not that this is looked upon as at all to his discredit, but that it renders it necessary that he should be watched with care. This watching already, it is said, has revealed such a labyrinth of astute Fentonian plots, that the true and steadfast Republicans have been led by them to contemplate seriously the question whether it would not be better for them to allow Mr. Fenton to be his own successor in the Senate rather than run the risk of a Democrat being elected—a view of the situation which is not wholly unsatisfactory to Mr. Fenton, inasmuch as such a termination of the struggle may be regarded as a sort of crowning of the edifice, or the perfection, by the return of the prodigal senator to the fold, of the harmony and discipline which was once the boast of the great party. Feeling that Fenton had the key of the position, the Conklingites some time since, it is said, let him know that, in view of past and the hope of future services, much might be forgiven, and that if he would desert the Liberals he should not himself be left in the lurch, but should be elected senator. To this Fenton is said to have replied, that he had no doubt either of the benevolence or the patriotism of those who made the offer, but that, owing to the force of precedents in such cases, he should feel it his duty to insist that certain guarantees of good faith should be given—meaning, it is believed, that certain offices in the Custom-house should be handed over to him. So the matter stands at present; and this week the Liberals meet at Albany. It is said, on the one hand, that if Fenton appears there taking an active part publicly or half-publicly, assuring the people that the time is full of danger, that the civil service is corrupt, the system of protection destroying our industries, and that the cry of the hour is "decentralization and down with Grantism," it will mean that these guarantees are refused; while, on the other hand, if he does not appear as one of the prime movers at Albany, and declines to let the weight of his name go to the aid of the Liberals, it will mean that mature consideration has convinced him that the peril of the country is past, that the civil-service reform instituted by the President promises beneficent results at no distant day, that the delusions of free-trade have taken no hold upon the national mind, and that the duty of the hour is to beat down sham Democracy.

Such is the aspect of political affairs in the most important State of the Union, as it is gathered from the politicians by newspaper reporters. We do not vouch for every word of it, and every word of it would be denied by every prominent actor. But the general picture given is no doubt correct. Bargains within bargains, lies within lies, all turning much more on Washington than on local politics, is the sum and substance of it.

The Democrats have not absolutely decided upon their policy either. The best men among them wish to have Mr. Tilden nominated, and his nomination would unquestionably be the strongest that could be made. But there are influences at work against him, and, whatever the fact may be, it is openly maintained that these influences are in reality—Tweed; that "Tweed from his felon's cell has reached forth an arm" with which he is making terrible play among the politicians; that the politicians who feel the "current from Blackwell's Island" are immediately observed to lose all interest in Mr. Tilden; and, finally, it is even insinuated that if Mr. Tilden is not nominated, but one of the judges of the Court of Appeals is, it will be because this judge was ill on a recent important occasion when the Ring cases came up in the Court, or, to put the matter plainly, because he is "controlled" by the arm reaching forth as we have said. That Tweed is still in politics there is no more doubt than that he is on Blackwell's Island.

If we turn to the city, the condition of affairs is much the same, except that here politics are so small and politicians are so numerous, that even the newspaper reporter does not undertake to make predictions. There are certain things, however, well known. We are now at the fourth year of Reform, and the politicians whom the movement against Tweed brought to the head of affairs have had an opportunity of showing what stuff is in them. Of these, the mayor is under what is equivalent to indictment, and if it were not that he has only three months to serve, it would be more loudly demanded that he should be removed. In the Police Department, which is perhaps the most important bureau in the city, there have been a succession of scandalous appointments, either made by the mayor, or forced upon him by the Reformers at Albany, which have

all ended in a still more scandalous manner than they began, with public confidence both in the indicted commissioners and the mayor absolutely destroyed. The investigation into the affairs of the Commissioners of Charities and Correction shows that these reformers have been systematically falsifying their accounts; while the Comptroller has been obliged, in order to keep himself in office at all, to engage in "lobbying," and has thus exposed himself also to the dangers of indictment; and, to crown the whole, one of the most prominent Reformers now before the public, and loudly demanding recognition, who has managed to survive the wreck of so many reputations, is no other than Mr. Van Nort, who was a legacy to the city of Tweed himself, put in office at Tweed's request, as a condition of his going out.

Looking about us for some good and beneficent results of the Reform movement, which, though we have forgotten it, did enlist our sympathies only a short time ago so warmly—something that is higher and finer than the mere fact that we are not any longer governed by professed thieves and murderers—we certainly find it, if anywhere, in the fact that the rascally politicians who manage the State have been fairly compelled by sheer force of public sentiment, and a sense of decency in others if not in themselves, to keep at the head of the State government a man of the high reputation and unblemished integrity of General Dix. It is said that this year the same feeling will compel his renomination, and may so even put him in a prominent position as a candidate for the Presidency. We should be glad to believe it true. General Dix belongs to that very class in America which is from time to time exhorted by the politicians to take part in politics, and assured that they are the kind that the people are anxious to elect, if they will only show themselves—men of education, property, character, and position, who not merely would hesitate to do any dirty political action, but would feel themselves insulted at the supposition that they could be capable of it. Our present governor has during the past two years been rendering the community a very valuable service. He has not performed the duties of his office so as to curry favor with anybody. He has decided all questions in an honest, straightforward, and manly way, and without any reference to the next election. No one has attempted, we believe, to deny this. But at this moment his enemies are attempting to ruin the well-earned esteem in which he is held throughout the State, first, by reviving an old and lifeless story about his connection with the Crédit Mobilier, and then (he having shown by the production of his own letters and telegrams that he was always ready to explain his relation to the Crédit Mobilier at the proper time) by insisting upon it that his letters are fabricated. There is no redress; libel is obsolete; the public has an appetite for scandal, and the press must discuss "charges," for in politics nowadays there is little else to discuss.

As we have said, the possibility of re-electing General Dix is the only gratifying prospect now before us. This possibility is about the only chance of influencing politics in the direction of reform which the voter in this State has before him this fall. Any one with whom our advice has weight, we advise that it is his duty to go to the polls if he has an opportunity and vote for Dix, whose career, and whose career alone, gives a contradiction to the cynical generalization lately made, that "inasmuch as all participation in the correction of public abuses is fatal to any candidate for popular favor," the nominating conventions will do well to drop from their slates any man who has distinguished himself as a reformer.

AFFAIRS IN FRANCE.

THE latest election in France, that of Calvados, the principal department of Normandy, has resulted in another and very significant Bonapartist triumph. Out of 77,286 votes cast, the Bonapartist candidate, M. de Launay, received 40,794; M. Aubert, the Republican, 27,272; and M. de Fontelle, the Monarchist, only 8,978. Two years ago, there was another election in the same department, at which 63,000 votes were cast. Of these the Republican candidate got 28,000; the Legitimist, 17,000; the Orleanist, 15,000; and the Bonapartist only 3,000. The Legitimist has now lost half his support, the Republican has not quite held his own, and the Orleanists and the new voters have apparently gone over to the Bonapartist, who stood at the bottom of the list. In 1871, the same department sent up eight deputies to the Assembly, of whom five were Monarchists and the remainder Conservative Republicans. The Bonapartists did not show their faces. If these elections indicate anything as to the course run by French opinion, what they mean is this: that immediately after the war, in the richest and most intelligent department, the people were divided pretty equally between Monarchy and Moderate Republicanism; that, after the failure of the Comte de Chambord, the adherents of the Monarchy split between Legitimacy and Orleanism, but the Republic nearly kept pace with these two forms of faith; and that, after two years' trial of the present provisional régime, the majority have gone back to Bonapartism as the kind of government which they think, after much experiment, will suit them best; and that the probabilities are that the next Assembly, if elected now, would contain either a Bonapartist majority or a powerful Bonapartist minority, full of the insolence of approaching triumph.

Now, if this description of the situation is correct, it strikingly confirms the view we have several times of late maintained in these columns, that the French people are not strongly attached to any particular form of government, or, in other words, have no political convictions or traditions, and that each system which is set up at Paris appears to the country people in the attitude of a candidate for permanent power, with just as good a right to the place as any other if it can show itself worthy of it by capacity and determination in getting hold of it. Divine right they will not hear of, either in the Republic or the Monarchy, and they will not hear of feudalism or ecclesiasticism, or anything which savors of the old régime; but about everything else they are perfectly impartial. The notion so prevalent among Liberal journalists here and in England, that Frenchmen must be longing for a republic in their secret hearts, is the product of the not uncommon error of overlooking the influence which habits and traditions have in the formation of political opinions. Nine out of ten men that one meets in the street, or at a public meeting, even the most thoughtful and intelligent, if asked how they come by the political opinions which they hold, would answer unhesitatingly, that while, of course, their being born under their own government had something to do with their attachment to it, the main cause was their experience of its benefits, and their deliberate comparison of it with that of other countries. From this hallucination flows quite naturally the belief that other people select their form of government in the same careful and deliberate manner, and that they must therefore, as rational men, prefer a republic to any other. The fact is that three-fourths of people's liking for any tolerable government is inherited, or is the result of habit and association, and only about one-fourth that of a process of ratiocination—a fact on which many observers base the belief, that as an absolute monarchy has never been converted at one stroke into a republic, it never will be, inasmuch as it does not prepare people for a republic. Now, Frenchmen not only do not go through any such process, but they have at present no traditions which incline them to one form of government more than another. They *are* attached to their administrative and judicial systems, but do not care particularly who it is that turns the crank in Paris, provided he is a strong man, and will keep the crank turning the same way. Accordingly, having tried a Gambetta Republic, a Thiers Republic, and a Septennat, with a Monarchical Assembly, they are calmly preparing to go back to the despised Bonapartists.

The Paris papers are busy discussing how this state of things should have come to pass, and there does not seem to be much difference of opinion among them. The Gambetta Republic was discredited by the excesses of the Commune; the Legitimist Monarchy by the follies of the King; and now the Assembly and its Septennat are discredited by their failure to provide France with a permanent

government. Marshal MacMahon in the meantime seems to be in no way disturbed by the agitation around him. He has announced that no election, vote, or manifestation will shorten his tenure of office by one day, and it is curious to see how even this small instalment of security and permanency rallies the country to him, and how the candidates for the Assembly are obliged, whatever their other predilections may be, to give in their adhesion to the Septennat. Even the successful Bonapartist in Calvados felt compelled to proclaim his acquiescence in the postponement of the restoration of his favorite régime until the close of the Marshal's term, and the Marshal has been making a tour in Brittany, the very hotbed of Legitimism, in which he has been received with precisely the same flattery, and the same expressions of unbounded confidence in him as the safeguard of society, which used to greet Napoleon III. during similar progresses. The legislature has already passed into a subordinate if not despised position, and the next general election will take place once more under the shadow of the "one-man power." In other words, the peasants will send up deputies, not as the depositaries of the national sovereignty charged with the duty of providing France with a government, but as persons whom the "chief of the state" wishes to aid him. What will be the issue of all this more clearly than ever depends on MacMahon himself. He may make the Septennat the germ of a constitution, or merely a temporary barrier against revolutionary disorder. If he lives and, while exerting a fair amount of influence, refrains from too much interference with the expression of public opinion or the action of the Assembly, he will probably bring about two important results. In the first place, he will give the French people their first experience of the creation of a government by orderly debate and deliberation and the peaceful friction of parties and opinions. The delays and bickerings and dissensions of the last four years have been, in fact, an educational process of the highest value, and such as the French have never had. Through them all the people are finding out what their mind is about governmental questions, and are learning that it is really in their power to exert an influence more or less decisive in the formation of the constitution. All these elections which we are now witnessing have, in fact, a gravity which no French elections have ever had since 1789, because they place seriously and *bonâ fide* before the voter the question whether he prefers a republic or a monarchy, and, if the latter, what kind of monarchy. Hitherto, when he has been consulted on questions of this sort, his casting his ballot has been a mere form, for he was asked simply to ratify what had been accomplished by violence in Paris, well knowing that it made no substantial difference whether he was vexed or pleased. This is an immense gain. Any government created in this way must be a boon for France.

In the second place, the Marshal's course thus far makes it probable that, in any constitution that is framed, his relations with the Assembly will furnish the model for the rights and duties of the executive. If there is anything clear in French politics, it is that a "chief of the state" elected by the popular vote and commanding the army is sure to be dangerous. All French traditions, both civil and military, lead him to consider himself neither the servant nor colleague of the legislature, but its superior, and lead the people to sanction or encourage his pretensions to independence. The legislature is as yet a power which has not secured a foothold in French political traditions or habits. The people have had no experience of a body like the British Parliament or our Congress. All the imitations of it they have known have been sham or contemptible, and have been finally dispersed by mobs or by the army. The "man on horseback" is the only representative of the national sovereignty with which they are familiar, and which they look on as real. To break up this tradition, and make a deliberative body respected as the sole source of authority, and the only safe guardian of the national interests, would be another long step in French political education. Nothing could well help to bring this about more effectively than the practice of having the executive officer chosen by and removable by the Assembly, either after a fixed term or at pleasure. Unless, therefore, the making of a constitution is postponed for seven years, which is very unlikely, the present mode of selecting the president will probably be adopted; in fact, as the Marshal will not budge until his term has expired, it will probably *have* to be adopted, in order to get the new régime into working order before he goes out, and thus prevent a convulsion when he does go. Every one must see how desirable it is that the person who succeeds him should be his regular successor, chosen by the same process to the discharge of the same functions, and not a new officer, emanating from a different source and exercising a different species of authority.

Should the experiment of a Marshalate or Septennat prove successful in France, it is not unreasonable to suppose that it will become the means of transforming other Continental states from broken-down monarchies into conservative republics as their time comes. What is passing in Spain seems to give color to this expectation, dismal as the political outlook is in that country; but it has to be borne in mind that France enjoys an enormous advantage over Spain, in the trial of any such experiment, in the possession of an army which, with all its faults, has never lost its discipline or the habit of subordination to the Government, and whose military traditions are sufficient to preserve its self-respect and make it content with purely military functions. It has once overturned the civil government at the command of its general, but when it did so the state was on the verge of anarchy. During all other French revolutions it has been either a silent spectator or an obedient servant of the *de-facto* ruler. Louis Napoleon, when he made the *coup d'état*, was, in most French eyes, more nearly the seat of the sovereignty than anybody else, and the army at least might be excused for not perceiving the full extent of his usurpation. French generals have never caught the habit of pronunciamientos, and, in fact, soldiers rarely begin to turn to politics for occupation until the weakness of the state has made the army useless for purposes of offence or defence, and converted it into a sort of clumsy and corrupt police.

THE SWITZERLAND OF HOTEL-KEEPERS AND TOURISTS.

BASLE, August 25, 1874.

ONE of the most charming letters of Paul Louis Courier begins with these words, "Make haste and see Italy"; and he then describes the state of abandonment of many Italian churches and palaces, and ends, in the face of so many ruins, with the exclamation, "Lugete, Veneres Cupidinesque!" After a few weeks of travelling in Switzerland, I would almost exclaim also, "Make haste and see Switzerland"; for civilization is invading the country of Wilhelm Tell with an alarming rapidity. I remember climbing the Rigi twenty years ago, when it was a lonely and solemn mountain, by a romantic pathway among the pines. Now you can take a return ticket from Lucerne, and you go up the majestic slopes in a railway carriage. There are stations before great hotels, where hundreds of travellers are staying; instead of peasants, of shepherds, you see nothing but Englishmen with bandannas on their hats, muscular young ladies with ornamental Alpenstocks, Americans with the same hats which they wore a few days before at Paris on the boulevards. The Rigi-Kulm appears at times like the race-course on the Derby Day; you see before you the great Swiss plain, but your imagination covers it at once with innumerable hotels and *pensions*, in which the struggle for life has assumed a new form—the struggle of the tired and hungry traveller with the rapacious landlord. I met one of my friends at Lucerne, who said to me: "I have made a discovery: there is in Berne a vast reservoir of sauce, and when dinner-time comes it is pumped by hidden pipes all over Switzerland, into all hotels, to the top of all the mountains. It is always the same sauce; you will find it everywhere; it covers a multitude of sins; it has the same price everywhere." I could not help laughing at this denunciation of the Swiss hotels, and I remembered that before the time of the huge palaces in which you are now received and sent to some fourth story, there were small inns, with affable landlords and smiling maids and real milk. Switzerland has become more prosaic; it is a disagreeable sensation, when you are coming from some distant glacier, to enter a dining-room where silk gowns are rustling, to hear after dinner, instead of the distant cow-bells, the sound of the billiard-table. You can no longer escape this horrid civilization, and the *Times* and the *Daily News;* Reuter's telegrams will follow you to Zermatt and Chamouni. The mountaineers themselves are getting insufferable; they ask for champagne, and

speak of the Wetterhorn or the Weisshorn as they would of Richmond Hill. Young English ladies ascend the highest peaks, and keep a list of their big ascents as they would keep a list of dances in a ball-room. Enthusiasm is a thing unknown in the Alps; the only ambition of the mountaineers is to find what they call a new pass—to go up one valley and go down another; this new pass is absolutely of no use; they spend ten, twelve, sometimes sixteen hours, like senseless machines, blindly obeying guides who tell them at times where to place their feet; the guides are in reality the men who do all the work and solve all the difficulties; the object of these modern travellers is attained, however, if they have cut their way between two *horns* where nobody went before. It is very amusing to read in the books of Zinal, Zermatt, Saas, and the other places which are the centres of the difficult ascents, in the descriptions given by the Alpine Club members, the perpetual remark: "To my knowledge, nobody ever attempted this pass before."

I hope I am not influenced by an invidious spirit when I make such a criticism, as I have myself made some difficult ascents; but the institution of the Alpine Club, with all its advantages, has certainly helped to multiply the number of unnecessary expeditions. There are now two classes of travellers in the Alps—those who are like eagles, and who always move in the region of snow, who jump, as it were, from peak to peak, as if they had seven-league boots; and those (and the number of the latter is legion) who go from hotel to hotel in the lower altitudes. I confess that I myself always fly as much as I can above the latter; but, alas! they are making progress, and you find them higher year after year. It was my good fortune last year to find myself all alone with a companion three nights in succession in small inns in the neighborhood of Zinal; but this year I found a new and almost magnificent hotel, built in that romantic village called Mürren, which is the centre of a gigantic circle of glaciers and peaks, opposite the Jungfrau, the Eiger, and the Mönch. I was coming down the Schilthorn, and was feeling the delightful fatigue of a long day's work, when a young German with gold spectacles played long parts of "Lohengrin" on the piano in the room to which I had retired before going to bed; and after his performances an American went to him, and, in the name of a committee of ladies, offered him the thanks of the company. Fancy a committee of ladies at Mürren! On the small terrace of the Bel Alp or of the Aegischhorn, when night comes, you see it, as it were, come from under your feet; the valleys are already dark when the giant mountains of the Valais are still visible under the refracted rays of the sun. When they themselves disappear, one could not help feeling a strange sense of gloom and desolation if the voice of ladies did not enliven the solitude till nearly midnight. Go where you will, you cannot escape the tourist. There are travelling chaplains, who go from mountain to mountain and read the holy service on Sunday in the dining-room among the Alpenstocks, the collection of photographs, and the plates. When Sunday is over, these missionaries change their dress, and you will meet them the next day trying a new pass. I found one this year at Macugnaga, at the foot of Monte Rosa, reading the service all to himself in the small inn of that lovely place. He had prepared three rows of chairs, but there was no Englishman there, and the Italians had politely abandoned the room. This excellent man was travelling with a collection of tracts, as he belonged to the Low Church, and he left a few behind him in the Italian language, which are probably still among the volumes of Tauchnitz which form the library of most Alpine hotels.

Happy are the Swiss between France and Germany! Their neutrality is still respected; their little army costs them next to nothing, though I am assured that it would be very effective in a war. Thousands of travellers come every year, and there is a regular inundation of gold in the country as soon as the month of August returns. The net profit of the country must be enormous, judging by the number of new houses which are built every year, by the increasing wealth, not only of the towns, but of the smallest villages. Where you once saw the classic *châlets*, built of wood, with stones on the roof, you now see elegant houses. The valley of Interlaken has become like the decorations of an opera. Locomotives run between the Lake of Brienz and the Lake of Thun; they will soon go up the Lauterbrunnen and over the Brunig pass. At the cascade of the Giessbach, which I remember as so lonely, an immense hotel has lately sprung up, and it owes its success not only to the scenery, but to the regular illumination of the cascades every night, and to the appearance, in the midst of Bengal lights, on a wooden bridge, of a sham-savage, dressed like a Red Indian, with eagle plumes on his head and an axe in his hand. This *sauvage* makes, I hear, a thousand dollars a year by selling his photographs, and becomes in the daytime a respectable, ever-drinking and ever-smoking Swiss citizen.

You may say as a rule that wherever there is an easily accessible cascade the population become quite demoralized. At the Staubbach, for instance, near Lauterbrunnen, you are not yet prevented from looking at the cascade, but if you wish to approach near enough to see the rainbow, you will find a wooden barrier, a small door, and a young speculator who will ask for twenty sous. I crossed the Splügen this year, and my coachman stopped at a point of the road, saying to me: "If you go a few steps from the road, you will have a perfect view of the cascade." I had already had this cascade before me for half an hour. I consented; I had my perfect view, and was fined for it. On every road somewhat frequented by tourists you will find all varieties of beggary. Here the carriage stops for the echo; here a young girl offers you fruit which is not ripe; a few steps more, there is milk; then strawberries, then flowers; the offer of a bunch of *Edelweiss* is irresistible, as when you have it in your hat you are supposed to have plucked it on the high altitudes where it grows. I am somewhat familiar with all these forms of blackmail; but I discovered one this year which was new to me. I had just arrived at the bridge of the Via Mala, and was discussing with my companion, a Fellow of Cambridge, what might be the depth of the gorge under that famous bridge. "Let us try," said he, "how much we can count till a stone reaches the torrent, and apply the formula of accelerated motion." We looked round for a stone—there was none on the bridge; we went up the road, which is cut in the rock; not a stone was to be found—when suddenly an old woman came to us, and offered us some heavy stones at fifty centimes apiece.

Who would care much, however, for paying these small fines for the pleasure of seeing a country the beauty of which will ever remain unrivalled? And I will add that this demoralization is not yet felt among the guides; they are to this day the same men—truthful, brave, honest. I speak not of course of those guides who are to be found in the towns, and who are really mere couriers, accompanying families to such dangerous places as the Rigi; they show you the books, where you can find all their testimonials: "Franz or Hans has accompanied us to Lucerne, has crossed with us the Brunig (which is done in a diligence) to Interlaken, etc., etc." Then comes a long list of all the virtues of Franz or Hans from the enthusiastic and kind-hearted travellers. The true guides are those whom you engage in the mountains, and who go with you on the glacier, with rope on shoulder or axe in hand. The season for ascents is not long, and such guides have not much time to give to places where the tourists congregate. They are, as a rule, a most remarkable class of men—intelligent, quiet, as prudent as courageous; you can follow them blindly; there is fortunately, in every canton, a tariff which tells you how much you have to pay them for every excursion; they are in consequence never tempted to cheat the traveller; and I must say, having often used their services, that I have never found a more disinterested body of men, willing to do so much for a settled price. There are times, of course, and occasions where their services are invaluable; and there soon springs up between a good guide and yourself a feeling almost of affection. They are the men who preserve in the high altitudes the true character of the mountaineer; as for the Switzerland of hotel-keepers and of tourists, of cascades and sham-savages, it has become very prosaic, and sometimes very ridiculous. But there are spots on the sun, and, after all, the biggest hotels and the largest locomotives cannot much alter the character of most majestic scenery, though they may contribute powerfully to spoil the hours of necessary rest during excursions which once were so delightful and, if I may say so, so harmonious in all their parts.

Correspondence.

THE BOOK TRADE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: I have not observed that you have as yet taken notice of a matter which possesses no little interest for all lovers of books—the movement now on foot among booksellers to make such change in the mode of transacting business as shall release them from the necessity of selling their wares without a living profit.

It is, of course, the interest of the book-buyer to obtain his supplies of literature at the lowest prices compatible with the free continuance of those supplies; and it is the interest of the public that books, which are the means of diffusing culture, shall not alone be had at reasonable rates, but shall be within easy reach of all. Good books, in fact, should not only be accessible to those who seek them, but ought further to be placed in the way of all who can be tempted to acquire them. It is important, therefore, that the trade of the bookseller should be profitable enough to attract a class of men of sufficient energy and intelligence to push it with at least as much vigor as the selling of dry-goods or groceries. Such collections as are on the shelves of the leading booksellers of Cincinnati and Chicago are of no little public service. In fact, they are more important in some respects than even public

libraries, for experience shows how much the latter are resorted to for ephemeral literature, while books which are worth having, which really enlarge the mind and direct the thoughts of the reader, are apt to be purchased for repeated perusal and reference.

Yet there can be no question that the business of buying and selling books has been for years past steadily becoming less remunerative. Year by year there is less inducement to invest capital and brains in the endeavor to gain a livelihood by carrying on a book-store anywhere save in a few of the larger cities, and even in these the mere distribution of books, as dissociated from their manufacture, seems to be growing less and less remunerative and attractive. In the smaller cities and towns, the bookseller is steadily devoting increased attention to "fancy goods" and neglecting literature, while even in the larger centres the complaint seems to be general that a fair assortment of books yields no adequate return for money and labor invested in it. Nor are these complaints peculiar to this country. In England, the same state of affairs has long been the subject of comment. There the "country trade" is gradually becoming starved out, is compelled to sell without a profit, and attributes its decline to the fierce competition which it experiences from the metropolis.

I have watched with much interest the efforts recently made by the American booksellers to find a remedy for this, first at the Cincinnati meeting last January, and then at the July convention held at Put-in Bay. As far as I can judge, the measures adopted were reasonable, and no well-wisher to literature can help desiring them success, even though a slight increase in the current retail prices should result, for in the long run it is the interest of all that book-stores should be enabled to exist in every town where there are schools and possible readers to be tempted. Yet, after all, is not this a struggling against fate? Do not the improvements in communication and transportation which are the most palpable triumphs of modern practical science, inevitably tend to bring the producer and consumer nearer together and render the middleman superfluous? The tendency, so marked of late years, towards the concentration of business in the hands of those whose superior capital or energy enables them to crush their competitors, has no more powerful adjuvant than the railroads and the telegraph, and these instrumentalities must constantly tend to extinguish the business of intermediaries.

I cannot help thinking, therefore, that modern commerce must sooner or later undergo a change now only dimly foreseen, through the agency of constantly increasing facilities for intercommunication; and, from various causes, books are probably the articles that will earliest feel the approaching revolution. In the first place, every one knows that each copy of a given edition is precisely the same, is worth just as much as and no more than any other copy. For what A. sells at a dollar, therefore, B. cannot ask a dollar and a quarter without being deemed extortionate, though a similar difference in the price of a pound of tea or a yard of broadcloth might be thought justified by a possible difference in quality, and yet the loss of this percentage, through competition, may perhaps bring both A. and B. to bankruptcy. Thus the competition in books is much more direct and inevitable than in any other article of commerce; while at the same time books are so infinite in variety, so uncertain as investments, and so comparatively limited in amount of consumption, that the distinction between wholesale and retail dealings is much less rigidly preserved with them than with sugar, or flour, or brown sheetings.

This, again, is aggravated by the facilities afforded for the transmission of books through the post-office. Whether wisely or foolishly, books as mailable matter have been favored with a very low rate of postage, and thus the consumer can obtain his supplies at first hands at a comparatively trifling cost of transportation, while he knows that what he will get by mail will be precisely the same article which he would obtain from his local bookseller. The ordinary country storekeeper is paid for his trained skill in selecting certain grades of cloth, or coffee, or sugar, but a copy of Motley's 'Barneveld' is the same from whatever source procured. Thus has grown up the system under which the great publishing houses retail their books to distant customers—a system vehemently protested against at Cincinnati, but accepted as inevitable by the Put-in-Bay Convention.

Greatly as the existing evils of the book-trade are to be deplored, they would therefore seem to be unavoidable and incurable. All who recognize the services which the bookseller has rendered and still renders to literature and culture, will watch with interest the effort now making to restore prosperity to the business, but it is to be feared that the attempt is useless. The present condition of the trade is the result of causes which will rather strengthen than become weaker in the future, and it would seem that any relief that may be devised will only prove transitory and deceptive.

BOOKWORM.

September 1, 1874.

ARKANSAS POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your paper of the 20th instant, there is an editorial upon the Arkansas Congressional Investigating Committee, which from your recognized and known spirit of fairness I am confident would not have been written or published had you not been purposely deceived by some person having an end to accomplish. You say:

"The report of the Arkansas Investigating Committee appointed by Congress at the last session promises to be of a very lively character, though we imagine that the gentlemen of the committee are not going to find it an easy matter to reconcile all the evidence. But judging by what we hear from excellent authority, one committeeman, Mr. Ward, will have less difficulty than his fellow-members in coming to a conclusion; his method of reaching it will, however, call for an explanation. This impartial investigator—who has already expressed his opinion as favorable to the Brooksites, and has been so reported in the public prints—went to Little Rock in company with Dorsey, one of the precious Arkansas senators, was met at the railroad station by Brooks and some Brooksites, was taken to Dorsey's house and there remained during all of his stay in the town, was each morning driven in from there to attend the sessions of the committee, was met there by Judge McClure, formerly Brooks's man on the bench, Clayton, the leader of all this gang, Oliver, and others like them. The statements which these gentlemen imparted to him are supposed to be what Mr. Ward is now retailing to the Northern public as information derived from 'leading Arkansas Republicans.'"

To show that the evidence is "conflicting," and that "the gentlemen of the committee are not going to find it an easy matter to reconcile all the evidence," you quote from the testimony of Mr. Bartlett, given before the committee in Washington, page 149 of the pamphlet containing the evidence, wherein Judge Bartlett says "that the cause of the falling-out of the Republican leaders with Baxter was the latter's opposition to the Railroad Bill brought before the Legislature of 1873."

In the first place, no such bill as Judge Bartlett describes was ever before the Legislature, nor could there have been such a bill, because the condition of affairs on which the Judge predicates his supposed bill *did not exist*. Under what was called the Railroad Aid Law—which was submitted by the Legislature to the people, and almost unanimously voted for by them, the leading Republican and Democratic papers all supporting it—the State agreed to issue *its* bonds to aid in building eight hundred miles of railroads, loaning ten thousand dollars per mile to roads that had received land-grants from the United States, and fifteen thousand dollars per mile to those that had not received any land-grant. These are *State bonds*—the State agreeing to pay the principal and interest to the holders, and looking to the roads for reimbursement. Under this law, bonds to the amount of eleven million of dollars had been awarded to the different roads, and five million two hundred thousand dollars' worth of these bonds had been issued. The bill known as the Railroad Bill, *and which Governor Baxter agreed to sign if passed*, proposed that the State should release the road from any liability (to the State) for the bonds already issued, and receive in lieu thereof stock in the roads to the amount of the bonds issued, and the roads would release the State from its obligation to issue the additional six millions of bonds, and no more of them should be called for.

This shows how little Judge Bartlett knew of what he was endeavoring to tell. It is a mooted question among lawyers who have examined the law whether the State has *any* lien upon the roads to which these bonds were issued, and it is an undenied fact that upon *every* road receiving aid there was a first-mortgage lien, taking precedence of any claim that the State might have. The law provided that whenever ten miles of road were graded and tied it could call for and was entitled to receive the bonds for that distance, and so for every additional ten miles. But Mr. Bartlett's own testimony, under his cross-examination by Clayton and others, shows that he not only knew nothing of the law, but nothing of the cause of the split between Baxter and the Republicans who put him in office. Governor Baxter himself ought to be a good witness on this point, and I enclose you his testimony, when before the Committee, taken by a stenographer from his own utterances. By reading it you will see that Governor Baxter says Senator Clayton never applied to him for bonds, advised him against issuing any more, and opposed the issuance of some that were given by Baxter after he became Governor.

So far as Senator Dorsey is concerned, he resigned the presidency of the Arkansas Central Railroad immediately after his election to the United States Senate, and has never applied for any bonds. Governor Baxter endeavors to tell the cause of his falling-out with Clayton and the Republicans, but his reasons, as given under oath, are so confused and contradictory that no one can fathom them. It is true that Judge McClure quarrelled with Baxter soon after the Legislature of 1873 adjourned, and attacked his course in the *Republican* newspaper, of which he was the editor, waging bitter war upon him in that paper until the 29th of last September, when Senator

Clayton, Lieutenant-Governor Smith, and other leading Republicans, bought Judge McClure's interest in the *Republican* and placed it in accord and supporting Baxter; a day or two after this the Republican State Central Committee issued an address signed by all the members of the Committee (eight) except Judge McClure. After this, as Governor Baxter testifies, he required of Clayton that the resignation of several leading officials should be placed in his hands, as the price of his remaining "in harmony with the Republican party."

Now, sir, I submit that this testimony shows not only that Judge Bartlett was mistaken, to say the least of it, but it also shows another thing The testimony was an "appeal from Philip drunk to Philip sober"—from Baxter as a correspondent to Baxter under oath. In his letter to the New York *Herald* explaining the reasons why Clayton and the other Republican leaders quarrelled with him he said, "because he refused to issue railroad bonds, and to use improper means to carry the State elections." On oath before the committee, he said Clayton never asked him to issue any bonds, and that no Republican ever approached him with improper proposals except Asa Hodges, and for saying this Hodges called him a liar while he was on the stand before the committee. So far as published, there have been no discrepancies "to reconcile" in regard to the main fact before the committee—that is, whether Brooks or Baxter was elected governor; every witness who has sworn to anything of his own knowledge has proven that Brooks was elected, and the array of evidence is incontrovertible.

But what you say of Mr. Ward, a member of the committee, is evidently said without a due examination, and does that gentleman injustice. Mr. Ward did not stay at Senator Dorsey's house, because Senator Dorsey lives in Helena, over a hundred miles from Little Rock. If Mr. Ward has ever expressed an opinion, we have never been lucky enough to find it; an alleged interview with a reporter of the *Inter-Ocean* of Chicago was published in that paper, but Mr. Ward sent a letter to the *Gazette* of this city denying the statements published in that paper, so that that cannot be taken as an expression of his views, and we have seen no other professing to be.

Mr. Ward, when here, seemed to be anxious to arrive at the whole truth in regard to affairs in Arkansas; he went to the room where the committee held its sessions at nine o'clock in the morning, remained until after twelve M., returned at two and a half P.M., and remained until five or six in the afternoon every day. He declined all hospitalities tendered him, and devoted himself laboriously to the business before him. I know nothing of Mr. Ward; but he must be an exceedingly cheap Congressman if his verdict can be influenced, as you seem to indicate, by the fact that he was "driven" to the committee-room every morning in Governor Smith's buggy.

The other member of the committee here with Mr. Ward, the Hon. Milton Sayler of Ohio, occupied rooms at the Metropolitan Hotel prepared for him by a committee of Democrats. He accepted all invitations to eat, *drink*, and ride tendered him; and said *in a saloon* that all the Democrats had to do was "to hurry up the Constitutional Convention, submit the constitution prepared, have their officers installed, and their legislature in session before Congress meet, and then the committee became *functus officio*." And yet no Republican has charged or intimated that the acceptance of these hospitalities has or will influence Mr. Sayler in the report which he has to make upon Arkansas affairs. One thing his advice has done: the Bourbon ring are following it implicitly—their programme being for the convention to adjourn on the 5th of September, the constitution to be submitted to a vote (and all the officers to be elected at the same time) on or about the first of November, the Governor to be installed, and the legislature to be in session by the third or fourth Monday in November.

I hope, in justice to all parties, that you will publish the above.

COSMO.

LITTLE ROCK, ARK., August 28, 1874.

[We print the above for what it is worth, though it smacks of disingenuousness in the passage relating to Mr. Ward and his movements. This gentleman did stay at a house owned by Senator Dorsey, though then occupied by Lieutenant-Governor Smith. He stayed nowhere else, and he "declined all [other] hospitalities tendered him," because he readily consented to the policy of isolation and non-intercourse, which his hosts had an interest in maintaining. In fact, for seeing or hearing anything but what the Brooks party were willing he should see or hear, he might as well have been at Helena as at Dorsey's house on the river bluff a mile out of Little Rock, with "Smith's buggy" for his conveyance to and fro. —ED. NATION.]

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS resume publication of Washington Irving's works, which have for some years past borne the imprint of J. B. Lippincott & Co. Their fall announcements include 'Egypt and Iceland,' by Bayard Taylor, and 'Winter Homes for Invalids,' by Dr. Joseph W. Howe. ——Harper & Bros. announce a 'History of Germany from the Earliest Times,' founded on Müller's.——Henry Holt & Co. will publish Mill's 'Three Essays on Religion'; Sir Henry Maine's 'Early History of Institutions'; W. B. Scott's 'History and Practice of the Fine Arts'; and a translation of Wagner's Autobiography and Essays.——A volume of papers for young men, by President Mark Hopkins, is announced by Dodd & Mead.——In J. B. Ford & Co.'s list we remark 'The Abbé Tigrane, Candidate for the Papacy,' translated by Rev. L. W. Bacon; 'Life and Times of Sir Philip Sidney,' by S. W. Davis; 'The Poetry of Pets,' by Sarah B. Stebbins; 'We and Our Neighbors,' and 'Thoughts for Lent,' by Mrs. H. B. Stowe; and, by the Rev. Edward Beecher, 'History and Opinions of the Scriptural Doctrine of Retribution'—a work to which Lee & Shepard offer a companion volume in 'For Ever Lost,' by Prof. Townsend.——'A Theory of Art,' by Joseph Torrey; a popularly illustrated 'Manual of Mythology,' by A. S. Murray; and cheap editions of Stanley's 'How I Found Livingstone' and Jowett's 'Plato,' are to be issued by Scribner, Armstrong & Co. ——Sheldon & Co. have in press Gen. Custer's *Galaxy* serial, entitled 'Life on the Plains.'——Porter & Coates republish from the *Art Journal* its illustrated articles on 'The Stately Homes of England.'——The tenth and final volume of Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' and 'The Old Régime in Canada,' by Francis Parkman, will shortly be published by Little, Brown & Co.——Wm. F. Gill & Co. reprint 'Modern Christianity a Civilized Heathenism,' by the author of 'Dame Europa's School,' together with Charles Bradlaugh's 'Impeachment of the House of Brunswick.'——Keen, Cooke & Co., Chicago, solicit subscriptions to 'Historical Sketches of the Anti-slavery Movement in the United States,' being the papers read at the Abolitionist reunion held at Chicago in June.——On Monday, the 21st inst., we may expect to read the first number of the projected Administration organ in this city, the daily (morning) *Republic*. The editorial and business staff is an offshoot from the *Times*. Two doubts suggest themselves—whether "the party" can sustain the paper; whether the paper can save "the party."——From Washington we have the prospectus of a new monthly illustrated magazine, the *National*, to be published by J. P. Young & Co. Its list of contributors embraces a few good names, mostly of scientific men, but the literary corps seems decidedly mediocre.——In a pamphlet just published at Berlin, Prof. Steinthal indulges in some "anti-criticism" of Prof. Whitney, written, as a half-sympathizing correspondent of the *Athenæum* says, "in the old and antiquated style of literary warfare."——Persons afflicted with hay-fever (autumnal catarrh), who are disposed to further the scientific investigation of the cause and seat of this troublesome disease, will oblige Dr. George M. Beard, of this city, by applying to him for a circular which he has carefully prepared with fifty-two questions to be answered. His address is 53 West Twenty-third Street.——'"John Paul's" Book,' as we learn from Mr. Webb himself, is to be issued, by subscription, by the American Publishing Co., Hartford. It contains nearly all this humorist's letters to the *Tribune*, besides magazine articles and other matter, and will be illustrated.——Apropos of Robert Clarke & Co.'s collection of Confederate school-books, a friend writes us that he once saw at Columbia a Southern primer, in which the story of the good centurion was told, and this account of him given: "He was a good man and a slaveholder."

—As we write, the paintings confided by the Duc de Montpensier to the trustees of the Museum of Fine Arts in Boston are about arriving in that city. The circumstances of this quite unexampled loan have already been made known to our readers. Concerning the collection, the Boston papers have furnished a detailed account, from which we borrow the following particulars. The pictures are mostly of the Spanish school. There is a Murillo, valued at $100,000, "La Vierge aux Linges"; three pictures by Velasquez, one "long supposed to be a portrait of himself," the other two said to be the original studies of the equestrian portraits of Philip IV. and the Duke d'Olivares at Madrid; five pictures by Zurbaran, of which four represent the Annunciation, the Adoration of the Magi, and the Circumcision, the fifth a praying monk (total valuation, $120,000); a repulsive subject by Ribera, "Cato of Utica tearing out his Entrails"; and a number of other pictures by painters of inferior note. Among the works by non-Spanish artists are mentioned two fine landscapes by Salvator Rosa; "Lions in Repose," by Snyders; an interior by Van Ostade; and several modern paintings, including twenty-two Gospel subjects by Tony Johannot, which have been engraved. Attention is also called to a small portrait, in painted enamel, of

the Constable de Bourbon, who was killed at the siege of Rome in 1527. This is the work of his contemporary, Léonard de Limousin, another specimen of whose art is in the possession of the Museum. As soon as the Montpensier collection can be arranged it will be opened for public exhibition; it is hoped not long after the 15th instant. To the good reasons which one always has for visiting Boston, the trustees of the Art Museum have now added a rare and potent one, sufficient of itself to be the cause of many pilgrimages.

—The death of Professor Jeffries Wyman is a great sorrow and irreparable loss. Had his ambition borne any proportion to his ability, and his powers been seconded by health and strength throughout his productive years, his name and works would have been more widely known and his fame unsurpassed by any comparative anatomist of our day. He was a man of singular modesty and entire truthfulness, of the sweetest temper, the soundest judgment, and the clearest insight, of untiring industry up to the limit of his strength, and of great administrative ability. His published writings, mainly papers in the transactions of scientific societies and journals, and of considerable number, are none of them popular in character or in the least pretentious, but none of them ephemeral in value. They are all solid and implicitly trustworthy contributions to scientific knowledge. Jeffries Wyman was born at Chelmsford, Mass., August 11, 1814. His father was a distinguished physician, as is his surviving brother and classmate. Upon his graduation at Harvard University, in the remarkable class of 1833 (which has given six professors to its alma mater), he himself entered upon the study of medicine, took his medical doctorate in 1837, and then studied for two years in the hospitals and museums of Paris. Upon his return, he accepted the curatorship of the Lowell Institute, and there commenced his career as a teacher by delivering two courses of lectures upon comparative physiology and anatomy, one of which was published. About this time he published the first scientific account and name of the gorilla, from materials supplied by Dr. Savage, in a paper which the eminent foreign anatomist who next had the materials overlooked, but to which he had nothing of importance to add. In 1843, he became professor of anatomy and physiology in the medical school of Hampden-Sidney College, established at Richmond, Va.; in 1847, he was transferred to Cambridge, becoming Hussey professor of comparative anatomy. He fulfilled its duties, and gave his admirable courses of lectures until lately, when failing health obliged him to diminish and at length give up the work of instruction. Wholly unaided, he built up the Museum of Comparative Anatomy, making it for its size one of the best in existence. He was for many years president of the Boston Society of Natural History, and the centre of its scientific life. Upon the foundation, in 1866, of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, Prof. Wyman was one of the founder's trustees, the one upon whom the building up of the establishment mainly devolved. To this the later years of his valuable life have been chiefly devoted. The seventh annual report, just issued, is his last production; and the already large, very important, and admirably ordered Archæological Museum at Cambridge is a memorial of his talents, ripe judgment, and perseverance under physical infirmity, no less than of the wisdom of its founder. Professor Wyman's life, it is thought, has been for several years prolonged by passing the latter part of every winter in Florida, and of the summer in the mountainous parts of New England. He was just established at his summer resort, apparently in better condition than in some former years, when the news of his sudden decease was received. He died at Bethlehem, N. H., on the 4th inst.

—The fifth number of the *International Review* is of less interest and less ability than any of its predecessors. Its articles are seven in number, one, and a very weak one, being made up of reviews of new books, and the others respectively treating of the condition of the Gulf-State Negroes (Dr. E. T. Winkler, of Georgia); the latest biography of Leonardo da Vinci (Professor G. L. Austin, of Cambridge, Mass.); the moral condition of France at the present moment (E. de Pressensé); the constitution of the sun (Professor C. A. Young, of Dartmouth College); the late Mr. Sumner considered as a lifelong advocate of peace and an active member of the Peace Society (Dr. C. F. Magoun, of Iowa College). The tale of seven articles is completed by a tragedy, as the author calls it, in five blank-verse acts, which is entitled 'Ariston,' and a very remarkable article and tragedy it is. The central action is the restoration to his better self of the hero of the play, who in the first two scenes of the first act is represented as having been so devoted to "the social glass," as the author calls it, as to have become an object of contempt to the street boys of Athens, of solicitude to his friends, and of hatred to his father, Alcander—an Athenian who, by the bye, is high in station and of very tyrannical proclivities. The author of the tragedy being a Jeffersonian Republican, whom both as Jeffersonian and as Prohibitionist Mr. James Parton might grasp by the hand, it may be surmised that the mob-contemning Alcander has meted out to him a peculiar kind of justice by his reformed son and his outraged fellow-citizens. In the third scene of the first act Ariston, the hero—recovered from his infatuation by his mother's walking out one evening to find him, when he was much intoxicated at a friend's house, laying her hand on his shoulder, and so bringing him home—makes a firm resolution of changing his name, departing into strange lands, beginning life anew, and earning a glorious reputation with which to return to Athens to his mother and to the lady of his love. He does so, fulfilling all his resolves. The lady of his love, however, returns with him. She had disguised herself as a page in the Elizabethan manner, and everywhere, in all the chances and changes of his fortune, had been his faithful servitor. As for Ariston's mother, she, missing his presence, went mad as soon as he departed from the city, and, fancying herself the goddess Ceres seeking Proserpine, wandered up and down continually singing lyrical pieces and demanding her lost child. She regains her wits in the last act, when Ariston, crowned as the deliverer of Greece, returns in triumph from a mighty victory over the Persian host, apparently that of Xerxes. As for Ariston, he of course has rehabilitated his reputation, while Ino, the disguised page and true maiden, is wedded to her hero-lover. In short, everything of any consequence ends well and merrily, unless we are to consider the fate of the unnatural, but entirely secondary, Alcander an important exception to the general felicity of this singular "tragedy." That aristocrat's hatred of popular institutions, equalling his hatred for his drunken son, has induced him to offer to betray his country to the barbarian king, and very near he comes to managing it. He is caught in time, however (his son, as Grecian general, keeping a sharp eye on him and intercepting his carrier-pigeons), and poisoning himself he dies in a dungeon—imprecatory, unrepentant, contumacious, and unnatural to the last. To let alone its dulness and feebleness, this work is a strange farrago of unredeemed solecisms of many kinds, and it is expressed in appropriate verse, as thus:

> "Men who shout thy praise intend thy exile."

The logical parts are of much the same quality:

> "Do gods create the vine?
> Then man should sip
> With grateful lip
> Bright gushing tides
> Which heaven provides."

It is a matter of some seriousness when a review making the pretensions of the *International*, and one which well managed might probably be so useful, is given over to productions like this "Ariston." Professor Young's paper on the sun's constitution seems very well adapted for general reading, if we may judge by our own easy perusal of it. Dr. Winkler's account of the negroes of the Gulf States is not altogether disheartening; but it reads like the opinions of a gentleman who had himself so far lost heart in contemplating the negro that he feels like Mrs. Somerville's mother when at sea in a gale—as if the time had come to trust in God, and things were in a pretty bad state. Apparently, Dr. Winkler is an old-fashioned man, who is in the way of hearing of the negroes more ill than good, who also sees in them with his own eyes real evil enough to answer all the purposes of corroborative evidence, and who is seriously despondent, though in a doctor-of-divinity kind of a way. The negro is dreadful, but Providence may perhaps intend that the colored population shall migrate, bearing off into Mexico, Central America, and those parts.

—Dr. C. F. Magoun's *International* article on Mr. Sumner as an advocate of peace deals in the needless superlative in the grammatical as well as in other senses. Thus, the evidence of a gentleman in favor of another gentleman's vast attainments, the cosmopolitan nature of his culture, and so forth, must fall short of the dignity of proof so long as the witness writes "most unique" when "unique" is enough. So, too, it is time for the witness to culture to stand down when he makes "pled" the imperfect indicative of the verb "to plead." It is still necessary to speak of this, because the world in some of its parts is still full of "ripe scholars" who are ever ready to bestow with an open hand any number of generous recommendations and testimonials regarding matters of which in reality they know nothing that justifies them in opening their mouths, or qualifies them for more than imperfectly intelligent listening when competent persons are speaking. Dr. Magoun is an admirer of Mr. Sumner, and he shows in fulness that aspect of his hero's character which more particularly interests him. In doing so, he defends Mr. Sumner against an accusation the truth of which would never have been so widely credited had it not been for the orator's rather arrogant, sweeping way of speech, and that visionary quality of his mind which made him often careless as to the practicability of schemes and notions of whose beauty and goodness he had persuaded himself. His early language about the barbarism of war was, for instance, so strong that a friendly critic, Mr. G. W. Curtis, spoke of it, in his eulogy at Boston, as "overstating its own case"; as exposing the

citizen-soldier "not only to ridicule, but to mortal aversion"; and as ignoring the fact that the military force which the orator derided in the presence of the volunteer companies was itself in the last analysis nothing but the law in execution. In saying this, however, says Dr. Magoun, Mr. Curtis has missed an obvious distinction—a distinction, adds the doctor, which Mr. Curtis would have taken had he been "an accomplished lawyer like his friend the Senator." This distinction lies between force employed for the maintenance of domestic laws, and force, war, employed in a public contest between different nations. The one employment of it Mr. Sumner always thought justifiable; it was the other that he hated, as being a relic of barbarous ages—"without law, above law, beyond law: he ever argued that this should give place to law." We believe this to be true as regards Mr. Sumner's views, though, as we have said, Mr. Sumner's way of speech was, for an honest man's, singularly adapted to accomplish the purpose of the dishonest man's, and to leave his thought misunderstood by plain people. Two or three notable instances of this were afforded in the last two or three years of his life. He was often a violent speaker; he was incapable of measuring the effect of his language, for he was egotistically unsympathetic and impatient of the minds and opinions of others; and he usually seemed incapable of correcting, by limiting it, any thought which had once got hold of him. It may be said that he was usually more anxious to pay out all the line he had than to take intelligent soundings. It is thus that even his friendly critics may easily have found themselves in error as to the length to which he meant practically to carry his peace doctrine; and thus, too, that he was ever ready to deliver orations in denunciation of war as the last resort of nations when as yet there was in existence, as binding upon nations, neither the law which he revered, nor the desired tribunal to settle cases, nor the material power to give force to the decrees of the court. But he was not the mere irrational non-resistant that his violent language, until modified, made him suspected of being. The article, "Leonardo da Vinci and his Works," by Prof. G. L. Austin, suggests that the "Cambridge, Mass.," which follows the writer's name might be misapprehended if understood to mean "of the University at Cambridge, Mass." It is ill-written, and of no value; from the book itself which is the occasion of it a writer ignorant of Leonardo, his times and his works, and of slight literary knack or practice, might with no difficulty have made a far better article. It would be hard to guess what Mr. Austin intended by sentences like this: "Cæsar Borgia—that Cæsar *aut nihil* of his age"; or why a man should write with this profundity about Leonardo at Milan: "One might justly suppose that he was the steward of the household. But no! He did all this with hand, not with heart. He was a courtier to please his master—not himself. No real delight he felt in material feasts; the intellectual feasts gratified him the most." M. de Pressensé's article is mostly trite, but is new in one respect: belonging as he does to that eminently respectable body—the Protestant Church in France—an institution of an entirely assured position, as perfectly well recognized and admitted by everybody as the Sorbonne itself; sheltered, however, from certain responsibilities—M. de Pressensé and its other members can cast a much more comfortable look over disordered France than can most Frenchmen: If, he may say, my countrymen will in spite of everything be clericals or else rationalists; if they will not take the golden mean of reasonable Protestantism—religious, moral, respectable, steady-going, anti-communist—yet wide as the poles asunder from Ultramontanism—why then, it is hardly to be expected that they should have a material prosperity or a religious life free from wild distractions or deep debasement. Meantime, he adds, as for our Protestant Church in France, it has been divided into two parts, the evangelical and the so-called liberal, which in numbers are to each other relatively as twelve is to ten; this has happened very recently—too recently for us to have wholly recovered from it; but it is to be expected that when the synodical evangelical church, which is ours, is well organized again, it will be left free to devote itself with vigor and success to a salutary propagandism, and that France may by-and-by learn from us that her destiny is not to be accomplished either by a religion without liberty or a philosophy without God, etc., etc. It will be seen that M. de Pressensé's is in no respect a position to be lightly treated; just at present, however, the extreme comfortableness of it has most clearly revealed itself to us.

—The text of Prof. Tyndall's address on the development of science does not bear out those of his critics who set him down as an enemy of religion. He appears, rather, as a defender of science in her negative attitude toward religion; and, provided that religion will undertake not to invade the scientific domain and distort facts, he is more than willing that the world should still be religious. Exactly what kind of religion Mr. Tyndall thinks possible among people who believe not merely in the Copernican system but in the evolutionary theories of Mr. Herbert Spencer, and the discoveries of Darwin as to the origin of species, we cannot discover from his address; but the hints thrown out seem to point in the direction of a religion, not of belief, but of imaginative devotion, escaping belief to find a refuge in the contemplation of the eternal mystery of the universe. "Man has never been, and he never will be, satisfied with the operations and products of the understanding alone; hence physical science cannot cover all the demands of his nature," Mr. Tyndall says at the beginning of his lecture; and at the end he declares that he is willing to affirm religion to be a field "for the noblest exercise of what, in contrast with the knowing faculties, may be called the creative faculties of man." His suggestion as to the future of religion is not unlike some remarks more at length by Mr. Herbert Spencer, in one of his papers on sociology, which we noticed some time since, and, indeed, may be taken to represent an opinion very commonly held among a number of well-known scientific men, who recognize the insoluble and impenetrable mystery of existence, and, at the same time, *quâ* men, devote themselves to the soluble and the penetrable.

—Mr. Tyndall avows himself a materialist; but it will be seen from the quotations we have already given how widely his materialism differs from that of the last century. The body of his address is an historical, but necessarily very discursive, review of the development of the enquiry into the nature of things, wrongly begun by our remote and superstitious ancestors, who handed over "the rule and governance of natural phenomena" to supersensual beings, confused from time to time by the metaphysico-religious speculations of later generations, but really set going, and carried forward to its present triumph over prejudice and opposition, by a series of investigators who have resolutely declined to listen to anything but the teaching of human experience of the external world. This historical essay is hardly to be taken as a complete or even completely connected review, but rather as an eloquent picture or series of pictures. Mr. Tyndall regards the beginning of true science as to be found in the speculations of those early philosophers who invented the "pregnant doctrine of atoms and molecules," and most people will be surprised to find that, according to Mr. Tyndall, we are thus carried back (not of course to our old acquaintance, Thales of Miletus, but to Democritus), who believed that nothing existed without its cause, and that all changes came from the combination and separation of molecules. "The great enigma, 'the exquisite adaptation of one part of an organism to another part, and to the conditions of life,' more especially the construction of the human body, Democritus made no attempt to solve." But Empedocles, noticing this gap in the doctrine of Democritus, "struck in with the penetrating thought, linked, however, with some wild speculation, that it lay in the very nature of those combinations which were suited to their ends (in other words, in harmony with their environment) to maintain themselves, while unfit combinations, having no proper habitat, must rapidly disappear. Thus, more than 2,000 years ago, the doctrine of the 'survival of the fittest,' which in our day, not on the basis of vague conjecture, but of positive knowledge, has been raised to such extraordinary significance, had received at all events partial enunciation." After this perhaps over-ingenious connection of Darwinism with the philosophy of Democritus, we have very interesting remarks on the development of the atomic philosophy, and incidental observations of great value, as for instance that describing the test of the truth of physical law furnished by the imagination, or act of mental presentation (*vorstellen, Vorstellung*), *e.g.*, the old explanation of the ascent of water in a pump by the law that "nature abhors a vacuum," is a truth which cannot be presented at all to the mind as a picture, and is in fact no truth at all.

—Perhaps the most interesting part of the address is the imaginary discussion between a disciple of Lucretius and Bishop Butler; the Bishop's position being that "our organized bodies are no more a part of ourselves than any other matter around us," the Lucretian materialist holding of course the exactly opposite opinion. The Lucretian begins by trying the Bishop's position by the test we have just mentioned, and asks whether a mental picture of what are called in the 'Analogy' "living powers," "percipient or perceiving powers," and "ourselves," can be formed apart from the organism through which these are supposed to act. Where is the conscious self? If there is such a thing apart from the body, it must be somewhere, it must have some habitation and form. If so, what form? When a leg is amputated, the body is divided into two parts; is the true self in both of them or in one? You begin at one end of the body, and show that its parts may be removed without prejudice to the perceiving power. What if you begin at the other end, and remove, instead of the leg, the brain? The body, as before, is divided into two parts; but both are now in the same predicament, and neither can be appealed to to prove that the other is foreign matter." The Lucretian wishes to know what is to be said also of the change of the brain from health to disease, and makes use of the electric telegraph to show the falsity of the Bishop's comparison of the organs of the body to

mechanical instruments. The telegraph wires, he says, and our nerves are no doubt similar; but there is this difference between the operator and our percipient selves: cut the wires, demagnetize the needle, break the battery—the operator survives; but if the human battery be broken, what is left? To this the Bishop replies that in the 'Analogy' he did not attempt to prove anything absolutely, but simply to show his "deistical friends" that they were no better off than the Christian. He is willing to go further, however, and discuss the atomic theory with the Lucretian. He admits, in the first place, the existence of molecular forces, and that crystalline forms result from them, but he requests the Lucretian to test his materialist theories by a simple experiment. Take, he says, dead atoms, dead carbon, dead oxygen, dead nitrogen, dead phosphorus, all the other atoms, dead as shot, of which the brain is formed, put them together, and then imagine, by the aid of *Vorstellungskraft*, if you can, how from this death sensation, thought, and emotion are to arise. It cannot be done. The dialogue ends in this admirable way:

"You cannot satisfy the human understanding in its demand for logical continuity between molecular processes and the phenomena of consciousness. This is a rock on which materialism must inevitably split whenever it pretends to be a complete philosophy of life. What is the moral, my Lucretian? You and I are not likely to indulge in ill temper in the discussion of these great topics, where we see so much room for honest differences of opinion. But there are people of less wit or more bigotry (I say it with humility) on both sides, who are ever ready to mingle anger and vituperation with such discussions. There are, for example, writers of note and influence at the present day who are not ashamed to assume the 'deep personal sin' of the great logician to be the cause of his unbelief in a theologic dogma. And there are others who hold that we, who cherish our noble Bible, wrought as it has been into the constitution of our forefathers and by inheritance into us, must necessarily be hypocritical and insincere. Let us disavow and discountenance such people, cherishing the unswerving faith that what is good and true in both our arguments will be preserved for the benefit of humanity, while all that is bad or false will disappear."

—On the 1st of October appears at Leipzig (H. Hartung & Sohn) the first number or volume of what we hope may prove to be a periodical, and if a quarterly, so much the better. We refer to the *Italia*, which Professor Karl Hillebrand will edit from Florence, and which he, if any man, is capable of making entertaining and profitable to readers of all nations. The work is, however, addressed primarily to that part of the German public which takes an interest in Italian affairs, and which is disposed not only to have a statistical knowledge of them, but, as the editor says in his prospectus, to understand them. The history, art, archæology, and landscape of the peninsula the Germans know already, and probably better than the Italians themselves; the inner springs of the national life of the present day are still a mystery and a riddle to the countrymen of Goethe and Winckelmann. That these may now be revealed by the aid of the foremost Italian specialists—savans, statesmen, and littérateurs—is the chief aim of *Italia*. The departments of history and scientific criticism, we are told, will be entrusted to Germans by right of eminent domain. Due account will be taken of the intellectual interaction of the two countries whose political alliance since Custozza, and especially since Sedan, has given assurance of a still closer and deeper intimacy, of which this magazine is a happy token. The second volume will appear on January 1, and the third at the will of Professor Hillebrand's audience if he succeeds in pleasing them. In the forthcoming volume the post of honor is rightly assigned to Professor Ruggero Bonghi, one of the ablest and most versatile of Italian parliamentarians. His topic is a comparison of the Italian and German methods of dealing with the church question. The tenant-system in Tuscany (by Sidney Sonnino); the paper currency (by Carlo Fontanelli); a tourist's impressions of Italy (by A. Gallenga, whose good wine needs no bush); the historical novel since Manzoni (by Prof. Angelo de Gubernatis); notes on Leonardo da Vinci (by Herman Grimm); the French in Sicily, 1674–78 (by O. Hartwig), still further enrich the table of contents, which we have not yet exhausted, for there are translations of Giusti's poetry, and again of German into Italian metres. With literary, dramatic, and political résumés—the last by Professor Hillebrand—and notices of current German literature relating to Italy, the volume closes; and that it is a brilliant "first number" will not be denied. Non-German readers may perhaps regret that the Italian contributions have to be rendered into German.

THE "HESSIAN" MERCENARIES.*

THE much controverted question whether there is anything in the nature of republican institutions to make republics ungrateful will, probably, never be satisfactorily solved. The political philosophers seem to-day as far from the solution of the grave problem as they were two thousand years ago—among other reasons, for the very simple one that the *fact* underlying the question is but an unproved hypothesis. There are, in the history of some of the most famous republics, instances of an uncommon tenacity of what we may call the political memory in contradistinction to the mere historical memory. We simply state the fact without venturing upon an explanation of it.

It will hardly be denied that the part taken by France in the War of Independence is, up to this day, a source of friendly sympathy bestowed by the Americans upon the French people in all their troubles. Time, a better knowledge of the historical facts, and a riper political judgment, have worked together to weaken this sympathy so far that it is impossible to make it ever again a war-cry of parties, as it was in the times of Jefferson and Hamilton. On the other hand, there is still enough left of it to make some editors and politicians deem it sufficiently strong, if properly managed, to get the better of the sober and impartial political judgment of the people. During the late Franco-German war, some of our papers wrote with as much fervor about the disinterested generosity shown by France to the United States during the Revolutionary War as if Lafayette had just taken his leave with a hand-shaking all round. Leading papers of this city considered themselves none too good to vent their inky wrath upon the poor "Hessians," as if the very men who, under Knyphausen, stormed Fort Washington, were then storming the heights of Spichern. It is not astonishing that the Congress of the Confederate States (Feb. 1864) called the German volunteers "legions of Hessian mercenaries." And it was, perhaps, not surprising either to find that in 1870 some editors in the Northern States had a livelier recollection of the 30,000 "Hessians" in the Revolutionary War than of the 200,000 German volunteers in the War of the Rebellion.

One need not belong to the school of political sentimentalists not to shrug one's shoulders over this sympathy for France, though there is now and then something unreasonable, and therefore unhealthy, in it. Honor to the nation that does not quite forget services rendered a hundred years ago. But even the editor of a village weekly should deem the "Hessians" too low a trump ever to be played against the living generation of Germans. To sink the last remnants of bitter feeling against the "Hessians" into the quiet deep of history we would recommend the publication of a translation of Dr. Kapp's 'Soldatenhandel.' It would certainly pay well in every respect. The author is too well known to the American public for us to dwell upon his exhaustive thoroughness, his rigid candor and true historical spirit, and the easy flow of his narrative. It may, however, be necessary to state that the treatise is not only of value to the historian *ex professo*. Any one taking an interest in historical subjects will not regret the time spent in its perusal. The author calls this second and enlarged edition "ein Beitrag zur Kulturgeschichte," and that it certainly is.

To read these pages and to harbor any rancor against the "Hessians" seems impossible. They are not guiltless; nay, their guilt appears almost unfathomable. But it is not they, individually taken, who could, in justice, be made responsible for it. It is the guilt of the whole German nation, whose pitiful representatives they are doomed to be; and not the guilt of the then living generation either, but the guilt of the nation as accumulated in many a century. Not that the "Hessians" felt any pangs of conscience in smiting liberty. Oh, no! "The people had rebelled, therefore they had to be brought to reason by the *ultima ratio regis*—in these few words all the political conceptions of the German officers are contained" (p. 229). "Once, in an unguarded moment, the Hessian General Loos even delights in the 'philosophical pleasure' of being able to tell an ungrateful prince and presumptuous minister: 'I do not want to serve you any longer.' But to the higher view, that this service is a contemptible beadle's service (*Schergendienst*) and incompatible with the self-respect of a free man, these gentlemen cannot and dare not rise" (p. 230). And the officers formed no exception; they thought as the rest of the nation did. "Even if Schiller (in 'Cabale und Liebe') did express the sentiments of a great part of the educated German youth, Germany in general remained indifferent to the forced participation of her sons in the American war. A real political conviction and independent political interests, and in consequence, therefore, political parties, had no existence in Germany before 1789. Even the first minds of the nation hardly knew political questions in the present sense of the term" (p. 203). Goethe, in all his writings, mentions the American war but twice, and then only incidentally. Klopstock and Lessing took hardly a more than superficial interest in it. Only Kant took part very decidedly with the United States against England. The higher classes in general "considered the traffic in soldiers a *regale* of the prince, and did not think it worth while to waste words about it" (p. 207).

All this cannot be excused, but it can be understood. To understand it fully, however, it is necessary to go back to the very beginning of German

* 'Der Soldatenhandel deutscher Fürsten nach Amerika. Ein Bertrag zur Kulturgeschichte des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts von Friedrich Kapp.' Zweite vermehrte und umgearbeitete Auflage. Berlin, 1874. Pp. 239. New York: B. Westermann & Co.

history, and, more particularly, to study the indescribable misery in which the Thirty Years' War left Germany. That is the indispensable background to the fearful picture unrolled in these pages. The Virginian slave-driver, hurrying his manacled gang "down South," might have learned a good deal from the German recruiting officers, stealing and driving to port these "Hessians," who, according to the Prince of Waldeck, "*ne demanderont certainement pas mieux que de trouver l'occasion de se sacrifier pour elle* [*Sa Majesté d'Angleterre*]," p. 244. A few lines from the instructions for corporals transporting recruits will prove the assertion. "If the recruit be in the least doubtful, he must, on command of the corporal, cut his suspenders, cut off the buttons from his pantaloons, and hold the pantaloons up with his hands. If he has made an attempt to escape, he must, without mercy, be chained, or the thumb-screws applied. It is bad if the corporal suffers it to go so far that he has to make use of his musket, and to wound or kill the recruit" (p. 15). It may seem strange that such treatment of the poor devils who longed so ardently to sacrifice themselves for George III. did not arouse a storm of indignation throughout the nation. The explanation is readily found: the rest of the people were not treated any better by these most gracious rulers of countries of vest-pocket size. In Hessia, if the parents of the kidnapped son complained, the father was sent to the iron-works, the mother to the penitentiary (p. 51). In Stuttgart, even, a councillor of the exchequer (*Kammerrath*) was treated by a simple lieutenant to twenty-five "Stockschlaege," well laid on by the soldiers of the guard, for the very good reason that he had not bowed to the officer. The head of the councillor being severely hurt, his life was in danger for several days. The lieutenant, belonging of course to the nobility, was hardly punished at all, for, as the courtiers said, it served the impudent clerk right (p. 99). The Markgrave of Anspach shot a chimney-sweeper from the roof of his castle because his mistress had expressed a wish to see the man tumble. To the widow of the murdered man, who implored mercy, the mild-hearted prince gave five gulden (p. 113). Mistresses were so dear a pleasure that five gulden, more or less, could not be of any consequence. The Landgrave of Hessia had to pay his *maitresse en titre* 10,000 thalers, gold, a year, and she was only the first among many, for he is said to have had over three hundred illegitimate children; his son, the Count of Hanau, had only seventy-four. In other respects, too, the son was unable to attain the towering eminence of his father. Cassel was one of the most beautiful and splendid cities of Germany. The sums expended by the Landgrave in magnificent buildings were enormous; and yet he managed to leave to his heirs 60,000,000 thalers. It was at least a well-paying business, this coining of the flesh and blood of one's subjects. There is certainly no known dealer in black human flesh who could boast of similar results. But even among the German princes, the Landgrave stood on a solitary eminence, principally, it is true, because many of them could not do as they would have liked to do. Karl Eugen of Würtemberg had, as late as 1782, a regiment of cavalry, one hundred and fifty men, of whom not one had a horse. Another prince kept fifty grenadiers as a body-guard, who had to have high heels on their shoes to appear taller. For this company of fifty there were two bearskin helmets; these the sentinels in front of the castle had to wear. Another had three different uniforms for his guard; to-day they were grenadiers, to-morrow cuirassiers, and a third day sharpshooters. Another had some regiments of dragoons on foot. From time to time they had to make cavalry evolutions on foot, and then they were allowed, during the attack, to neigh like horses (pp. 9, 10). Now, these are not fictions of the unbridled imagination of a satirist, but sober history.

There is one light point in the dark picture, auguring a better future. The princes of Hanover, Brunswick, the two Hessias, Waldeck, Anspach, and Anhalt-Zerbst, sold their subjects to George III. to subdue the rebels in America. Frederic II. of Prussia also was not overscrupulous about the manner in which his regiments were completed, but he did not sell them; he found an employment for them not now to be regretted by Germany. And more. There was nothing of that sympathy for the United States in Frederic sometimes ascribed to him by American sentimentalists; but he very heartily despised those on whom the immediate blame for those 30,000 "Hessians" rests. We may be allowed to give, in conclusion, part of a letter of Frederic II. to the Markgrave of Brandenburg-Bayreuth, now for the first time published by Mr. Kapp:

"POTSDAM, ce 24. Octobre, 1777.

"MONSIEUR MON NEVEU! J'avoue à Votre Altesse Serenissime, que Je ne pense jamais à la guerre actuelle en Amérique sans être frappé de l'empressement de quelques princes d'Allemagne, de sacrifier leurs Trouppes à une querelle qui ne les regarde pas. Mon étonnement augmente même quand Je Me rappelle de l'histoire ancienne, cet eloignement sage et général dans Nos Ancêtres, de prodiguer le sang allemand pour la defense des droits etrangers et qui passa même en loi dans le corps Germanique.

"Mais Je M'apperçois que Mon patriotisme M'emporte . . . FÉDÉRIC."

RECENT POETRY.*

II.

A WRITER evidently on terms of acquaintance and perhaps intimacy with Mr. Robert Buchanan has divulged the fact that it is to Mr. Buchanan that we owe the poem 'White Rose and Red,' and not only that, but a preceding poem entitled 'Saint Abe and His Seven Wives.' Both were published anonymously. There seems to our mind to be something of impertinence in a challenge from a writer like Mr. Buchanan which requires of the public that it should examine him anew. Why should we? He might well enough stay quietly in the class assigned him, and prove his right to promotion by good acknowledged work. It is taking a liberty to say in effect to the public that the poet, satisfied that his own estimate of his own powers is of more value than that of the judges, has chosen to change his name and apply under disguise for a new examination. Considerations of this kind do not, however, trouble Mr. Buchanan. All his literary career shows that having had strength of body, mind, and character sufficient to take him safely through the hectic stage of Scottish poetical development, he retains less than sufficient to raise him above a conceit of himself and his works and an ignorance of his incapacities which have often stood his literary countrymen in excellent stead, and which he himself is often displaying in various ways. Beginning his career as a writer in poetry by some sketches suffused, not to say saturated, with that pathos of elemental tragedy which so many a humble life exhibits, he at once gained a distinct success, and by-and-by he repeated it. Ambition growing within him, or rather unfolding itself, and reaching out in more than one direction, he has since constantly made distinct failures—sometimes obvious and sometimes radical but not obvious, first as a London man of letters, and secondly as a philosophic and lyric poet. But, indeed, lest the mention of a want of reach for certain kind of poetry should be misleading, let us say that his happy efforts, in such of the several kinds of poetry as he has attacked, have deserved to be called happy in a general literary sense rather than in a sense very poetical. For one thing, he has never yet mastered his subject; but in the early books—in the description of seduced fisherwomen with their idiot sons, or of David Grays dying of declines under the eyes of their mothers—this subserviency to the common feelings naturally rising from the situation is as fortunate for him as his sentimentalism and indulgence of his emotions are unfortunate for him when he fills a volume with verse such as that contained in his "Book of Orm"—a most tremendous philosophic tragedy of the soul of man, which makes the reader sigh for the old-fashioned five-act tragedy that young Scotchmen took up to London in their portmanteaus a hundred years ago—before the destiny of Mr. Buchanan had begun to trouble Clotho or any of us. Of Mr. Buchanan's course as a general man of letters, a principal waymark is a volume of essays which are very "loud" in tone. This is fair enough description, because, considered as intellectual judgments, the essays were without merit except in occasional flashes, and those infrequent. The late Professor Wilson, who has much to answer for as a corrupter of Scottish literary taste and an encourager of a violently and unallowably self-assertive style of writing, has apparently had his due degree of influence on Mr. Buchanan. But if Professor Wilson could not make it quite pleasant to his readers to tell them all the time that he was more than six feet high; was Kit North; could outjump the Flying Tailor and outbox the Flaming Tinman; admired the 'Excursion' and despised any man who did not admire it, would in fact refuse to drink Glenlivet whiskey with any such "sumph"—if Professor Wilson could not very long beguile us with this sort of writing, followers like Mr. Buchanan, who presumably are no more than five feet and some inches high, move the reader to but very little complacency when they confide to us that Dickens makes them cry, and swear that in their judgment a man who says The Good Genius's pathos is sad stuff is a duffer, or has never felt his soul melt at the note of the lapwing. Another and more exciting of Mr. Buchanan's critical labors was a gallant attempt of his at cleaning out the Swinburnian stable. This resulted in several letters and pamphlets of a noble character, some from Hercules and some from Augeas himself; but the former was much overborne by the contemptuousness and the Greek metres and other acquirements of the latter, and while the world greatly admired the pair of them, and gave full credit to the moral attitude of Mr. Buchanan, there was a general feeling that had he known the things that made for his own good as a literary person he would have unalterably held his tongue.

* 'White Rose and Red. A Love Story.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1873.
'Thurid and Other Poems. By G. E. O.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1874.
'Satan. A Libretto. By Christopher Pearce Cranch.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.
'The Poems of Charles Fenno Hoffman. Collected and edited by Edward Fenno Hoffman.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1873.
'Poems. By Odnt Parkhurst of Iowa.' Chicago: The Western News Company. 1874.

The anonymous work which is Mr. Buchanan's latest poetical production is of no special importance that it should be anonymous and ask us to be curious about it. It is well enough and ill enough, and, except for length, is magazine poetry. It has for its heroine an Indian girl, a maid with moccásons, whom we may reasonably expect transatlantic readers to believe in with a clearer faith than can be given on this side of the water. She loves and is loved by a wandering white hunter, who speedily makes the young thing his wife after the fashion of the forest; but as it was wandering that brought him to her, so he soon is smitten with the desire to wander away again, and he seeks his home in Maine, promising soon to return. The scene of the loves of the hunter and "The Red Rose" is described with such collected wealth of acacias, magnolias, prairies, rattlesnakes, grizzly bears, crocodiles, green serpents like Mr. Joaquin Miller's large ones, and lovely Indian maidens, that as we have hinted we can find in ourselves but a confused and imperfect sympathy with it; but the scene in the Maine village is managed in a way which will not command high praise as a brilliant feat, but which deserves commendation for cleverness. It will recall to the reader the street conversations in 'Saint Abe,' the dialogue of which poem was to the purpose, lively and well, though not subtly, discriminated, and expressed in a fluent sort of verse whose ease often degenerated into the slipshod, but always was at all events easy and fluent, and if often vulgar and trivial, often appropriately so. The same general praise and blame are to be given to the versification of 'White Rose and Red.' Mr. Buchanan has evidently sought lightness of movement and has in a creditable measure attained it. The errant lover of course finds it possible to fall in love with a Maine girl, "The White Rose," who reminds him of the other by contrast, and the story closes with the death of the Indian wife at the long-sought home of her husband and her successful rival.

The author of 'Thurid,' "G. E. O.," is a writer the secret of whose initials we do not know. Of the three tales which the volume contains we have read two without being repelled from reading the other and without being attracted towards it. It was once a common saying in discussing the poems of young writers, that a superfluity of heat and of consequent tropicality of expression were good signs in the beginner; increasing years and awakening judgment being held competent to cool the ardor of the most glowing, but not capable of inflaming the cold and sterile. Such comments might just now seem to have a false sound. It has for many recent years been rather our habit to believe that a poet need not be a hard-working man at all, and that, if he has the true poetic fibre in him, poetry will come spontaneously out of him if the west wind blows on him or Shelley's cloud strikes him properly. The result of this judicious doctrine has been that the spontaneous school, with its plenitude of feeling and its economy of labor and of taciturnity, begins to cause a doubt in some minds whether, for the modern young poet, a tendency to verbal and mental baldness, and a disposition to mind his book and let the west wind alone, may not be a thing to be desired. Among "G. E. O.'s" qualities a deliberate simplicity of manner may be named. We do not see, either, that it is not truly enough "G. E. O.'s" natural way of speech. "Thurid," the poem which gives its name to the book, is not so deserving of these remarks as "Goodman John." The simple manner does not so well suit the former legend as the more heroic—the warp of the song being a well-known passion and resultant miseries of a kind familiar to all.

There can be no doubt that our time has to a very great extent discarded anything like a real faith in the existence of a devil, personal or impersonal. This, at any rate, is true of the belief of Americans. We have heard on good authority that American penitents composing their "meditations', during Roman Catholic "retreats," fail as a rule in making good meditations on the subject of hell. Probably it is not too far-fetched an inference that they thus fail because, whatever may be the condition of their own hearts and minds, they have been at least brought up under the million influences of a community which as unwillingly believes in a hell or a devil as in any other means, ministers, or symbols of restraint. De Tocqueville would probably find no difficulty in discovering both the bad and the good roots of this incapacity in our democratic system—or as some would say, in the various inherent conditions, political or what not, under which American life is carried on. Indeed, to assert this of American opinion on the topic named is to assert it in a degree of all modern civilized opinion, and we need not confine our remark to this country. Mr. Cranch speaks of his 'Satan' as "a libretto." "A libretto," he says, "is too often a mere thread on which the composer strings his pearls—a text for some work of art nobler than itself. While this poem makes no claim to be full-strung, it may perhaps serve to awaken a few snatches of a music containing some vital symbolic conception of the grandest of all harmonies—the Divine order in creation." As we understand this passage, real music, palpable to the sense, is not meant. The "libretto" is metaphorically a libretto, and the music which it is to awaken, a metaphorical music in the soul of the listener. We may say that Mr. Cranch describes for us a sort of Unitarian Satan, so to speak. He is a being whom we confess we have found very vaporous. The gist of it all is this thought: that Satan stands as the representative of all evil; but evil is good in the making, and in the end it will come out all right. Whatever this may be as theology, it will be seen that no one could make poetry out of it. Such naked dealings with what is after all the main question that occupies the mind of man, not even the Muses themselves would venture upon, and the problem as thus set forth is seen to be no business for the poet.

Mr. Charles Fenno Hoffman's nephew has piously collected all the songs and other poems of his uncle, so long sequestered from the world, and has published them in a good-looking duodecimo volume. The author has a neglected but not yet crumbled niche in the gallery of American literature, and it was well to gather his works together and let them together await posterity and the cicerone of the cyclopædias. We may be sure that these anacreontics here will sadden but few of our children—will reach a company small indeed in comparison with the fair women and brave men who listened to "Sparkling and Bright" a generation and more ago; yet it is a good deed to save them. The verses certainly are now touched with a yellowing melancholy, and a safer recipe for a winter evening of pensiveness could hardly be found for gentlemen past fifty than a resolve to reperuse their Hoffman when January is almost gone.

In almost every band of contemporary poets there is one who is abandoned to despair. Mr. Clint Parkhurst is, so to speak, actively abandoned, and has something of the look of a desperado. On page 79 he speaks of "creeds" in an epigram:

> "All human vagaries deceive,
> The best of creeds is—disbelieve."

Mr. Parkhurst's pronunciation and other literary accomplishments suffer by his youth's having been partly taken up with service in the war against the rebellion, and must not be reviewed harshly. On another page (44) we find the poem, "There is no Good," which begins thus:

> "Earth seems a hell.
> Life came unasked
> And so comes woe.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> I denounce existing things,
> There is no guiding hand."

This writer has, however, some signs of thought and some energy of language.

By Sea and by Land. Being a trip all round the world. By Henry Alworth Merewether, one of Her Majesty's Counsel. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.)—For an old gentleman past sixty, a journey round the globe is still an arduous and, physically speaking, a creditable achievement. In undertaking it, our author showed himself a typical Englishman, and in the cause of his making it—the dispersion of his family—we have a reflection of the British Empire. He had a brother and married daughter in India, another brother in Australia, and two sons in New Zealand, whom he wished to see once more, probably for the last time. This determined him to go eastward through the Suez Canal, and curiosity to visit the New World led him to brave the tedious voyage from Sydney to San Francisco, and afterwards to cross the continent by rail. It is easy to feel an interest in so respectable a tourist, and to content ourselves for learning a little less about the countries he visits by learning a little more about him. We soon know him for a good-natured Tory, whose aversion to radical rule is hardly greater than to the rules of grammar, but who is capable of conquering his prejudices, and whose business as a traveller is to tell a plain tale of what he sees. His conservatism and his slipshod writing are illustrated in an early passage relating to his children: "Well, I had settled some of the thirteen, but among them were two boys at Winchester (notorious in these days for that absurd 'Tunding' controversy, of which I have received many, and should have been far better if I had got more)," etc. Of the countless instances in which *who* is used for *whom*, as flagrant as any is this one: "It reminded me of the poor mother in the quarantine ground, who it required all the stern vigilance of the Sydney Dogberry to prevent her folding her arms round her nice little girl." This literary license, however, as it began by melting the proof-reader's severity, ends by conciliating those who find other reasons for being in good humor with Mr. Merewether. A vein of pleasantry, never rising to wit, runs through all his narrative, as when, fearing an attack of cholera, he says: "I began to think seriously about it, and it will be pleasing to you, my friends, that I contemplated some post-mortem gifts to each and every of you—to one my watch, to another a set of ivory brushes. However, being willing still to come up to time and to brush my hair, I, directly I got home, took some chlorodyne, which happily composed internal troubles." Or, again: "To tell you the truth, I was beginning to

tire of mosques, especially as they are called musjids, which is a name conjoined with Sir Joseph Hawley's horse, which gave me the only painful recollection out of thirty-eight Derby Days."

Mr. Merewether's flying impressions afford little opportunity for quotation. In the garden of a fine house in Bombay he saw "a croquet-ground lit by gas, so that the game may be prolonged after the sun is gone down." At the Madras arsenal: "I was much struck, amidst an interesting collection of old arms, with the smallness of the hand-place for grasping the sword. A female would not have found the majority of them too large." We pass over his not very comfortable experiences in Australia and New Zealand, and his gloomy predictions of the future of society in the former country. Arriving in the United States, he saw a horse-race in San Francisco, saluted Brigham Young in Salt Lake City, visited rebuilt Chicago, admired Niagara, and—crossed the ocean delightedly with Barnum, some of whose long yarns he reproduces with great gusto. Mr. Merewether assigns the showman a home at "Bridport," alludes to the eminent preacher Dr. "Chafyn," and to President "Fillimore," and comes within about a mile of his mark when, apparently under the delusion of a false etymology, he speaks of "'spendoolia,' a pleasant American word for money." His car-window observations are enough to make him enamored of the country, to which he awards the palm over the English colonies he had just visited. "Of all places in the world where a man may be most comfortable, most independent, and may do best, America is the place for me." A single one of his reflections on American society appears to us worth citing:

"Giving this amount of consideration to the lower orders has gradually led to such a system of corruption in state matters as is incredible. They have not fine feeling enough to appreciate what in other countries would be considered as operating as an actual bar to a man's elevation to a public post. Let me give this instance: There was a contest for a judgeship, the judges there [in San Francisco] being only elected for a period, and not, like ours, for life. One of the candidates had been accused of misappropriating some bonds, and the matter was still under enquiry. One would have thought that such a charge against a man who was an applicant for judicial station would at once have made his case hopeless. For, indeed, I have known, and still know, gentlemen who fill a high station at the bar, and have a large business, but against whom there is a 'something.' They may retain their practice, and so on, but they never hope to be made a judge. I ask the experience of my legal brethren whether such is not the case What was the case with this worthy man? He was a popular man, and the 'unwashed' voted for him as 'a smart fellow,' and he was elected."

The Dramatic Unities in the Present Day. By Edwin Simpson. (London: Trübner & Co. 1874.)—The phrase "dramatic unities" is one which, we fancy, is occasionally used by writers without exact comprehension of all that is implied by that once-potent formula, and when there is a disposition among dramatic critics to revive it, as, according to Mr. Simpson, is the case at present in England, it is only proper that their claim should be carefully considered. For this purpose this little volume will be found to be admirably fitted. It quotes from Aristotle the passages which are assumed to be the basis of the theory, and at the same time points out their application in the work of Gian Giorgio Trissino, one of the court of Leo the Tenth, and later writers. It is shown that the Greek tragedians did not comply with the laws afterwards formulated from their plays; and there follows an excellent summary of the arguments on the matter, with quotations from the French critics who supported it, and from Schlegel, Lessing, Goethe, and Dr. Johnson on the other side. There are also admirable illustrations of the difficulties of exact compliance with the rules imposed upon the French tragedians. Statistics are given of the efforts of English playwrights to cut themselves free from all the traditions of their wonderful dramatic literature and to fashion their work after the requirements of unnatural laws.

As the matter now stands, it would seem to be beginning at the wrong end to attempt to reform the defective play-writing of the present day by imposing novel and difficult rules upon a class of authors who are for the most part incapable of rising above abject triviality. The general principle we can look at with great equanimity; the battle has been fought, and the absolute power of the dramatic unities has been broken, but there is no one who would condemn a good play because the author had chosen to observe them. To demand them, however, to insist on them, is a very different and a most mischievous thing. One might as well ask of our artists that they paint nothing but Madonnas. How small is the foundation on which the theory rests is clearly and temperately shown in this little book; we hope it may be read, if for no other purpose than to see how a pretentious and bastard formula can impose for a long time on literature.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, September 7, 1874.

WITH the exception of a moderate increase of business in the speculative stocks at the Stock Exchange, the past week has shown no new feature of importance. There is no change to report in the condition of the money market beyond a slight hardening in the rates on commercial paper. Prime endorsed names have ruled between 6½ and 7½ per cent., while good endorsed paper having three and four months to run is quoted at 8 to 9 per cent. Sales of extra choice endorsed names having sixty days to run are reported as low as 4 per cent.; but these were entirely exceptional. Money on call, secured by Stock Exchange collaterals, continues to rule between 2 and 3 per cent., with the bulk of business doing at 2½ per cent.

The foreign news is unimportant. The Bank of England minimum discount rate remains unchanged at 3 per cent., with money in the open market obtainable at 2¾ per cent. The Bank of England lost £94,000 in bullion, and the Bank of France lost 75,000 francs in specie, during the week.

The weekly statement of the New York Clearing-house banks on Saturday was unfavorable, the banks having lost $1,677,900 in legal tenders. The surplus reserve is down $1,361,175. The following shows the changes in the averages for the week ending September 6, as compared with those of the previous one:

	August 29.	Sept. 5.		Differences.
Loans	$278,319,800	$279,084,900	Inc..	$765,100
Specie	18,638,100	18,891,300	Inc..	253 200
Legal tenders	67,282,600	65,604,700	Dec..	1,677 9 0
Deposits	235,000,100	234,746,000	Dec..	254.100
Circulation	25,803,300	25,662,400	Dec..	140,900

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	August 29.	Sept. 5.		Differences.
Specie	$18,638,100	$18,891.300	Inc...	$253.200
Legal tenders	67,282,600	65,604,700	Dec..	1,677,900
Total reserve	$85,920,700	$84,496,000	Dec..	$1,424,700
Reserve required against deposits	58,750,025	58.686.500		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	27,170,675	25,809,500	Dec..	1,361,175

The stock market has been active, and prices generally at the close on Saturday showed a considerable advance over those at the close of the previous week. The most active stock was Western Union Telegraph, upon which a declaration of a quarterly dividend of 2 per cent. was made; this gave a stimulus to the market for the stock, under which the price advanced from 76⅛ on Monday to 78⅞ on Saturday. Union Pacific followed, and ran from 27⅞ to 30⅞. Lake Shore was next in importance in amount of dealings, and advanced from 72⅞ to 73⅞. The basis for the upward movement in stocks seems to have been the large uncovered short interest. A few operators bought largely to cover their own shorts, and, beyond this, to place themselves on the bull side of the market by going long. The effect of this was to set all the small operators, both in and out of the Stock Exchange, to buying stocks, and to such an extent that prices would undoubtedly have advanced much higher than they did had not those who were at the bottom of the movement stood ready to sell at the moderate profit which was offered.

The market to-day opened at ¼ per cent. higher on the leading stocks than it closed on Saturday, but under sales made to realize, principally upon Rock Island, the market underwent a fractional decline, except on Wabash, which fell off from 32⅞ to 31½. This was followed by a better feeling, upon which the market improved and finally closed strong at an advance of ⅛ to 1 per cent. from the closing prices of Saturday, the greatest improvement being in New York Central and Western Union, both of which were 1 per cent. higher. The investment stocks have been quiet. There was some activity in New Jersey Central, caused by a circular from the Company offering $5,000,000 new consolidated bonds to the stockholders for the purpose of making certain improvements. This was unfavorably looked upon at first, and led to considerable sales being made on sellers' option, the price at one time being 102¼. The low price of the stock brought out good buyers—friends of the road—and the price soon rallied up to nearly that at which it stood previous to the receipt of the circular.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending September 5, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday.	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101⅜ 102⅛	102¼ 101⅜	102⅜ 102⅝	102¼ 102½	102⅜ 102⅝	102⅜ 103	15,000
Lake Shore	72⅛ 73⅜	73¼ 73⅜	73⅜ 74⅜	73⅝ 74⅛	73⅜ 73⅝	73⅝ 73⅞	112.400
Erie	32⅞ 34⅛	34⅜ 35⅜	34 35½	33⅜ 34⅜	33½ 34	33⅜ 34	75,800
Union Pacific	27⅜ 28⅜	28¼ 29½	29½ 30⅜	30 31	29⅜ 30½	30¼ 30⅞	149,500
Chi. & N. W.	37⅜ 38⅛	38 38⅜	38¼ 38½	38⅜ 38⅛	36⅜ 37⅜	36⅞ 38	17,500
Do. pfd.	56⅜ 57	.... 57½	.. 57¼	56½ 57	55⅜ 56	56 56¼	2,200
N. J. Central	 105	104½ 105¼	105 105	 103	105 105¼	103 104	8,000
Rock Island	100¾ 101⅜	101 101⅜	101½ 102⅛	100⅜ 101¼	99⅝ 100⅜	99½ 100⅜	41,500
Mil. & St. Paul	34½ 35⅛	34⅜ 35⅜	35½ 35½	34¼ 35	33⅜ 34⅛	33⅜ 34⅛	16,400
Do. pfd.	53⅜ 54	 54	53⅜ 54	 53	 53	52⅜ 53½	1,300
Wabash	33½ 34½	34 34⅞	34⅜ 35⅜	32 34⅛	32 33⅜	32⅜ 34	102,600
D., L. & W.	 109	.... 108⅜	108⅜ 108⅜	 108	.... 108¼	108 108¼	2,100
O. & M.	23⅞ 24¼	24⅜ 24⅜	24⅜ 24⅜	24 24⅜	23⅛ 24⅜	24⅛ 24⅜	15,000
C. C. & I. C.	11¼ 11⅞	11⅛ 11⅜	10½ 11½	8 10	8¼ 9½	8⅜ 9½	20,000
W. U. Tel	76¼ 76⅝	76⅜ 77⅜	77⅜ 78½	77⅜ 78⅜	77⅜ 78¼	78½ 78⅞	216,900
Pacific Mail	47⅛ 47⅝	47⅝ 47⅞	47½ 47⅞	47¾ 47⅝	47¼ 47⅝	47⅜ 48⅛	65,300

Government bonds have been quiet and prices steady. The Secretary of the Treasury has issued another call for $15,000,000 5-20's of 1862, on which interest will cease December 1.

The following are the closing quotations of Governments this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	118¾	118⅝	Registered 5-20's, 1867, c	117⅛	117¼
Registered 5-20's, 1862, c	112⅜	112¾	Registered 5-20's, 1868, c	117⅜	117⅝
Registered 5-20's, 1864, c	115⅜	115¾	Registered 10-40's, c	111¾	112
Registered 5-20's, 1865, M and N	116¾	117⅛	Registered 5's of 1881	112½	112⅝
Registered 5-20's, 1865, J and J.	116½	116½	U. S. Currency 6's	117¼	117¾

The gold market has remained quiet, with the range of fluctuations confined between 109⅝ and 110 as extremes. The Treasury will sell only $3,000,000 gold during the present month. The specie shipments for the week amounted to only $472,000, of which $113,000 was in gold coin.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

TERMS: In advance, one insertion, four cents per word; five insertions, three cents per word, each. The enclosure of a stamped and addressed envelope will secure a numbered box, to which communications may be addressed.

A Young Lady desires a situation to teach the lower English branches in a public or private school, or as visiting teacher. Unexceptionable references. Address TEACHER, 39 South Portland Avenue, Brooklyn.

An educated American, a good Linguist, and accustomed to literary composition, desires employment on some literary or scientific journal, as writer or book reviewer. Address R. C. S., Box 51, Hoboken.

An experienced Classical and Mathematical Teacher, Scholar, and Gold Medallist of foreign University, desires to establish a school in which the thorough drill of English Public Schools would be given. Takes private pupils. Prepares for scientific schools and college (English or American). Highest city reference. Address TUTOR, 29 West Fifteenth Street, New York.

A Visiting Governess, accustomed to teach English, French, and German, has spare hours. Address Box B, *Nation* Office.

A Harvard Graduate, Private Tutor in Cambridge, wants a pupil for the coming College year. Has experience and city references. Address Box 16, *Nation* office.

A Graduate of Harvard College would like two or three Pupils to fit for College or otherwise. Best references. Address Box 17, *Nation* office.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

A Vassar Graduate of three years' experience in teaching, desires a situation in a select school. Refers to the Faculty of Vassar College. Address, Box 15, *Nation* Office.

A Teacher with Experience (ten years in music, four in drawing and painting) wishes employment in a school. MARTHA H. JONES, Meredith Village, N. H.

A Class for Young Gentlemen, and Private Instruction. Circulars sent on application. THOMAS R. ASH, 17 East Sixteenth Street.

Excellent Governesses for Families in abundance. Please address "TEACHERS' AGENCY," Rev. L. W. Applegate, Mauch Chunk, Pa.

Partner with Capital Wanted.—To Manufacture Hardwood Lumber, and also to deal in Pine Uppers. An active and experienced business-man preferred. Best of references given and demanded. Address "Lumberman," 27 East Seventy-fourth Street, New York City.

Wanted.—A Gentleman of literary attainments, and with some capital to put in, desires to make a business connection with some established Publishing House. Address J. T. B., Box 407, Medford, Mass.

Those Seeking Admission to Harvard, Yale, or any other American College, to Sheffield or Lawrence Scientific School, or any School of Technology, can receive thorough preparation at ROGERS HIGH SCHOOL, Newport, R. I. Special provision made for Laboratory Practice. Tuition, $60 per annum. Frederic W. Tilton, A.M. (late Principal of Phillips Academy), Head-Master.

SPECIAL NOTICES.

For Sale.—Vols. X. to XIV. of the Nation inclusive, bound in boards, with red-leather backs. Price $2 50 each if taken together. Address the Publisher, Box 25, New York.

Harvard University Divinity School.— This School is open, on equal terms, to persons of all denominations, and the next term will begin September 24. Information in regard to admission and pecuniary aid will be sent on application to Prof. OLIVER STEARNS, D.D., or Prof. E. J. YOUNG, Cambridge, Mass.

School of Mines, Columbia College.— Courses in Mining and Civil Engineering, Geology, Mineralogy, Chemistry, Assaying, etc., etc. Send for catalogue. C. F. CHANDLER, Dean of Faculty, East Forty-ninth Street, New York.

Bellevue Hospital Medical College, City of New York, session of 1874-75. The Collegiate Year in this Institution embraces a preliminary autumnal term, the regular winter session, and a summer session. The Preliminary Autumnal Term for 1874-75 will commence on Wednesday, September 16, 1874, and continue until the opening of the regular session. During this term instruction, consisting of didactic lectures on special subjects and daily clinical lectures, will be given, as heretofore, by the entire faculty. Students designing to attend the regular session are strongly recommended to attend the preliminary term, but attendance during the latter is not required. During the preliminary term, clinical and didactic lectures will be given in precisely the same number and order as in the regular sessions. The Regular Session will commence on Wednesday, September 30, 1874, and end about the 1st of March 1875. For the annual circular and catalogue, giving regulations for graduation, and other information, address the Secretary of the College, Prof. AUSTIN FLINT, Jr., Bellevue Hospital Medical College.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 17, 1874.

The Week.

THE discontent which has been smouldering in Louisiana for two years has broken out in an attempt at revolution. The whites in New Orleans have demanded Kellogg's resignation, and, Kellogg refusing, they have erected barricades and fought with the metropolitan police (mostly colored), Kellogg taking sanctuary in the Custom-house. Penn, the lieutenant-governor, in the absence of McEnery, issued a proclamation to the people of Louisiana, urging them to rise and drive the "usurpers" out of the State, and calling out the State militia. The citizens, after very little fighting, got possession of the city and the Government buildings on Tuesday. The President has issued a proclamation calling upon them to disperse within five days, and announcing his intention of enforcing the laws if they do not. The immediate cause of these disturbances is of course the approaching election, the Kellogg party having recently occupied themselves with seizing arms imported into the State, as they say, for the White Leaguers, under the pretence that the vessel which brought them had no manifest. On the other hand, the citizens point to the control which a recent law gave Kellogg over the election machinery, which renders a fair election impossible.

The trouble is now two years old, and, while there is little sympathy anywhere in the country for the violent remedies now adopted, there is as little doubt that the citizens are right in maintaining that Kellogg has been kept in power by fraudulent means and that his government is a usurpation. The history of the case has been often told. At the election of 1872 in Louisiana, there were two canvassing boards, both claiming to exercise the right of canvassing the votes cast, one in the interest of McEnery and the other in that of Kellogg. As nearly as can be made out, the Warmoth (McEnery) board was probably not a legal body, but it got possession of the returns, which showed a majority for McEnery, while the other board, which had no returns at all, was probably the only body legally authorized to canvass in the State. But before either board had made any returns, Kellogg and Casey got an order from Judge Durell, of the United States District Court, directing United States troops to take possession of the State House and install the Kellogg government. These matters were investigated more than a year ago by a Senate Committee, consisting of Messrs. Carpenter, Anthony, Alcorn, Logan, Trumbull, Morton, and Hill, and a majority reported that there was no State government existing in Louisiana; five members found that, if there was any legislature at all, it was the McEnery legislature. There could not well have been a more explicit censure of the method by which Kellogg had got possession of the State government; nevertheless, his government has been the only one recognized at Washington from the day of the election to the present moment.

Mr. Moulton's long-promised "statement" appeared during the week. It is of great length, and it would be impossible to analyze it, even if we had the space at command. Moreover, it is hardly necessary or worth while to do so, in view of the fact that the case is coming before the courts in October, when the whole story will be told over again, and when Moulton and Tilton and all concerned will be publicly examined and cross-examined. It is proper to say of the statement in the meantime, however, that, though damaging to Moulton himself in the highest degree, it unquestionably contains enough new matter, and enough corroboration of old matter, to render the report of the committee exonerating Mr. Beecher incomplete, and to render some further process of vindication absolutely necessary. He must assume the offensive before some differently-constituted tribunal, and we would earnestly warn him and his friends against the supposition that the eager, credulous affection of Plymouth Church can save his character. It is well as far as it goes, but it goes only a very little way.

The greatest value of the Moulton statement lies, on the whole, in the fresh illustration it affords of the morality of chromo-civilization. A more revolting picture than he paints of this could hardly be imagined. Tilton drags his wife and children through a slough of filth to revenge himself on Dr. Bacon for calling him "a dog." Moulton assumes to Beecher the relation of an intimate friend, and the repositary of awful secrets, which he blabs to his wife, his business partners, and all sorts of people during nearly the whole period. His pastor confesses to him offences of the most revolting kind, and he and his wife discuss them with the said pastor and his paramour in a friendly social way, and help him to conceal them and to retain his place as a Christian minister, and they both attend his preaching. Whenever, too, the parties to the scandal have anything particular to say to each other by way of reconciliation, or explanation, or accusation, or apology, they apparently cannot trust each other's oral statements, but draw up written protocols and treaties, which they confide to each other in solemn secresy, but immediately begin to show to their friends. One husband in the drama mentions to some ladies at a dinner party an attack made on his wife's virtue by his religious teacher as part of the social gossip of the day. The Mutual Friend and "Man of the World" in the affair, too, when he finds himself in a position of great perplexity in the discharge of a duty of the utmost delicacy, selects as his adviser a criminal lawyer notorious for the knavery of his practice and for the dishonesty of his public and private life, and fills his report of his trust with filthy insinuations, and sneers, and commentaries evidently suggested by this old satyr; and the reason he gives for going to such a counsellor in such a case is that he once got him clear of a charge of fraud brought against him by the Custom-House.

In nothing does the moral rottenness of the circle show itself more thoroughly than in the readiness of its members to draw up and publish sham cards, correspondences, and reports intended to deceive the public, either by downright falsehoods or misleading suggestions. One of their favorite ways out of a quarrel appears to have been the joint composition of letters containing fulsome eulogies on each other, and the presentation of them to the world as spontaneous and sincere expressions of feeling, or of cards containing a few open lies. One injured husband actually drafted a report, which he wished a committee of Christian men to sign, pretending to have made a thorough examination of facts which they had not examined, and to have reached the conclusion that he, the husband, his wife whom he believed guilty of adultery, and the partner of her crime, were all three persons of great "moral integrity and elevation of character."

General Butler has delivered the opening speech in his district, announcing his intention to run for Congress, and making a rather lame defence of his last winter's campaign in Washington. He gives his reason for voting in favor of the first inflation scheme, and it is, as might have been expected, that he knew that what the country needed was inflation, and not contraction. He says that the great curse of this country now is the high rate of interest for money, about which he seems to have some private information, for he says it is from 12 to 15 per cent. He declared that the money-lenders are the only people in the United States who make any money, for they lend to the producer, and, taking from him 12 or 15 per cent., leave him nothing for profit, so that he has to cultivate

the ground at a loss, and continually falls behind, until he will very soon have to stop altogether. Perhaps by that time the money-lender will see how foolish his conduct has been, and lower his rates; but the General does not hold out any hopes of this. He makes another curious statement of a mysterious link which, he says, in the last Congress bound together the *Alabama* Claims Bill and the inflation scheme. The seat of empire, the General said, as many gentlemen have said before him, is now west of the Alleghanies; and the seat of empire wanted inflation. Massachusetts, he knew, might be doubtful about inflation, but the Massachusetts fishermen who had their vessels burnt by the *Alabama* wanted their claims paid. General Butler saw, therefore, that if he wanted the seat of empire to vote for the *Alabama* Bill, he must do something for the seat of empire in the inflation business in return. He therefore voted for inflation, and the *Alabama* Bill was passed. He would probably have furnished us with this explanation sooner if he had thought of it.

Politics in New York are rapidly approaching a crisis. The Democrats meet this week in convention at Syracuse, and will determine the question whether Mr. Tilden is to be nominated for governor or some one else. Tilden would probably make the strongest candidate the party can put up, and he is supported by Tammany Hall, now under the leadership of John Kelly, a Catholic, and formerly sheriff, who has made himself a good deal of political capital out of the mayor's case. The Governor has decided this matter, declining to remove the mayor, but severely censuring him for his disregard of public opinion and his reckless misconduct in office. With regard to the reappointment of Charlick and Gardner, each being appointed to the other's vacant place, the mayor stated in his answer to the charges against him that "this was done to evade no law," but "with the view to prevent the making of any question as to the legality of the appointments." As to this the Governor says:

"If there is any appreciable difference in the two branches of this proposition, it is believed that there will be found an insurmountable difficulty in logically defining it. It cannot be doubted that there was, in regard to the reappointment of the commissioners, an indirectness of action unworthy of the character of its author—by the device of procuring their resignations before the executive could give notice that vacancies were caused by their conviction; of obtaining from a subordinate in the law department an opinion in favor of the legality of their reappointment; of assigning each to the vacancy created by the other; and of hastening the consummation of the act, after receiving the Governor's notice, without having recourse to the best authority to assure himself that he was not acting in violation of law. In all this, and in the reappointment of the convicted commissioners while under indictment for other offences, he offered an affront to public opinion and to the moral sense of the community, which resulted, as might have been expected, in compelling them to abandon the posts in which they were thus indecently reinstated."

This is very well put, and effectually riddles Havemeyer's defence. Havemeyer's disappearance from public life is, of course, and has for some time been, a foregone conclusion; but as yet nothing seems settled as to his successor. Whoever he may be, we may be quite sure that the career of Havemeyer will be a warning to him—and particularly so if the next governor happens to be Dix.

The Chicago *Tribune*, in reply to the recent article in the *Nation* on "Chicago and the Insurance Companies," characterizes the statement made by us that, "so far as can be made out, they (the people of Chicago) have built up the city since the great conflagration of 1871 in very much the same condition as the fire found it," as being "extraordinary," "reckless," and "injurious," and mentions various particulars in which the rebuilt district is safer than before it was burnt. We have considered the *Tribune's* suggestion that we should send a competent investigator to report upon the condition of the rebuilt district, but we have decided not to do it; first, because any one can see that our article refers to the general unsafe condition of the city, and not to particular districts or buildings; and, second, because a committee of competent investigators have been examining into the condition of the city for some time past—men entirely without bias—and they have made an elaborate report to the insurance companies, which is now before us; and these investigators reach the conclusion that "the city of Chicago is liable to a large conflagration at any time: first, from the inflammable material of which most of the city is constructed, and the reckless manner in which buildings are put up and light material stored; second, from its natural situation on flat ground, without protection from the gales that sweep with such violence from the prairie on the one side and the lake on the other;" and the National Board of Underwriters have, solely in consequence of these reports, decided to take no more risks in Chicago after the 1st of October, unless immediate means are taken to render the city safe. More than this, we know of policies being cancelled here now in advance of the decision of the question, to large amounts. The important thing for the people of Chicago to understand is this: Their city is peculiarly exposed to danger, owing to the frequent occurrence of high winds from the prairies, from which the place cannot be protected. Besides this, the business part of the city is surrounded by a belt of inflammable wooden buildings, which make the whole a tinder-box; and the Fire Department is a rotten piece of political machinery.

Senator Schurz has openly embarked with the People's Party of Missouri. At a ratification meeting on Friday night in St. Louis he made a brief speech, and promised a longer one shortly on national as well as on State questions. For the new organization, he disclaimed any pretence of its being the nucleus or starting-point of a new national movement, describing it as simply a popular uprising to rescue the government of Missouri from the reckless and partisan rule of rings. His own share in this movement was that of an individual citizen; it neither proceeded from him, nor had any reference to the promotion of his political interests. It had, however, his full sympathy, and would receive his active support; and though as regards the question of the national finances it might be said to "sit on the fence," he with others would make an honest effort to help it down on the right side. One of the firm resolves of the new party, according to Senator Schurz, is "that the shameless and alarming brigandage and ruffianism which so long have been permitted to disgrace the name of the State in the eyes of the civilized world, and have frightened away immigration from our borders, be at last rooted out with a strong hand."

The Maine election, which took place on Monday, was not of much importance. The State was of course carried by the Republicans, but the person chiefly interested in the result was probably Mr. Blaine, who had been promised by his friends an increased majority as a complimentary vote and a "send off" in the Presidential race. This he got, and is probably well contented. The elaborate calculation now going on in the Republican and Democratic newspapers as to the significance of the result in particular counties, in comparison with votes of previous years, will, we fear, lead to nothing decisive. The cry, "Oh! have you heard the news from Maine?" was once a soul-stirring enquiry. But it has lost its emotional value for the year from the fact that most people who have heard the news have also forgotten exactly what it was.

The South Carolina Republicans have adopted a platform and nominated Mr. D. H. Chamberlain, formerly Attorney-General, for governor. The objections to Mr. Chamberlain as a reform candidate are that, if not himself a thief, he was, under the Scott régime, badly mixed up with thieves. Nevertheless, as Moses is thus thrown over, the authorities at Washington are probably pretty well satisfied with the result. The platform adopted promises to carry out all the financial reforms which are necessary and have been promised and have been "in large measure fulfilled"; and demands the passage of the Civil-Rights Bill and the renomination of General Grant.

There are undoubtedly signs of "revival in business" in nearly all directions, and there is a considerable increase of activity in the

dealings on the Stock Exchange, which, in spite of the wickedness of brokers and speculators, is also a healthy sign—those persons who last fall thought the railroads could be cut off from the general interests of the country, and treated as a corrupt and immoral department of the national industry, having proved egregiously mistaken. Railroads cannot prosper unless the country is prospering; and that the country is recovering, the increased amount of freight carried by the railroads shows clearly, even if the increase in the amount of receipts does not as yet show it. And all this is perfectly natural and proper. The panic of last fall was not caused by losses such as we sustained during the war; nor yet to any great extent by over-investment in railroads, for the truth is that most of the capital put into the new railroads, over whose existence there has been so much lamentation, was foreign capital, the "sinking" of which does not incommode us in the least. Indeed, most of the trouble was caused by panic—that is, by vague terror; and what is now most needed to restore trade and industry to their normal condition is the disappearance of vague terror, though we do not anticipate its complete disappearance until the currency is put on a solid footing. As long as Congress pretends to control the amount of the circulating medium, we shall have more or less distrust.

If this view of the matter be correct, the labors of persons like the financial writer of the New York *Tribune*, who seems to be an able and well-informed man, in trying to prolong and intensify the prevailing distrust, may fairly be called mischievous. Although of late he has been compelled to admit that things are looking somewhat better, he does so with the utmost reluctance, and groans piteously every morning when he looks at the railroads, or the iron trade, or dry-goods trade, or grain trade, or, in fact, almost any field of activity in which there is buying and selling. He pretends sometimes to believe that we are now suffering from the effects of the war which closed in 1865; at others, that all the new railroads were made with hard-earned American money, which is now lost. One day he remarked that a friend of his, of the same gloomy temper, declared that it was as great folly to invest in railroads and stocks now as to have invested in slaves in 1860, a view which he evidently would like to take himself, but is ashamed. In fact, it would appear from his preachings that the only safe thing for an American man to do at this juncture is to sit quietly on an empty packing-box and wait. We must do him the justice to say that he does not treat us to any of the old post-panic gospel, and call for "fewer yachts and fast horses and champagne and a return to old-time simplicity and frugality"; but that he is unhappy there can be no doubt.

The main topic of interest in Europe is the condition of Spain. There is now no doubt that the Carlists have gained ground during the summer. Zabala accomplished no more than Moriones or Concha. Nearly all the positions captured in the spring are back in the enemy's hands, and the situation looks more serious than it ever did, for the plain truth is that there is nothing between Don Carlos and Madrid but a herd of raw and ill-led levies, and why he sticks so continuously in the mountains it is difficult to understand, unless he feels the want of cavalry. The other day, he took one hundred pieces of artillery and a large quantity of ammunition in Seo de Urgel, and in fact, as regards artillery, may be said to be very well off. An illustration of the supineness of the Republican army and the activity of the Carlists which has been much talked of, was furnished very recently by nine Carlists coming down to a railroad station in the heart of Zabala's position, knocking the engine-driver of a locomotive on the head, and carrying the locomotive off before the alarm was given. These and similar things, such as the easy capture of towns and villages, begin to be ascribed to the spread of treachery or to lukewarmness to the national cause among the people. A correspondent of the London *Times* describes the trade in contraband of war between Bordeaux and Nantes and the Carlist posts as enormous.

The Spanish Government has added to its political and military misfortunes the perpetration of an offence which between individuals would receive a very hard name. Our readers may remember that last year, after it had been for some time in default with the interest on the public debt, an arrangement was proposed which we described at the time, after Marshal Serrano came into power, by the Minister of Finance, Señor Echegaray, which was equivalent to what our defaulting railroads call "funding the coupons." In other words, the bondholders were to get for their arrears something in cash on condition that they took the balance in new bonds, and for the payment of the cash two kinds of collateral were to be deposited in the Bank of England, amounting in value to $25,000,000. The first was bonds issued by the Rio Tinto Mining Company, and the other was bonds of the purchasers of "National Property." This proposal was formally accepted by the committee, the bondholders sitting in London, and a contract embodying it was signed on behalf of the Government by Señor Echegaray and by the representatives of the bondholders, approved by the Council of State, and ratified by the minister of state. Under it, the Rio Tinto bonds were duly deposited in the bank. There was some delay about the others; and in the interval Señor Echegaray went out of office, and was succeeded by Señor Camacho, and it began to be rumored that the latter was inclined to repudiate the contract. The bondholders, however, though uneasy, thought that as long as the Rio Tinto bonds were in hand the agreement would probably after a while be carried out. But in July, however, there arose a report that the Rio Tinto bonds would be carried off; so the wretched creditors rushed into the Court of Chancery to get an injunction restraining the Bank of England from parting with them. But Camacho was too smart for them. By the time the injunction was out the bonds were gone, and he now says he will not carry out the old contract at all, but that he will propose another more advantageous for Spain. The bondholders naturally are furious, and decline to have any new dealings with him, and appeal to Serrano as a gentleman to see justice done. We think Camacho ought to receive a "hail" or two from American "confidence operators" like Pendleton and Butler.

The more particular accounts of the proceedings of the Cnogress at Brussels begin to reach us, although the official report has not yet been published. It is now admitted on all hands that, as seemed likely from the outset, the scheme proved a complete failure. It was originated by Russia, with what object is not well known, but, according to the conjectures of the Continental press, with the view of assuming a sort of moral leadership among the European powers. She was represented by Baron Jomini, who was elected president of the Congress and bore the part of mover in the proceedings; General Voigts-Rhetz, the German delegate, who showed great interest in the matter, for the most part acted with him; but it was apparent, very early, that England and the small states looked on Russia and Germany with suspicion and would enter into no concerted action. There was, of course, no difficulty in coming to terms about small matters, but as regarded the main conditions of warfare there was an irreconcilable difference of opinion. Russia and Germany sought to put as much power as possible in the hands of invading armies, and paralyze as far as possible popular or unorganized resistance. For instance, Baron Jomini proposed that an invading army should be considered as a *de facto* government, which the native officials within the radius of its authority should be bound to serve and obey, and which it would therefore be treasonable to resist. But Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and Portugal all refused to accede to anything of the kind, or, in fact, to make any concessions likely to limit warfare exclusively to the operations of regular armies. The British representative preserved strict silence throughout. The whole affair, in fact, may be looked on as a curious attempt on the part of the masters of great armies to get the smaller states to agree to have conquest and occupation made easy. Unfortunately, nearly all the philanthropic tendencies of the day run in the same direction.

THE CIVIL-RIGHTS BILL.

TOWARDS the end of the last session of Congress, the Senate passed what was then usually spoken of as the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill. It did not pass the House, although Mr. Sumner had, with great solemnity, on his death-bed bequeathed it as a sort of legislative legacy to Judge Hoar; and the death of Mr. Sumner and the threatened retirement of Judge Hoar from public life bid fair to leave the bill at the next session without any authoritatively recognized champion in either House. Its passage by the Senate did not at the time attract much attention at the North, except from the regular Republican newspapers, which seemed to regard it with a languid and perfunctory interest very different from the enthusiasm which had greeted the passage of the first Civil-Rights Bill. At the South, however, its fate has been very different. The provision contained in it for the enforcement of equality between the blacks and whites in the schools, we referred to at the time as one that might "be fairly called a blow aimed at popular education," and subsequent events have shown that in the present condition of politics at the South it might have also been fairly called a blow aimed at the party which had passed it; for in the States in which the Republicans still have strength, the passage of the bill has furnished the Conservatives with a powerful argument. Everybody in the South, Republican and Democrat alike, knows that the white children will not go to school with the black children, or be forced to do so by their parents and guardians, no matter what the latest civil-rights bill may be, and that the attempt to enforce a provision for mixed schools would only result in breaking up the whole school system. What is more than this, there is no evidence that the blacks themselves are particularly ambitious of social equality, or want either mixed schools or mixed hotels or cemeteries.

The Republicans in the Southern States, therefore, have found themselves in a very awkward predicament. They wish to conciliate the blacks, and it will not do for them to desert the party. At the same time, the last thing in the world that they want is to threaten the native white Southerners. The Conservatives of course denounce the attempt to pass in the last Congress a measure subversive of the whole social order at the South, and the Republicans find it very difficult to make any reply which will not either involve them in the support of an odious bill, or make them seem to turn their backs on their party. It is not at all unnatural, therefore, though it is curious, to find the Alabama Republican Convention, held about a month since, passing resolutions not in favor of but against "social equality," declaring that the Republican party in Alabama "does not desire or seek mixed schools or mixed accommodations for the colored people," and that "no civil law can or should invade the line of social exclusion that society gave us by laws more inexorable than statute or common law."

Since the discussion now going on with regard to this subject began, it is a singular fact that the constitutional power of Congress to pass any such bill as the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill has hardly been questioned at all. It was discussed of course in Congress; but, since Congress adjourned, public discussion has been almost exclusively confined to the policy of the bill, and, from the articles in the newspapers and the stump, it would require some time and pains to discover that there were any constitutional questions involved. Yet there can be little doubt, if it were not for the fatal habit we have fallen into since the war of regarding the central Government practically above the law and the Constitution whenever the negro is concerned, that the mere suggestion of the constitutional points involved ought to have killed the bill for ever. It is plainly unconstitutional.

The bill provides that "all citizens and other persons within the jurisdiction of the United States shall be entitled to the full and equal enjoyment of the accommodations, advantages, facilities, and privileges of inns, public conveyances on land and water, theatres and other places of public amusement, and also of common-schools and public institutions of learning or benevolence supported in whole or in part by general taxation, and of cemeteries so supported, and also the institutions known as agricultural colleges, . . ." without regard to race, color, or previous condition of servitude, and makes "any person" who shall deny these equal privileges liable to $500 damages at the suit of the aggrieved person, and to conviction for a misdemeanor, with a fine of $1,000 and imprisonment for a year; and gives exclusive jurisdiction to the United States courts in all criminal proceedings arising under the act. There are also provisions with regard to service on juries; but the important part of the bill, and that which is causing the present excitement in the South, is that we have just cited.

The bill was passed in the Senate, it is to be presumed, under the impression that the power to pass it is somewhere given or implied in the Constitution, and the only clauses that have been cited in support of such a power are from the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. The Fifteenth Amendment relates entirely to the right to vote, but the Fourteenth Amendment contains this clause (sec. 1): "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." This is all there is. The childish provision that "Congress shall have power to enforce by appropriate legislation the provisions of this article," adds nothing whatever, for Congress always has this power.

The first thing that strikes the mind with regard to the new Civil-Rights Bill, on comparing it with the Fourteenth Amendment, is that one contains a series of provisions and prohibitions directed to *persons*, while the other contains simply prohibitions against action on the part of the *States*. The Civil-Rights Bill, stripped of its technical phraseology, amounts to this—that if any white man shall turn a negro out of a hotel, or school, or car because of his color, he can be sued and prosecuted criminally in a United States court by the negro. The Amendment merely says that "no State shall make or enforce," "nor shall any State deprive," etc., etc. Nor is there the slightest difficulty in discovering what such prohibitions as these mean. The Constitution contains several of them. Article I., section 10, clause 1, provides that "no State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility."

Of these provisions, there is one which fortunately has received unanimous construction, uniform and uninterrupted, almost from the beginning of the Government, and that is, "No State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts." From the days of the Dartmouth College case to the present it has always been held that the effect of this clause was to nullify and avoid any State law impairing the obligation of contracts; but it has never been supposed for a moment that it authorized Congress to pass a statute making it a penal offence for a citizen to do any act under a State law passed in violation of the obligation of contracts. For the sake of illustration, let us take the case of the charter of a college, always held to be a contract, and suppose that the educational reformers in Congress discover that the States are beginning to manage their colleges in such a way as to impair the obligations of their charters by taxing them when they have no reserved right to do so, demanding illegal qualifications of the professors, and so on. Does any one suppose that the United States could, under these circumstances, make any act done in pursuance of these State provisions a penal offence against the United States triable only in the United States courts, and could send the State authorities to jail for attempting to carry it out? The States pass laws from time to time exempting large amounts of property from execution, and the Supreme Court holds these laws unconstitutional so far as they apply to past contracts. Suppose, now, that Congress should pass a law forbidding debtors to invoke the aid of the State law and to keep or transfer the exempt property, and should make these acts penal, and give the United States courts exclusive jurisdiction

of cases arising under such a statute. No one would undertake to deny that such laws as these were usurpations, yet in principle they do not differ from the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill.

In other words, if the Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill is constitutional, there is nothing that we can see to prevent Congress, on the ground of protecting the "privileges and immunities" of citizens against invasion by the States, from passing a law bringing all common-law rights within the scope of a single statute, and declaring that any one, white, black, or yellow, who suffers any wrong any where at the hands of any other person, white, black, or yellow, may treat it as a criminal offence against the United States, and have the offender fined and sent to jail for it. Supposing, for instance, that the legal rate of railroad fare in a State is three cents a mile, there is nothing in the world to prevent Mr. McCrary and his friends, next winter, from passing a law making any conductor who charges five cents amenable to this new code in the United States Courts.

The Fourteenth Amendment has twice come before the Supreme Court at Washington, and on neither of these well-known occasions was the decision of the court of such a character as to lend much encouragement to those who believe the new Amendments to have introduced very revolutionary principles as to the relations of the States to the General Government. The first of these was the New Orleans Slaughter-house cases, in which the Supreme Court directed that the new prohibitions on States did not interfere with the rights of States to manage their own internal police, although in the cases in question this regulation led to a slaughter-house monopoly in the hands of a privileged slaughtering company. In the other, Mrs. Bradwell's case, the same court held that the new Amendments did not give women the right to practise in State courts where the State laws prohibited them. In the light of these decisions, it may safely be inferred that the Supreme Court must look with extreme suspicion upon a law upsetting the domestic law of States on the subject of schools, of common carriers, of innkeepers, and substituting for them the new and strange system invented by the authors of this bill. In the interest of the negro, we trust that it may never reach the court. Deeply as we sympathize with his wrongs, we have no expectation or hope of seeing them righted by hounding on his old masters to acts of violence and lawlessness by the passage of equally violent and lawless acts of Congress. The Reconstruction period is ended, and the negro in future will occupy such a position as his industry and sobriety entitle him to. Such bills as the one we have been considering do nothing for him but turn his friends into enemies.

TYNDALL AND THE THEOLOGIANS.

THE recent address delivered by Professor Tyndall before the British Association at Belfast, in which he "confessed" that he "prolonged the vision backwards across the boundary of experimental evidence and discerned in matter the promise and potency of every quality and form of life," produced one by no means very surprising result. Dr. Watts, a professor of theology in the Presbyterian College in that city, was led by it to offer to read before the Biological Section of the Association a paper containing a plan of his own for the establishment of "peace and co-operation between Science and Religion." The paper was, as might have been expected, declined. The author then read it before a large body of religious people, who apparently liked it, and they passed him a vote of thanks. The whole religious world indeed is greatly excited against both Tyndall and Huxley for their performances on this occasion, and papers by no means in sympathy with the religious world, the *Pall Mall Gazette* for instance, are very severe on them for having "recourse to a style of oratory and disquisition more appropriate to the chapel than the lecture-room," or, in other words, for using the meetings of the Association for a sort of propagandism not much superior in method to that of theological missionaries, and thus challenging the theologians to a conflict which may make it necessary in the interest of fair play to add a theological section to the Association. Of course, when Professor Tyndall passed "beyond the boundary of experimental evidence" and began to see with his "mind's eye" instead of with the microscope and telescope, he got into a region in which the theologian is not only more at home than he, but which theology claims as its exclusive domain, and in which ministers look on physicists as intruders.

But then, Dr. Watts's "plea for peace and co-operation between science and religion" is one of many signs that theologians are, in spite of all that has as yet been said, hardly alive to the exact nature of the attitude they occupy towards science. They evidently look upon scientific men as they look on a hostile school of theologians—as the Princeton men look on the Yale men, for instance, or the New looked on the Old School Presbyterians, or the Calvinists on the Arminians—that is, persons having a common standard of orthodoxy, but differing somewhat in their method of applying it, and who may, therefore, be induced from considerations of expediency to suppress all outward marks of divergence and work together harmoniously for the common end. All schools of theology seek the glory of God and salvation of souls, and, this being the case, differences on points of doctrine do seem trifling and capable of being put aside. It is this way of regarding the matter which has led Dr. Watts to propose an alliance between religion and science, and which produces the arguments one sometimes sees, in defence of Christianity against Positivism, drawn from a consideration of the services which Christianity has rendered to the race, and of the gloomy and desolate condition in which its disappearance would leave the world. Tyndall and Huxley do not, however, occupy the position of religious prophets or fathers. They preside over no church or other organization. They have no power or authority to draft any creed or articles which will bind anybody else, or which would have any claims on anybody's reverence or adhesion. No person, in short, is authorized to bring science into an alliance with religion or with anything else. Such "peace and co-operation" as Dr. Watts proposed would be peace and co-operation between him and Professor Tyndall, or between the theologians and the British Association, but "peace and co-operation between science and religion" is a term which carries absurdity on its face. Science is simply a body of facts which lead people familiar with them to infer the existence of certain laws. How can it, therefore, be either at peace or war with anybody or co-operate with anybody? What Professor Tyndall might promise would be either not to discover any more facts, or to discover only certain classes of facts, or to draw no inferences from facts which would be unfavorable to Dr. Watts's theory of the universe; but the only result of this would be that Tyndall would lose his place as a scientific man, and others would go on discovering the facts and drawing the inferences.

In like manner, the supposition that Christianity can be defended against Positivism on grounds of expediency implies a singular conception of the mental operations of those persons who are affected by Positivist theories, and indeed, we might add, of the thinking world generally. No man believes in a religion simply because he thinks it useful, and therefore no man's real adhesion to the Christian creed can be secured by showing him how human happiness would suffer by its extinction. This argument, if it had any weight at all, would only induce persons either to pretend to be Christians when they were not, or to refrain from assailing Christianity, or to avoid all enquiries which might possibly lead to sceptical conclusions. It is, therefore, perhaps a good argument to address to believers, because it may induce them to suppress doubts and avoid lines of thought or social relations likely to beget doubt; but it is an utterly futile argument to address to those who have already lost their faith. Men believe because they are convinced; it is not in their power to believe from motives of prudence or from public spirit.

However, the complaints of the theologians excited by Professor Tyndall's last utterances are not wholly unreasonable. Science has done nothing hitherto to give it any authority in the region of the unseen. "Beyond the boundary of experimental evidence" one

man's vision is about as good as another's. It is interesting to know that Professor Tyndall there "discerns in matter the potency and promise of every quality and form of life," but only because he is a distinguished man, who gives much thought to this class of subjects and occupies a very prominent place in the public eye. As a basis for belief of any kind, his vision is of no more value than that of the Archbishop of Canterbury, who would probably in that region discern the promise and potency of every form of life in a supreme and creative intelligence. Scientific men are continually pushing back the limits of our knowledge of the material universe. They have during the last eighty years made an enormous addition to the sum of that knowledge, but they have not, since Democritus, taken away one hair's-breadth from the Mystery which lies behind. In fact, their labors have in many ways deepened this Mystery. We can appeal confidently to any candid man to say, for instance, whether Darwin's theory of the origin of life and the evolution of species does not make this globe and its inhabitants a problem vastly darker and more inscrutable than the Mosaic account of the creation. Take, again, the light thrown on the constitution of the sun by the spectroscope; it is a marvellous addition to our knowledge of our environment, but then, does it not make our ignorance as to the origin of the sun seem deeper? No scientific man pretends that any success in discovery will ever lead the human mind beyond the resolution of the number of laws which now seem to govern phenomena, into a smaller number; but if we reached the limit of the possible in that direction to-morrow, we should be as far from the secret of the universe as ever. When we have all got to the blank wall which everybody admits lies at the boundary of experimental evidence, the philosopher will know no more about what lies beyond than the peasant, though the peasant will probably do then what he does now—people it with the creatures of his imagination. If a philosopher in our day likes to anticipate that period, and hazards the conjecture that matter lies beyond, he is welcome to his guess, but it ought to be understood that it is only a guess.

The danger to society from the men of science does not, we imagine, lie in the direction in which the theologians look for it. We do not think they need feel particularly troubled by Professor Tyndall's speculations as to the origin of things, for these speculations are very old, and have, after all, only a remote connection with human affairs. But there are signs both in his and Professor Huxley's methods of popularizing science, and in those of a good many of their followers, that we may fear the growth of something in the nature of a scientific priesthood, who, tempted by the great facilities for addressing the public which our age affords, and to which nearly every other profession has fallen a victim, will no longer confine themselves to their laboratories and museums and scientific journals, but serve as "ministers of nature" before great crowds of persons, for the most part of small knowledge and limited capacity, on whom their hints, suggestions, and denunciations will have a dangerously stimulating effect, particularly as the contempt of scientific men for what is called "literature"—that is, the recorded experience of the human race and the recorded expression of human feelings—grows every year stronger, and exerts more and more influence on the masses. The number of dabblers in science—of persons with a slight smattering of chemistry, geology, botany, and so on—too, promises to be largely increased for some time to come by the arrangements of one sort or another made by colleges and schools for scientific education; and though there is reason to expect from this education a considerable improvement in knowledge of the art of reasoning, there is also reason to fear a considerable increase of dogmatic temper, of eagerness for experimentation in all fields, and of scorn for the experience of persons who have never worked in the laboratory or done any deep-sea dredging. Now, whatever views we may hold as to the value of science in general and in the long run to the human race, and in particular its value for purposes of legislation and social economy, which we are far from denying, there is some risk that lectures like Prof. Huxley's at Belfast, dressed up for promiscuous crowds, and produced with the polite scorn of infallibility, in which the destruction of moral responsibility is broadly hinted at as one of the probable results of researches in biology, will do great mischief. For what does it matter, or rather ought it to matter, for social purposes, in what part of a man's system his conscience lies, or whether pressure on a particular portion of the brain may convert him into a thief, when we know, as of experience, that the establishment of good courts and police turns a robbers' den into a hive of peaceful industry, and when we see the wonders which discipline works in an ignorant crowd? When we read that Macdonald started across the plain at Wagram with 10,000 men, and that his column was, during his awful march, so torn with shot and shell that only 1,500 remained to break the Austrian line, but that none wavered, we feel that there are secrets in the composition of human character which Biology is as yet far from being able to explain; and we wish that she would if possible reserve for scientific men any such odds and ends of discovery as she may make, pending the preparation of a complete solution of the problem with which she concerns herself.

Notes.

NOYES, HOLMES & CO. announce for publication next month, 'Sermons and Songs of the Christian Life,' by Rev. E. H. Sears, D.D.; 'The Reasonableness and Efficacy of Prayer,' by Rev. Newman Hall, D.D.; and new editions of Dr. Thomas Hill's 'The Stars and the Earth' and Dr. Henry M. Dexter's 'Congregationalism.'——We have received the third number of *El Ateneo*, a monthly Spanish-American magazine of light literature, published in this city at 31 Park Row. It is well printed and profusely illustrated with woodcuts.——Part 21 of Stieler's 'Hand-Atlas' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains maps of France and Switzerland, Southwestern Russia and Turkey, and, in one sheet, South America, which has already been issued in two sheets.——The Bishop of Lincoln's remarks on cremation, on which we lately commented, are said to have been misreported. A correspondent of the *John Bull*, who heard the sermon in which they occurred, says the Bishop was speaking of the probable effects of cremation in weakening the popular faith in the resurrection, not as logically impairing the doctrine itself among "persons of sound and strong belief."——A few additional fall announcements by our publishers deserve mention: 'Campaigning on the Oxus, and the Fall of Khiva,' by J. A. MacGahan (Harper & Brothers); 'Democracy and Monarchy in France,' by C. K. Adams; Gautier's 'Tour in Russia'; selections from Sainte-Beuve's 'Causeries du Lundi,' translated by W. F. Rae; 'Far from the Madding Crowd' (Henry Holt & Co.); 'The Common Frog,' by St. George Mivart; and 'Ismailia,' the narrative of the last expedition of Samuel Baker (Macmillan & Co.) We shall also have this season, through John Murray, the 'Last Journals' of Dr. Livingstone. To the foregoing must be added: 'The Mistress of the Manse,' a narrative poem by Dr. J. G. Holland; 'Notes of a Journey in 1873 in the Russian Province of Turkestan,' by Eugene Schuyler (Scribner, Armstrong & Co.); 'History of the United States Marine Corps,' by M. Almy Aldrich; 'Cattle—their Management and Breeding,' by Dr. Geo. B. Loring; 'The Cellar Door Club, and Other Stories,' by Edward Eggleston (Henry L. Shepard & Co.)

—The Massachusetts Historical Society will shortly be put in possession of a full-length portrait of Washington, copied after an original painting in the private gallery of Lord Albemarle. A letter from Mr. Robert C. Winthrop to the vice-president of the society states the circumstances under which this copy was obtained, and in regard to the original says that it was intended for the Stadtholder in 1780, but being entrusted to Laurens, then on his way to The Hague as minister plenipotentiary, it shared his fate when he was captured by Captain Keppel of the British Navy. Keppel gave the portrait to his uncle, Admiral Lord Keppel, and it has ever since been preserved at Quidenham Park, Norfolk, the seat of the Earl of Albemarle, the present head of the Keppel family. It is by an unknown artist, whose work was none of the best, and it derives its main interest, to use Mr. Winthrop's words, "from the fate which befell it; from the period of Washington's life at which it was taken; and from the broad blue ribbon which is so conspicuous a feature of his costume." This ribbon was already known, from Washington's Orderly Book at Cambridge, in 1775, to have been prescribed as the distinctive designation of the commander-in-chief, who was an entire stranger to his troops on his arrival. It is fitting, therefore, that so peculiarly a Massachusetts portrait of Washington should be preserved by the Massachu-

setts Historical Society, at least in fac-simile, for the making of which photography has been employed with great success.

—In the September number of *Blackwood's*, which once would have been a curious place for it, appears the latest of the many literary memorials of Mr. Sumner. It is in the form of a poem of forty-one quatrains by Mr. W. W. Story, an American writer best known to his countrymen as a sculptor, but known to some of them also as a practitioner of others of the fine arts, including poetry. One might say that there is an appropriateness in this latest of the Sumner testimonials in that it occupies a sort of vanishing boundary-line between a particular grief and the region of the general elegiacs. More than nine-tenths of it, in fact, might be used in memory of any one who had died regretted by all who knew him, and—which is the bad thing—might be so used because it has no closeness of application to any one or anything. It is, in short, an elegiac poem in memory of a personal friend, in which there is little traceable sign of personal grief and no recognizable view of the friend's personality, but all is vaguely declamatory on accustomed texts. For this and other reasons the poem takes its place among the clever, well-filed pieces of verse, ambitious, but made of stuff not stern enough, an examination of which has always left Mr. Story a step or two short of an excellent place. The poem before us ventures ambitiously to suggest for itself a very severe and high standard; for this time the poet sought to be imitated in the metre and in the line of thought is Omar Khayyam, as he appears in the impressive and really captivating version of the English translator. To some minds, our later poet will seem to strike much the same key of thought as his Persian predecessor: Death is inevitable and a mystery; beyond it is we know not what; it is to be mourned; Love cannot hold back its victims. But the difference between the new poem and the one which it calls to mind is mainly the difference between thoughts and sentiments common and of universal interest and, on the other hand, thoughts and sentiments common too and also of universal interest, but the expression of which must usually be platitudinarian, and is so here. Our poet laments the mystery of death in terms which will be recognized as commonplaceness itself; the Persian deals with problems equally unevadable, but of a dignity (as being eternally sure of human contemplation and eternally sure of baffling its unaided strength) which raises them to a level far different from that on which we find the ordinary meditations on death and the departure of friends. The older writer also reveals a majestic turn of mind and a profundity of sentiment which find proper expression in his verse, over which he is a master with a most skilful and various hand, and in his powerful diction. It is to be regretted that among the earliest imitations of his metre, as rendered by his remarkable English admirer and follower, there should be verses so unmusical as these and a diction so bald. There is between the poems one difference of which we have not spoken, but it relates primarily to the differing philosophy of the two writers. Omar is to the last eyeing the inscrutable; Mr. Story teaches that "since nothing we can know" it is best that at least we dream of happiness and endless progress in the other world, if another there be.

—The several Associations for the Advancement of Science held their meetings nearly at the same time this year in England, France, and the United States; and the presidential addresses in all three were by physicists (the chemist is now strictly a physicist), and all led up—directly or incidentally—to that ultimate question of what is to be thought about the cause of things. Mr. Tyndall's now famous "confession" that he feels bound to discern in matter "the promise and potency of every form and quality of life," has been held (seemingly with good reason) tantamount to the proposition that, so far as we can ever know or rightly think, "matter is the final cause." But it is to be noted that matter, under Tyndall's view, means matter plus force. So that, after all, his deliverance may amount to only this, that the potentiality of life and of the forms endowed with it is in Nature, which "is seen to do all things without the *meddling* of the gods," as his old friend Lucretius affirms and the science of the day is nearly ready to admit. The question how matter, or (as some would rather say) the system of things, came to have such "promise and potency," may still be asked, although Tyndall thinks it must ever be asked in vain. He seems even to imply that the question is illegitimate. With complete consistency, and a frankness that ought not to be blamed, he warns the religious world off the domain, not of natural science merely, but of knowledge altogether, allowing it instead free range over that of the emotions. What was once declared of the Samaritans, "Ye worship ye know not what," he extends to the human kind, with the further declaration that, from the very nature of things, it cannot be otherwise. President Wurtz, of the French Association, took for his theme "The Atomic Theory in the General System of the World." At this writing, all we know of his address is contained in a short extract, in which, while equally declaring the inscrutability of primary causes, he implies that somewhat may be inferred about them nevertheless. "They lie within a domain which man's intellect will ever strive to enter and search. So is man constituted, and such he will ever continue. . . . *Excelsior!* He will strive onward and upward, and in his innate instinctive conviction that things have not within themselves their *raison d'être*, their foundation and origin, he is gradually led to subordinate them to a primary cause, a unique and universal God."

—It is of this French Association, barely two years old, that Professor Lovering speaks, at the close of his own thoughtful address, as having already displayed a vitality and a prosperity which our own Association, in its opening manhood, has not yet acquired. Yet, if we may judge of the character of our American Association by that of its retiring President's address, now just printed, it is well performing its part. The thoroughness of its exposition of the principal problems in physical science, and of the means of attacking them, is equalled and relieved by its admirable lucidity. Our present reference to it must be restricted to a single paragraph, pertinent to the high question before us:

"In the phraseology of our mechanics we define matter and force as if they had an independent existence. But we have no conception of inert matter or of disembodied force. All we know of matter is its pressure and its motion. The old atom had only potential energy; the energy of its substitute, the molecule, is partly potential and partly kinetic. If it could be shown that all the phenomena displayed in the physical world were simply transmutations of the original energy existing in the molecules, physical science would be satisfied. Where physical science ends, natural philosophy, which is not wholly exploded from our vocabulary, begins. Natural philosophy can give no account of energy when disconnected with an ever-present intelligence and will. In Herschel's beautiful dialogue on atoms, after one of the speakers had explained all the wonderful exhibitions of nature as the work of natural forces, Hermione replies: 'Wonderful, indeed! Anyhow, they must have not only good memories but astonishing presence of mind, to be always ready to act, and always to act, without mistake, according to the primary laws of their being, in every complication that occurs.' And elsewhere, 'Action, without will or effort, is to us, constituted as we are, unrealizable, unknowable, inconceivable.' The monads of Leibnitz and the demons of Maxwell express in words the personality implied in every manifestation of force."

—Those who use tobacco and defend the use of it have now become so numerous that it requires some courage to make a stand on the other side. Especially is this the case in Europe, which, according to Professor Mantejezza, is fast being turned into a cigar divan, so that it is daily becoming more difficult for a man of average strength of mind to assert his liberty to refrain from tobacco if he goes into society at all. In other words, the weed is fast acquiring in social intercourse—for men at least—the same symbolic value which has from the earliest ages attached to wine, so that the "I never smoke" of the American teetotaler threatens to excite the same incredulity and to give the same offence as his "I never drink." In this state of things, Dr. Drysdale, senior physician to the Metropolitan Free Hospital, and physician to the North London Consumption Hospital, is of opinion that it is time for such practitioners of the healing art as have anything to say about tobacco to speak out. Speak out he does, accordingly, in a paper read before the British Medical Association at Norwich in August. To sum up his indictment against tobacco, he charged it with causing blindness, palpitation of the heart, paralysis, diarrhœa, and diseases of the teeth and the mucous membrane of the mouth and tongue. It might, he allowed, be used for the treatment of asthma, but he could not, as a leading medical journal had recently done, recommend it as a necessary for British troops in foreign service, thus classing it with the hygienic remedies useful in malarious and tropical districts; and to admit tobacco smoking, chewing, and snuffing into the list of the luxuries of a refined and wealthy age was, in his opinion, a violation of the laws of public hygiene. "Were the modern Turks or Germans," he remarked, "to go on smoking from morning till night as they do, and consuming Virginia tobacco or cavendish as we do in England, they would indeed present a deplorable spectacle of public want of stamina. Fortunately, however, German and Turkish tobacco is almost devoid of noxious properties."

—Every one is familiar with the rather coarse satire in which Swift represents Gulliver as asking the Laputan ghost-compeller to exhibit to him the ancestral lines of the various royal houses of Europe, when, instead of gazing upon a procession of awe-inspiring monarchs, he sees with surprise the motley spectral groups of simpering pages, rough swashbucklers, jolly monks, and vulgar grooms who accompany the royal mothers of the successive sovereigns. The idea is one so natural to a mind like Swift's that it would occur to few to doubt its originality; and yet there is a much older story which seems evidently to be the source from which he derived it. This is related in the 'Magica, seu Mirabilium Historiarum de Spectris et Apparitionibus Spirituum, etc.,' published by Henningus Grosius in 1597 for the edification of theologians and jurists. He quotes from the 'Proverbia Germanica'

of Johannes Agricola, as a well-authenticated fact, that a certain Johannes Teutonicus, the illegitimate son of a priest, so distinguished himself by his learning that he obtained a canonry in the Chapter of Halberstadt, in spite of the custom which reserved such preferment for the legitimate scions of noble houses. Naturally resenting this intrusion, the other canons shunned him. To rebuke their pride, he invited them to a splendid banquet, during which he took occasion to ask them whether they desired to see their fathers, and, on their eagerly assenting, he proceeded to evoke by magic the paternal spectres. The result was a procession of miserable figures—cooks, hostlers, peasants, and others, whose faces the guests acknowledged having seen in their fathers' houses. Then Johann summoned his own father, who appeared in the guise of a canon of agreeable rotundity, and his colleagues departed sadder and wiser men, who ceased thenceforth to reproach him with his lack of nobility. Perhaps some one better versed than we in folk-lore may be able to trace this story to a higher source of Aryan parentage; but it seems to us that Swift most probably borrowed the idea from Grosius or Agricola. This same Johann gave another specimen of his power by celebrating Mass on Christmas Eve of 1271 in three places, Halberstadt, Mainz, and Köln.

—The death of M. Guizot, which had been prematurely announced, took place on Sunday, the 13th inst., when he had nearly completed his eighty-seventh year. Like Thiers, he was a native of the South of France, having been born at Nimes, Oct. 4, 1787. His father was a lawyer of ability, who was taken off in the Terror, and this led to the widow's retiring to Geneva, where her son received his education. His literary career began early and in the field of history, and in 1812 he was appointed professor of modern history at the Sorbonne. The latest work on which he was engaged was a History of France for his grandchildren. In politics, his first manifestation was his pamphlet on representative government in 1816, his first active appearance in 1830, when he was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, and helped pave the way for Louis Philippe, who made him Minister of the Interior. He held this post but a few months. For nearly four years (1832-36) he was Minister of Public Instruction, being displaced by Thiers, with whom, however, two years later he formed a coalition. From 1840 till the Revolution of 1848 he was Prime Minister. Guizot owes his principal political distinction to his having faithfully represented the bourgeois element in French society, which governed France from the Restoration till 1848. Under the military régime which followed close on the excesses of the First Revolution, the literary and shopkeeper class failed to reap any of the fruits of the overthrow of the noblesse, and it was not until 1815 that they saw the long-wished-for consummation—"la carrière ouverte aux talens." M. Guizot came to the front rapidly as one of the most promising men of the new generation, and his rise and that of Thiers were among the signs of the times which inspired so much confidence in the future of France among even the shrewdest outsiders. The appearance of literary men in the foremost rank of politicians filled the souls of the middle-class all over Europe with joy and admiration. This class, too, could hardly have had a better representative than Guizot. His talents were striking and his morals pure to the point of austerity, and he had just the amount of liberalism the times called for. People in 1815 had not learned to expect much. Peace, economy, and the opening of high office to all without distinction of birth, were as much as they looked for. The three days of 1830 completed the triumph of the bourgeoisie and assured it, and brought M. Guizot into the front rank. He made a distinct failure as a diplomatist in England in 1840, where, in spite of the cordial greeting he received from society as a distinguished literary man, he was outwitted by the Ministry in the Syrian affair, but after his return home he resumed his old eminence both in the confidence of the King and in the Chamber. The coldness of his temper, the rigid Calvinism of his religious opinions, and the Whiggishness of his liberalism, however, made it impossible for him to see the necessity of any change in the political arrangements of 1830, and made him insensible to the corruption and feebleness of the Chamber, in which he was all-powerful. His use of the Government patronage, too, was only made pardonable by reference to his supreme confidence in the rectitude of his aims and his sense of their overwhelming importance. The Revolution of 1848 was generally considered to have wrought the ruin of his reputation as a politician, and he returned, though doubtless with reluctance—for he afterwards unsuccessfully sought election to the National Assembly—to his literary labors in his quiet home in Normandy. These were mostly historical, and his pen was down to the last very prolific. His fame as a writer, however, principally rests on the 'Lectures on the History of Civilization,' though everything he wrote was widely read. His religious feeling grew stronger as he grew older, and even, stern Protestant as he was, carried him into sympathy with the Pope in his conflict with the King of Italy. His last appearance as a polemical writer was in a controversy with Paul Janet, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, about three years ago, in which he stoutly defended the story of the fall of Adam and its theological consequences.

—A private dinner in commemoration of the battle of Wörth (August 6) was attended by Bismarck among others. There were no toasts, but the chief personage, who had imposed this as a condition of his being present, is said to have indulged his fondness for anecdote, and to have favored the company with a parallel between his meeting Napoleon at Sedan and the last time they had previously been together at St. Cloud, on occasion of Bismarck's return to Germany. In the midst of the then leave-taking, the minds of both being filled with forebodings of an approaching catastrophe, when the usual commonplaces concerning the journey had been exchanged, a painful silence ensued, which was broken only by turning the conversation upon—the weather. At Sedan, the Prince had ridden forward to meet the Emperor, who was riding towards him in a simple calash, and who, on seeing him, made the military salute, to which Bismarck hastened to respond, his arm brushing as he did so the hilt of his revolver in his breast-pocket, and causing Napoleon to turn as white as chalk. They alighted at the latter's request, that he might avoid public insult, at the house of a weaver, and, on being seated, the first question which Bismarck addressed him was whether peace could now be concluded. To this Napoleon replied that that depended on the Government at Paris. Again there came a painful pause in the conversation, and again it was broken by adverting to the weather. The circle was complete; but the forebodings of St. Cloud had given way to the afterthoughts of Sedan.

—The progress of native journalism in China is a noteworthy sign of the times. The success which has attended such seemingly risky enterprises as the *Shun Pao* and the *Chinese Mail* at the ports of Shanghai and Hongkong, to say nothing of their smaller imitators, has induced native capitalists to come forward with a view of still further meeting the unexpected demand which has arisen in Chinese circles for "news." The origin of the latest of these ventures is somewhat curious. It appears that the *Shun Pao* wrote very strongly in favor of a Cantonese actor, who, for the heinous crime of marrying a woman of respectable position in life (actors belong to one of the four degrees forbidden to compete in the examinations), was dragged before the Che-Hien, and, after being unmercifully flogged and otherwise tortured, was sentenced to a long imprisonment. The Cantonese, desirous of avenging themselves on the *Shun Pao*, at first threatened violence, and gravely debated the feasibility of sacking the office and practising upon the bodies of the editor and his compositors a series of those experimental tortures for which the Chinese are so unpleasantly distinguished. Happily, however, a wise man suggested that in place of using violence, the *Shun Pao* should be fought with its own weapons. The idea was received with acclamation, the capital was forthcoming in a trice, and, an editor and staff having been procured, the new paper was started with a guarantee of its expenses for a considerable term. Another recent incident at Hongkong proves in a different way that the Chinese are becoming sensible of the power and utility of journalism. Mr. Dennys, the editor of the *China Mail*, has been giving the provincial authorities of South China a somewhat rude shock. They have only lately discovered that the foreign press has for some years been in the habit of publishing translations of native official documents, a knowledge of whose contents was innocently supposed to be confined to the ranks of the Yamên officials. A short time since the journal in question published the foreign text of a confidential despatch from the Tsung-li-Yamên (signed by Prince Kung) to the Viceroy of the two Keang. In the innocence of his heart, the latter official deputed a subordinate to call at the *China Mail* office, and request the name of the native gentleman who furnished the Chinese text—this, too, in a manner which evidently showed that a refusal of the request was not even thought possible. It is needless to say that the intelligent native had to take his leave without the required information. As this is the first instance in the history of journalism in China in which the mandarin policy of indifference has been exchanged for an exhibition of interest, it is not without its significance.

SCHWEINFURTH'S TRAVELS IN AFRICA.*

THE interest in African travel has received a remarkable stimulus within the past ten or fifteen years from a variety of circumstances. One is the exhaustion of other fields of exploration, which has turned the most adventurous spirits towards this one, and has given us the explorations of Grant, Speke, Baker, Rohlfs, and Schweinfurth. Livingstone's travels grew, not unnaturally, out of his missionary labors; but the heroism with which

* 'The Heart of Africa. Three Years' Travels and Adventures in the Unexplored Regions of Central Africa, from 1868 to 1871. By Dr. Georg Schweinfurth. Translated by Ellen E. Frewer, with an Introduction by Winwood Reade.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

they were prosecuted begot an enthusiasm about African discovery of which we have yet to see the full results. Simultaneously with this growth of curiosity about Africa, there has been a remarkable accession to the means of gratifying it, as Mr. Winwood Reade has pointed out in the introduction to the volumes before us, in the entrance of Egypt into the class of civilized powers, and the extension of her territory south of the Nubian desert—the result of this being that a traveller about to penetrate into savage Africa, begins his journey many degrees south of the point at which he formerly took leave of civilization, and begins it with considerably greater resources. Though last, not least, we must mention the value which the discussions raised by the speculations of Darwin, Huxley, Tylor, and others have given to the details of savage life, which in all other parts of the globe are fast vanishing from our view, and which in the hands of competent investigators have lately been made to throw so much light on the origin of civilization and of many of the most perplexing social phenomena of our own day.

Dr. Schweinfurth differs from his recent predecessors in being an enthusiastic botanist, and consequently more interested in the African flora than in the fauna, but it is right to say that his book would, for popular use, have been greatly improved by the relegation of all the botanical matter to an appendix, and a cheaper and smaller edition, with this matter entirely omitted, would perhaps have been better still. He differs from them, too, as a scientific man might be expected to differ, in having, although a good shot, only a small amount of taste for hunting, and shows an amount of respect for the natives which is rather uncommon among African travellers. In fact, we could hardly describe him better than by saying that in his tastes and his philosophy he is the antipodes of Baker. Dr. Schweinfurth's explorations led him literally into "the heart of Africa," and into a region between 3° and 10° north latitude, which no previous traveller had touched. East of it, Baker had pushed down along the Nile to Lake Victoria Nyanza in 1863–4–5, and Burton and Speke had come up over the same route from Zanzibar in 1857–8. West and south of it, M. du Chaillu had made considerable explorations in 1863–4–5, starting from the Fernand Vas River, on the Atlantic coast. North of it, Dr. Barth had made great explorations from 1850–55, crossing the Desert to and from Tripoli; while, south and east of it, Livingstone had been wandering for years. Dr. Schweinfurth's means of locomotion, too, were peculiar, as he relied very little on his own resources, having put himself under the protection of a Nubian Mussulman trader making his periodical visit with the customary armed force to his "seribas," or factories, as such establishments used to be called before European nations began to colonize; and nothing in the book is more interesting than the Doctor's account of the relations of these traders to the Central African tribes. They are mostly Mussulmans and Nubians—a term which describes rather the region from which a man comes than the race to which he belongs, for the Nubian population is a great mixture of races. They traffic in ivory, slaves, and anything that is portable and seems likely to prove profitable, and are generally shrewd, pushing fellows, who enlist a few hundred men, much as the East India Company did for military service, in expeditions to the south. The troops are armed with indifferent muskets, and tramp along in single file, with the Turkish flag borne at the head of the column, followed by a body of negro bearers, who carry the supplies on their heads and shoulders, and bring back the goods found at factories and purchased or plundered on the way. Each trader, or company of traders, has his "seribas" at various points down in the interior, in which he leaves a small permanent garrison, protected by a stockade, and surrounded by a farm; and this garrison occupies itself in collecting ivory and other commodities, and raising such agricultural products as are necessary for its own subsistence. Every year or two the proprietor comes along with his little army, relieves the guard, and puts affairs in order, settles by fighting or negotiation any quarrels which may have sprung up with the neighboring chiefs, and makes his way back to the market in the north at Khartoum or elsewhere. His troops are by no means brave or well disciplined or numerous, and yet they march courageously all through the interior, overawing the native potentates, and plundering or kidnapping or making treaties or exchanging presents, as may seem most expedient. This military superiority is entirely due to the exclusive possession of firearms. Should the tribes in the interior become possessed of them, the whole business would be broken up, as no Nubian could be induced to enlist for service against them. The paths lie for the most part through thickets and forests, and would be utterly impassable by such troops in the presence of an enemy armed with muskets, as the British expedition against the Ashantees showed clearly. Dr. Schweinfurth gives one or two illustrations of the utter demoralization wrought among the Nubians by hearing that the tribe whose territory they were expected to traverse had begun to use powder and ball. The party with which he travelled was commanded by a man of apparently unusual morality and humanity, who on the whole traded honestly, and only fought in self-defence; but he tells enough of the doings of others to show what a shocking plague to the natives these expeditions are, how much burning, slaughtering, slave-catching, and cattle-lifting they do, and what a barbarizing influence they must exercise on African life; for the contact of savages with the dark side of civilization does undoubtedly, as we have seen in the case of our own Indians, degrade even them. Nothing, or next to nothing, can be done for the moral or material regeneration of Northern and Central Africa until the natives are delivered from the plague of Mussulman traders, and Lieutenant Cameron's suggestion, the pushing of cheap railroads into the interior from the coast, seems to be perhaps the best yet made on this point. Here would be a field in which even the sternest moralist would hardly object to seeing any number of Crédit Mobilier and Construction Companies at work, and for the successful cultivation of which the issue of bonds at almost any rate would be justifiable. On many routes such lines would unquestionably pay, and it would be a good while before the Niam-Niam or Monbuttoo Grangers began to groan under the tyranny of "the bloated bondholders" and "the heartless speculators."

Dr. Schweinfurth's pictures of life and manners in the heart of Africa—apart from the disorder and contamination wrought by the Mussulmans of the North—disorder and contamination which the extension of the Egyptian frontier has thus far aggravated rather than diminished—are, on the whole, exceedingly pleasing and even hopeful. They show an amount of progress in the arts among the population of the interior which makes its failure to advance farther almost as puzzling a problem as the immobility of the Chinese. We suppose no right-minded man, who has a proper sense of his own relation to the past and future, ever visits an ethnological museum and examines the weapons and tools with which the beginnings of our own civilization were wrought out, with which the rude forefathers of the Western World fought their hard fight with the terrible forces of inclement nature, without feelings closely allied to pity and admiration. How ingenious many of their devices were! How much patience and persistence they put into them, those poor fellows, with neither science, nor art, nor school, nor college, nor patent-office behind them! All over Africa we find in actual existence the very processes and implements for traces of which our own scientific men dig so laboriously, and which they treasure so carefully; and there also we find the beliefs and customs, hopes and fears and prejudices, of the early times, which, as recent investigations have shown, have left such deep marks on the manners, theology, metaphysics, and language of our own time. The tribes are numerous, but the type of culture is nearly the same for all.

"In the labyrinth of African culture," says Dr. Schweinfurth, "it is very difficult to disentangle the hundred threads which lead up to the centre from which they have all been unwound. Not a custom, not a superstition is found in one part which is not more or less accurately repeated in another; not one contrivance of design, not one weapon of war, exists of which it can be declared that it is exclusive property of any one race. From north to south, and from sea to sea, in some form or other, every invention is sure to be repeated; it is 'the thing that has been.' The creative hand of Nature alone produces what is new. If we could at once grasp and set before our minds facts that are known (whether as regards language, race, culture, history, or development) of that vast region of the world which is comprehended in the name of Africa, we should have before us the witness of an intermingling of races which is beyond all precedent; and yet, bewildering as the prospect would appear, it remains a fact, not to be gainsaid, that it is impossible for any one to survey the country as a whole without perceiving that high above the multitude of individual differences there is throned a principle of unity which embraces well-nigh all the population."

It would be possible to make a dozen articles filled with curiosities of African culture taken from Dr. Schweinfurth's descriptions of the four leading races whose territory he traversed, the Dinkas, Bongos, Niam-Niams, and Monbuttoos. The Dinkas make their hair straight by much combing, and give it a reddish tinge by continual washing with cow urine and the application for a fortnight of a pomade composed of dung and ashes. They consider it as effeminate and improper for a man to wear any clothing whatever as we should consider it for him to appear in petticoats. A clothed man is called contemptuously "a woman." Their cookery is very nice; they eat with more decorum than either the Turks or Arabs; eating separately and passing dishes from one to the other like Europeans. They took to knives and forks at Dr. Schweinfurth's table as if they had been bred to them. They are very fastidious, too, in the selection of their articles of diet. They are great smokers and enthusiastic lovers, almost worshippers indeed, of their cattle, the breeding of which is their principal occupation. The Dyoots, a neighboring tribe, salute each other by mutual spitting. They are great iron-workers; they fish and hunt and breed cattle; but their principal object of ambition is the possession of a well-stocked poultry-yard and a good dog. The women do all the work in the fields as well as the work of the house. Love of children and reverence for age are more strongly developed in this tribe than in any other in Central Africa. All the tribes cultivate and love tobacco, and call it by some modification of the American name, showing

that it is of foreign origin. The common tobacco and the Virginian are the two varieties cultivated, and it will be disheartening to the anti-smokers to hear that "no production more than this has trampled over every obstacle, and that even Africa has allowed Virginian tobacco to penetrate to its very centre," though it is doubtful whether the common tobacco, the *nicotiana rustica*, is not of native origin. All the tribes have elaborate smoking contrivances, and many chew.

The Bongos live on a red ferruginous soil and are very red themselves. Their territory produces great quantities of mushrooms, of which they make sauce like our catsup; they are tremendous smokers and chewers, make the tobacco up in cakes like our "cavendish," and carry half-chewed quids behind their ear, like a clerk's pen. They are disgusting feeders, with a great love of garbage and vermin. They are expert iron-workers. With their rude bellows and a hammer which is oftener than not a round ball of pebble-stone, an anvil of gneiss or granite, and a pair of tongs composed of a split stick of greenwood, "they contrive to fabricate articles which would bear comparison with the productions of an English smith." They are enthusiastic lovers of music, which is mainly imitative. The women are good potters and good tanners—tan having found its way in through the Nubians. The men wear a skin or two, but the women nothing but a wisp of grass plucked in the woods every morning. Wives are purchased, and no child not at the breast is allowed to sleep in the same hut with its parents—a custom which some European and American Bongos would do well to imitate. The old people are suspected of witchcraft. The insane are treated by dipping in a river, and persons suffering from "general debility" are made to eat the flesh of Gallukoo, which we take to be a bird, with a detestable flavor. The Mittoo wear iron ornaments with lavish profusion as a sign of wealth, just as New York women wear gold and jewels.

The Niam-Niams, who are the leading race of Central Africa, tall, well-formed, intelligent, warlike, live under a government less despotic than the other tribes. Their chiefs are really limited monarchs, whose revenue consists in a royalty on ivory and half the meat of all elephants killed. The women are much more shy and retiring than the Bongo or Mittoo women, and avoid male strangers, and are the objects of unprecedented devotion on the part of their husbands. The Nubians turn this affection to account in their raids. If they capture a Niam-Niam woman they know that they can extract anything from the husband by way of ransom. But they are cannibals, and when people find themselves growing fat amongst them their lives are filled with anxiety. Fore and hind quarters of man may be seen hanging up in their huts and on the adjacent trees. They brew and drink enormous quantities of beer, made from a cereal known as "raggi" in India. The authority of the chief is absolute, but they skulk in battle. The war-cry of the tribe is "Meat! meat!" indicating the fate that awaits the conquered enemy. They are good iron-workers, wood-carvers, basket-makers, and potters. They salute by hand-shaking, in such a way as to make the joints of the two middle fingers crack. They are proud of large families, and punish adultery with death. They are very fond of music, and play on a kind of harp, and have wandering minstrels, who improvise; their language contains no equivalent for a god or prayer. They practise divination through a piece of board, very like the article called "planchette" so much in use a few years ago among superstitious Christians in this country. A four-legged stool with a smooth seat is made from a particular kind of wood. A smooth block of the same wood is then taken and is rubbed on the top of the stool, the latter being previously sprinkled with a little water. If the rubbing is easy, all will go well; if difficult, there is trouble impending. Dr. Schweinfurth was received by the principal monarch of this people, Munza, in a wooden hall one hundred feet long, forty feet high, and fifty broad. There was an older and longer one near by, but this was out of repair. The king wore a plumed hat, a large number of copper ornaments, and a skin apron. A few days later, in celebrating a victory, he stepped down from his throne and danced a frantic *pas seul* for two hours in the same place in the presence of his eighty wives, who sat on low stools applauding vigorously—an amusing picture of the vanities of savage life.

South of the Niam-Niams are the Monbuttoo, also a fine race, of Niam-Niam blood. Their women do the farm-work, while the men hunt and do the iron-work. Both sexes make baskets and carve wood. The women enjoy great independence, manage all the household affairs, and appear to be in all respects on an equality with the men; but polygamy among them is unlimited, adultery common, and the demeanor of the women revolting. "Not a few were openly obscene." The men were dressed in drawers made of skins, but the women go entirely unclothed. The Monbuttoos are generally particular about their food, but are, in spite of their high degree of culture, shocking cannibals. The bodies of the slain in battle are divided on the field, and carried home and dried for future consumption, and Dr. Schweinfurth once came upon the most revolting scene of which we have ever read, the preparation of a portion of the human body for the pot by some young women. "But, with it all, the Monbuttoo are a noble race of men—men who display a certain national pride, and are endowed with an intellect and judgment such as few natives of the African wilderness can boast—men to whom one may put a reasonable question, and who will return a reasonable answer. The Nubians can never say enough in praise of their faithfulness in friendly intercourse, and of the order and stability of their national life."

The question which we have already mentioned, and which must suggest itself to anybody who reads these volumes, why people who have made as much advance in civilization as some of the tribes our author here describes have not made more, he answers as follows:

"There is an utter want of wholesome intercourse between race and race. For any member of a tribe which speaks one dialect to cross the border of a tribe which speaks another is to make a venture at the hazard of his life. Districts there are, otherwise prosperous in every way, which become overpopulated, and from these there are emigrations which entail a change of pursuits, so that cattle-herders become agriculturists, and agriculturists become hunters living on the chase; districts again there are which shelter the remnant of a people who are resisting oppression to the very verge of despair, and there are districts which have been actually reduced to a condition of vassalage and servitude."

This answer, however, is not complete. It leaves unexplained the fact that civilization has not been wrought out in Africa as elsewhere by the ascendancy of the tribe of highest capacity over its inferior neighbors, resulting in the formation of an orderly and growing political community. Society has started everywhere, so far as our knowledge goes, under the conditions now present in Africa, but it has everywhere else gradually thrown them off through the rise into power of some clan possessing extraordinary capacity for civilization. In other words, the fittest has everywhere else got the better of the others, and either rooted them out or absorbed them.

Dr. Schweinfurth's account of the Akka or pigmy race, whose confines he nearly reached, and many members of which he saw, is what has perhaps attracted most attention to his book. It is, though meagre, of exceeding interest to the ethnologist, and goes far to strengthen the theory which the author holds, that the aboriginal population of Africa, of which the Akka and Bushmen are the surviving specimens, were men of diminutive stature, of limited intelligence, difficult articulation, and great manual dexterity, who were gradually dispossessed by tribes of larger mould. That this is probably true of Europe and America, and undoubtedly true of India, has long been an inference from popular legends which have received a good deal of confirmation of late from historical and scientific investigation. But the little men of European myths, like the "black man" of the Indian myths, is always a malevolent, tricky creature, who delights in annoying and injuring his betters, who hate him savagely. The Akka, on the other hand, though keen hunters, great archers and spear-throwers, and wonderfully mischievous and cruel, are said by Dr. Schweinfurth to be regarded as a kind of amusing pets or protégés by the Monbuttoo and Niam-Niams. Any extracts from this portion of the book would do it injustice. We cordially commend the whole of it to the perusal of our readers.

MASSON'S WORDSWORTH, SHELLEY, KEATS.*

OF the six essays contained in this volume, four are old and have already appeared in print, while two, those on Keats and Shelley, are new. The essays are so much above the level of periodical literature, of which we believe they originally were a part, that they deserved the permanent form here given them. And apart from their merit, there is this other reason besides for republishing them—namely, that Professor Masson intends issuing a complete and revised edition of his critical essays, and this volume is the first of the new set. The second volume is to be the 'Chatterton,' which is known in this country from having been reprinted ten or twelve years ago. As regards this same revision, it is clear that Mr. Masson needs to have a few words spoken to him; in this volume, he has been rather slovenly about it. For example, it is bad editorship to insert in the new essay on Keats, and at the same time retain in the old one on Wordsworth, the very similar remarks about the best poetical study of the external world. The point made is one well worth making: The critic selects as a characteristic mark of a certain school of poets whom the example of Wordsworth had called to the study of nature, that they seemed to think that nature consisted altogether in vegetation; they made themselves wearisome with continual lush grasses, meshed ivy, laburnums, roses, lilies, and much other persistent, wordy botany; they seemed to know little of any aspects of nature save such as could be seen on Hampstead Heath. Mr. Masson incidentally suggests that a good designation for this knot of writers would have been Hampstead Heathen, and we mention the suggestion because it is one of Mr. Masson's

* 'Wordsworth, Shelley, Keats, and Other Essays. By David Masson M.A., LL.D. New York & London: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

habits to enliven his essays by familiar and facetious terms much like this that we have quoted. However, he proceeds to illustrate the difference between the Wordsworthian way of conceiving of nature and the way of which Leigh Hunt, as much as anybody else, set the fashion. The illustration is forcible. The first passage is Wordsworth's description of a boyish skating scene:

> "So through the darkness and the cold we flew,
> And not a voice was idle: with the din
> Smitten, the precipices rang aloud;
> The leafless trees and every icy crag
> Tinkled like iron; while far-distant hills
> Into the tumult sent an alien sound
> Of melancholy, not unnoticed, while the stars,
> Eastward, were sparkling clear, and in the west
> The orange sky of evening died away."

The second passage is quoted from Keats, who, although vastly more than a botanical poet in his natural scenery, nevertheless in his early works furnishes by the hundred perfect examples of vegetation in excess. He cannot be said in doing it to do what other poets more fully identified with the school have done, and that is, make it evident that the pettiness, or daintiness, or fastidiousness, or whatever we are to call it, of the imagery employed was a true argument of a sort of feminity and affectedness and general pettiness of nature in the poet. It is in Leigh Hunt again that this is easiest seen—though of that critic and poet it is necessary to say, and all the more necessary inasmuch as he can be so irritating, that there is no reader of our poetical literature who is not often as truly his debtor as a thirsty traveller to the friend who points him to a new or a forgotten spring. In the lines from Keats, in which the poet describes the spot where Cupid watches Adonis at the command of Venus, there is, we may be sure, nothing of Wordsworth's frozen lake ringing beneath the open winter sky, orange in the west and sparkling in the east with stars; of the iron-branched trees, or the distant mountain sending a solemn, alien sound into the midst of the nearer din; on the contrary, we are enclosed from the mighty face of Nature within a somewhat unwholesome growth of greens:

> " . . . Above his head
> Four lily-stalks did their white honors wed
> To make a coronal; and round him grew
> All tendrils green, of every bloom and hue,
> Together intertwined and tram'elled fresh:
> The vine of glossy sprout; the ivy mesh;
> Shading the Ethiop berries, and woodbine,
> Of velvet leaves and bugled blooms divine;
> Convolvulus in streakèd vases flush;
> The creeper, mellowing for an autumn blush;
> And virgin's bower, trailing airily;
> With others of the sisterhood."

As we have said, the substance of Mr. Masson's line of criticism on these opposed poetic methods appears twice in the revised essays, which seems a mistake. The critic thinks, however, that his distinction between Nature and Nature botanized is one which more than any other needs dinning into the modern youthful poetic mind, and this belief of his may plead in justification. The repetition looks clumsy, however; the more particularly as the distinction, which so far as we know has been more consciously and more forcibly preached by Mr. Masson than by other dissatisfied critics, has been by him presented in the Keats essay with all due emphasis and skill.

A habit of Professor Masson's which some of his readers do not find agreeable, is of more obvious consequence to his style than his free-and-easy way of being impressive. This is his habit of bringing together before the reader's eyes not only the one or two personages whom he wishes to exhibit, but also numerous others besides who happened to be alive at the same time, or at some time nearly the same, or, indeed, at some time not at all nearly the same; and alive also in the same place, or some near place, or some place not near, who may somehow be attached to the central figure by ties direct or indirect. Though often exclaimed against, some vestiges of this to us confusing way of composing a picture these essays still show; as the one on Shelley, and as in the case where, by reason of Lord Jeffrey as a boy having once seen Burns, and Burns's life having extended so far that he was born while James Thomson was still living, we have a grouping in the coincidental manner of all literary Scotchmen from David Hume to our contemporary Carlyle. The essay in which this historical painting is set up displays another of Mr. Masson's characteristics—his Scotticism, which is fervent. His subject in the essay is "Scottish Influence on British Literature"; but what he really does is to enquire at length—and if with hearty patriotism yet with candor—into the roots and reasons of that *perfervidum ingenium* about which so much has been said. He details the causes which have tended to make the Scot a highly individualized person—as, for example, his small country, so often needing defence against a powerful neighbor, and the defence of which bred the will and the pugnacity which lie at the basis of an independent character; his interest in religious topics, which his mysterious and often terrible storms and mists increased at the same time that his wild and changeable surroundings bred doubt in him; his love of controversy, leading so nearly into the realm of out-and-out bitter dogmatism—in short, there is a good deal of philosophizing, the result of which is that Mr. Masson reduces the *perfervidum ingenium* of his countrymen to a habit of "emphases" intellectual or moral, or both. This seems to leave us much where it found us—that is to say, if we are Scotchmen, enquiring without uneasiness what good thing exactly it was that was meant by the phrase-coiner; and if we are not Scotchmen, tolerably contented with the belief that the *perfervidum ingenium* in the case of good Scotchmen means intellectual and moral energy without very much of intellectual or moral repose; while in the case of some other persons, it may mean pragmatical conceit, selfishness, and other qualities which, as the Japanese preacher remarks to his hearers at the close of his sermon, "may no doubt be found among people inhabiting the more distant parts of India and China." That some such are found near Arthur's Seat Mr. Masson does not hint, though he admits that there are foreigners whose opinion of the Scottish national character would not be fully defined by the term "emphasis."

The book may fairly be described as instructive and entertaining reading, and it has one particular merit which makes it in our opinion a valuable elementary work for any young man or woman entering upon the study of literary works—or, let us say, of literature. Moved probably by the exigencies of his position as a rhetorical professor at Edinburgh, and moved, perhaps, also by that function of the *perfervidum*, etc., which induces Scotchmen either to classify and systematize all things earthly and heavenly, or else die, Mr. Masson has paid great attention to certain literary questions of primary importance—real or formal. One of these questions, for example, is where to draw the shadowy line of demarcation between the spirits of prose and of poetry; how to determine what is the appropriate verbal dress for this or that subject, and consequently how the true law may be observed or transgressed. All this Mr. Masson discusses with class-room lucidity and more than class-room ability. His book may do little to settle problems like this; but it will lay them out before many minds in a form more apprehensible than they usually assume on their first appearance, or indeed their steady recurrence, to the minds of youthful enquirers.

A defect which is not of an importance to correspond with the importance of the good quality which we have mentioned is the fact that while Mr. Masson is usually a sensible writer, generally taking safe and well-trodden critical roads, like Audrey, the gods did not make him poetical, nor endow him with any very exquisite degree of literary taste. The reader cannot be absolutely sure that a well-seasoned remark on Milton may not be followed by praises of the vagarious "impassioned prose" of Jean Paul, the cold limbs of whose buried little ones, touching his soul, he tells us, on a certain occasion, removed its blots as dead hands cure eruptions of the skin.

HENRY BEYLE.*

STENDAHL was a most singular character, but nothing surely in his destiny was so singular as having Mr. Paton write his life. Beyond his good-will and his industry, we are unable to perceive that the biographer has a single qualification for his task, and we should be curious to know whether it was undertaken spontaneously or to order. In speaking of the author's admirable 'Chroniques Italiennes,' and by implication of his masterpiece, the 'Chartreuse de Parme,' Mr. Paton remarks that Beyle was here quite off his beat, and that what he *might* have done was something in the "pleasant, gossiping manner of Louisa Mühlbach"! In his review of his hero's works, Mr. Paton devotes eleven pages to that forgotten fragment, the 'Vie de Rossini,' and not a line to this same 'Chartreuse de Parme,' now recognized as Beyle's chief title to the attention of posterity. Of the smallest capacity to appreciate the author either on his moral or intellectual side Mr. Paton is strikingly guiltless. He regards him as a shrewd, amusing, eccentric gossip, determined to have his laugh at everything, and to offer his readers at any cost a light, frothy entertainment—a judgment about on a level with his speaking incidentally of the "naïve Dutch realism of Balzac." A critic who finds Stendahl amusing and Balzac "naïf" must be left to his own devices. Mr. Paton is, as a commentator, quite worthless, and as a writer sadly slipshod and vulgar. We have seldom seen a book more in need of a complete revision, both as to matter and to manner. It contains hardly an opinion which is not ludicrously erratic, and hardly a quotation, a foreign phrase, or a proper name which is not misspelled and misprinted. But the author writes with a garrulous *bonhomie*—that of an easy-going cosmopolite, well advanced, apparently, in years—which will soften the edge of the reader's displeasure; and he is to be thanked at any rate for bringing Beyle once more before the world, and giving occasion for that final sifting and summing up of opinion which the world finds it constantly more needful to practise expeditiously towards all claimants for permanent attention. But it seems, we

* 'Henry Beyle (otherwise De Stendahl). A Critical and Biographical Study. By Andrew Archibald Paton.' London: Trübner & Co. 1874.

repeat, the crowning stroke of that something perverse and melancholy which pervaded all Stendahl's career, that these last proceedings in judgment should take place in an English court and be carried on in English—and in English in which Mr. Paton has a voice. Beyle was the most French of Frenchmen, but he spent half his life in Italy, lauding the Italians and denouncing his countrymen. He caused "Arrigo Beyle, Milanese," to be inscribed upon his tombstone, and he falls victim, thirty years after his death, to a biographer who discourses upon him in a strange, slovenly English, flavored with Scotch and interlarded with disfigured fragments of French and Italian. By denying that he was the flippant feuilletonist represented by Mr. Paton, we do not mean to intimate that he was a dull writer. He is always interesting and often divertingly so, but his merit, to our sense, is not in his powers of entertainment, greater or less, but simply in his instinctive method. What this method was, and how instinctive it was, is suggested by this passage in a letter to his sister, written in his twenty-first year:

"I like *examples*, and not, like Montesquieu, Buffon, and Rousseau, systems. . . . Help me to know provincial manners and passions; describe me the manners in the drawing-room of Madame ———. I need examples and facts. Write quickly, without seeking fine phrases. . . . Contribute to my knowledge of women, facts, facts! I have a passionate desire to know human nature, and a great mind to live in a boarding-house, where people cannot conceal their real characters. . . . Borrow and read Sallust; you will find there thirty superb characters."

Later, he advises the same young lady to make a list of the good and bad passions, and then to write opposite each category a description of such examples as she had observed. By perseverance in this course, she would find that she had discovered treasures of knowledge of human nature. It was this absorbing passion for example, anecdote, and illustration that constituted Beyle's distinctive genius, and is the ground of the fresh claims put forth on his behalf by his recent eloquent apostle, M. Taine. Beyle felt, as soon as he began to observe, that character, manners, and civilization are explained by circumstances, and that in the way of observing and collecting circumstances there was a great work to be done. He devoted himself as far as possible to doing it, and on the whole, with his profound mistrust of systems, left the theory of the matter very much to take care of itself. M. Taine follows, with a genius for theory, and erects a symmetrical system on Beyle's unordered *data*. It is interesting to observe that in his attempts to theorize, Beyle is always flimsy and erratic; and that in his attempts to collect small facts in the manner of Beyle (as in 'Monsieur Graindorge'), M. Taine is generally ponderous and infelicitous.

The only value of Mr. Paton's volume is in its disinterring a good many obscure facts of Beyle's personal history, and, in particular, in its offering us a number of extracts from the copious and intimate correspondence which he carried on in his early years with his sister Pauline. With his genius for observation, fortune led Beyle, happily, to see a good deal of the world. He was born at Grenoble in the year 1783. His father occupied an honorable position in the law, but his means were moderate, and Beyle's money-troubles were unceasing to the day of his death. In his own line, he had a fine start in life in having opportunities for close observation of the great Napoleonic drama. He obtained by family influence a cavalry commission in the army, and afterwards occupied some responsible posts in the commissariat. He was at the battle of Marengo and in the retreat from Moscow (as the reader of any given five pages of his writing will not fail to discover). He also discharged various small administrative functions in Germany. In his Italian campaign, he formed that passion for Italy and all things Italian which provided him with the occupation of a lifetime. He returned to Milan in 1811, and from that time to his death made repeated visits, of varying duration, amounting in all to more than twenty years. His last ten years (though he died while on leave of absence in Paris) were spent as consul to Civita Vecchia—a passion for Italy cherished certainly under difficulties. He died in 1841. Mr. Paton will enable an ingenious reader to construct a tolerably vivid personal portrait. After the fall of the Empire, Beyle was continually poor, and his habits and tastes demanded money. His writings were not popular, and have come into favor since his death. He was extremely ugly, with a coarse, corpulent, plebeian ugliness. Mr. Paton says characteristically that by one of his friends "some rather offensive" traits are mentioned—"for instance, he wore stays." This is certainly not an Anglo-Saxon custom for gentlemen, but, except that, as Beyle was very fat, tight-lacing may have often been uncomfortable to him, we are at a loss to see to whom, besides himself, it was "offensive." Mr. Paton adds that the same witness, whose name he misprints, pronounces him "a *gentilhomme sans blason*," and translates the phrase "a would-be gentleman, without armorial bearings." It means, of course, the direct reverse—a real gentleman, though he could show no arms. This judgment affords some relief to the reader's imagination, which, by reflecting much upon Beyle's poverty and his ugliness, has found itself unable to view in as graceful a light as is desirable his unremitting and somewhat pretentious love-affairs. It is an especial ill-fortune for Beyle that his relations with women and his views on the whole matter of love should be presented for judgment at an English tribunal, unaccustomed to dealing either with such temperaments or with such opinions. Beyle's temperament was apparently the French temperament in a highly exaggerated form; and as for his opinions, they are scattered through all his writings, and especially embodied in his voluminous treatise 'De l'Amour'—his masterpiece, according to Mr. Paton, but to our taste that one of his books which, with the exception perhaps of 'Le Rouge et le Noir,' comes nearest to being absolutely unreadable. As is generally the case in regard to this matter in the lives of men of genius in which it plays a part, we know at once too much and too little. We know with more or less accuracy the number and succession of the ladies to whom these gentlemen have been devoted, and we know their published philosophy of such devotion, but we are not able, for want of a general light, to appreciate justly either the weak points in their philosophy or the strong points in their conduct.

Stendahl was apparently very industrious, though he worked in a desultory and disjointed manner, wrote (or published, at least) because he had to do so for bread, and affected to be as little as possible a littérateur by profession. He ought to have considered, however, that the character was made honorable by the danger which he persisted in fancying attached to it. He published everything under a false name (he had half a dozen), travestied his own on his tombstone, and is known to fame by a disguise. He professed an entire indifference to literary fame, except as consisting in mere conciseness. He boasts that the 'Chartreuse de Parme' is written in the style of the Civil Code. He borrowed largely, especially in his early writings, and transferred long passages from other books without acknowledgment. One may say roughly that his subject is always Italy. He had a number of affectations, but his passion for Italy is evidently profoundly sincere, and will serve to keep his memory sweet to many minds and his authority unquestioned. This subject he treated under a number of different forms; most successfully, toward the end of his life, in a novel which will always be numbered among the dozen finest novels we possess; in a number of short tales, founded on fact, and extracted from the manuscript archives of Italian families, of many of whom Stendahl purchased the privilege of transcribing for a certain number of mornings in their libraries—just as in some parts of the Rhineland one may obtain for a small fee the right to spend an hour in a vineyard or orchard, and retire carrying as much fruit as possible about one's person, as the phrase is; and in a series of loosely connected notes, descriptive, reflective, anecdotic, and epigrammatic, on monuments and pictures, manners and morals (such as 'Rome, Naples et Florence' and the 'Promenades dans Rome'). To these last may be added his 'Histoire de la Peinture en Italie' and various pamphlets—the 'Vie de Rossini' and 'Racine et Shakspeare.' The 'History of Painting' is an ambitious name for a string of desultory though often acute and suggestive dissertations on matters nearly and remotely connected with Italian art. It is no history, and, with much suggestiveness, it has to our mind little value. Stendahl as an art-critic is inveterately beside the mark, and it is striking evidence of the development of the science of taste within the last forty years that with his extreme "sensibility," as he would call it, and his excellent opportunities for study, he should seem to us nowadays to belong to so false a school.

The letters placed in Mr. Paton's hands by Beyle's family, and unfortunately offered us here only in translated and condensed extracts, add much to our sense of intimacy with our author, but help us little to understand him better. He was a strange mixture of genius and pretension, of amiability and arrogance, of fine intuitions and patent follies. He condemned his genius to utter more foolish things than it seems to us a wise man was ever before responsible for. He practised contempt on a wholesale, a really grotesque scale, and considered, or pretended to consider, all mankind an aggregation of "*sots*," except a small class endowed like himself with "sensibility." We have spoken of his method; it was excellent, but we may say on the whole that it was better than any use he made of it—save only when he wrote the 'Chartreuse de Parme.' His notion was that *passion*, the power to surrender one's self sincerely and consistently to the feeling of the hour, was the finest thing in the world, and it seemed to him that he had discovered a mine of it in the old Italian character. In the French, passion was abortive, through the action of vanity and the fear of the neighbors' opinion—a state of things with which he is never weary of expressing his disgust. It is easy to perceive that this doctrine held itself quite irresponsible to our old moralistic canons, for *naïvété* of sentiment in any direction, combined with great energy, was considered absolutely its own justification. In the 'Chartreuse de Parme,' where every one is grossly immoral, and the heroine is a kind of

monster, there is so little attempt to offer any other, that through the magnificently sustained pauses of the narrative we feel at last the influence of the writer's cynicism, regard it as amiable, and enjoy serenely his clear vision of the mechanism of character, unclouded by the mists of prejudice. Among writers called immoral there is no doubt that he best deserves the charge; the others, beside him, are spotlessly innocent. But his immorality seems vicious and harsh only according to the subjects he handles. 'Le Rouge et le Noir,' 'L'Amour,' and certain passages in his other writings have an air of unredeemed corruption—a quality which in the novel amounts to a positive blight and dreariness. For the rest, Stendahl professed a passionate love of the beautiful *per se*, and there is every reason to suppose that it was sincere. He was an entertaining mixture of sentiment and cynicism. He describes his heroes and heroines in perfect good faith as "sublime," in appearance and fact, in the midst of the most disreputable actions, and it seems to him that one may perfectly well live a scandalous life and sit up half the night reading Dante in a glow of pure rapture. In repudiating Mr. Paton's assumption that he is a light writer, we would fain express that singular something which is fairly described neither as serious nor as solemn—a kind of painful tension of feeling under the disguise of the coolest and easiest style. It is the tension, in part, of conceit—the conceit which leads him with every tenth phrase to prophesy in the most trenchant manner the pass to which "les sots" will have brought things within such and such a period—and in part of aspiration, of deep enjoyment of some bold touch of nature or some fine stroke of art. This bespeaks the restlessness of a superior mind, and makes our total feeling for Beyle a kindly one. We recommend his books to persons of "sensibility" whose moral convictions have somewhat solidified.

A Treatise on Food and Dietetics. By F. W. Pavy, M.D., F.R.S. 8vo, pp. 574. (Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1874.)—In this volume Dr. Pavy discusses the physiology of food in the light of modern scientific discovery, while at the same time he avoids the error, into which recent writers on this subject are so prone to fall, of attaching undue importance to scientific observations which really cover only a portion of the subject, and of overlooking the empirical results arrived at by the daily experience of life. Although in his remarks on the dynamic relations of foods the author seems to have scarcely mastered the question in all its bearings, yet this portion of the work is on the whole satisfactory, and well repays perusal. The important part played by nitrogen in the animal economy, and the relation of nitrogenous and non-nitrogenous food to muscular force, are well explained and exemplified by a detailed account of the classical experiment of Feck and Wislicenus, and of the more recent observations of Parkes; and incidentally the conclusions drawn by Flint from his observations on Weston, the pedestrian, receive a very able criticism. The author's position as leader of that school of physiologists who regard the formation of sugar in the liver as entirely a post-mortem phenomenon, seems unfortunately to have led him to ignore many recent investigations, all tending to show that the liver is to be regarded as a storehouse where a starch-like substance, derived from various sorts of food, and known as glycogen, is accumulated during digestion, and afterwards given out in the form of grape-sugar as the necessities of the body may require—the liver, according to this view, performing an analogous function in the animal economy to that of tubers and bulbs in the vegetable world. The absence of all reference to this important advance in physiology is perhaps the most serious defect in the whole work.

Dr. Pavy's list of alimentary substances is a very long one, and includes much interesting information about articles which are only exceptionally used as the food of man. It is very satisfactory to find the relative digestibility of the various articles stated without reference to the tables drawn up by Beaumont as the result of his observations on Alexis St. Martin, for these tables, though expressing only the time during which the various substances remained in the fistulous stomach of the Canadian, have been too often regarded as furnishing complete information on the question of comparative digestibility. The portion of the volume which treats of dietetics contains much useful information, not the least important of which is the list of dietaries in the principal hospitals of Great Britain. On the whole, this work may be regarded as the best of its class in the English language, though, in view of the works of Smith and Letheby on the same subject, we must take exception to the somewhat uncourteous remark in the preface, that "no modern systematic treatise of the kind here presented exists in the English language."

A Manual of Mediæval and Modern History. By M. E. Thalheimer, formerly Teacher of History and Composition in the Packer Collegiate Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y. (Cincinnati and New York: Wilson, Hinkle & Co. 8vo, pp. 480.)—Miss Thalheimer's manual of mediæval and modern history is marked by the same excellences as her manual of ancient history; and we do not hesitate to pronounce it the best school text-book, covering the same ground, with which we are acquainted. Its principal fault, too, is that which we pointed out in the earlier work—an excessive amount of detail. This would be no disadvantage where the instruction is properly done; but most teachers in this country have no higher standard of teaching than to require every word to be learned by heart, proper names, dates, and all. A good teacher will know how much of this matter the pupils ought to commit to memory, and with such the book will be found interesting and suggestive. An average teacher will use it only to load the pupils' minds with a mass of to them useless lumber. The arrangement is as good as could be expected in so very difficult a field, and would perhaps be unequivocally good if the editor had used more cross-references and had introduced more abundant chronological tables. Take, for example, the Byzantine history, p. 56, where a distinct reference back to p. 42 would make the connection clear, reminding the pupil of Michael the Drunkard and the republic of the Paulicians; for an ordinary school-boy will not stop to look these names up in the index. Again, the period of the Crusades has a very lucid and convenient arrangement, bringing in the "Guelfs and Ghibellines" and "England and France" separately after the general sketch of the Crusades; but the period which follows (to the Discovery of America) lacks this unity and simplicity. It would have been better to have chosen some one country, say France (or the Church), as a centre for the general sketch, keeping it quite distinct from other countries, and then followed it up, as is done, with special sections.

The book is remarkably free from typographical and other errors, but we notice a few discrepancies and trifling errors in the maps. Thus, in one map, the French spelling of Strasbourg and Luxembourg stands with the German Mentz and Coblenz. Again, Argovie and Thurgovie for purely German cantons; Heidelburg, Nuremburg, Luzerne, Besancon, Alançon. The maps are excellent, twelve in number. There are good and perhaps sufficient genealogical tables; chronological tables might, however, be advantageously added. A useful feature is the Recapitulation at the end of each section.

The Poems of Virgil. Vol. I. The Pastoral Poems and first Six Books of the Æneid. Edited by J. H. and W. F. Allen and J. B. Greenough. (Boston: Ginn Brothers. 1874.)—This volume is in keeping with the high character of the editors' previous publications. It is not too much to say that with the appearance of their 'Latin Grammar' in 1872 began a new era in the study of the Latin language in America, and perhaps there is no more encouraging token of the condition of classical scholarship among us than the cordial and intelligent welcome so generally extended to this advanced manual. Their edition of 'Selected Orations of Cicero' in 1873 was superior to any which the American student had before had. A practical application of the best results of Latin scholarship and of general philology, and a clear conciseness of statement, pre-eminently characterized both works, and these are the qualities which give to this edition of Virgil its great merit. The wealth of comment which has accumulated about the language and thoughts of their author the editors seem to have thoroughly examined, without, however, sacrificing a practical and independent spirit peculiar to themselves. Wherever a diligent learner would be likely to have doubts about Virgil's exact meaning, or to be puzzled by the idioms or subtleties of the Latin, there the editors appear with ample help, or, at least, with a clue to the solution. We have been particularly pleased with the synopses of thought which precede and accompany each portion of the poems.

In purity of the Virgilian text, we think that this school-edition will be found in advance of any of its predecessors. But as the book is designed especially for young students of Latin, the wisdom of its discrepancy in matters of orthography may be doubted. Among such discrepancies are, in the first Eclogue, *fines* and *finis*, both in the accusative plural; *formosus* and *formonsus*, in the fifth Eclogue; and with about equal frequency in the Æneid, *humidus* and *umidus*. Though it be conceded that such varieties of form existed among the scholars of the Augustan age, and even that so painstaking an author as Virgil wrote the same word in different ways, we very much question the expediency of troubling beginners with such points. Recent investigations have, indeed, materially modified the conventional orthography which has come to us from Latinists of the fifteenth century, but the whole question is still such an open one—even among veteran scholars—that tyros ought not to be bewildered with it. At the least, those editors who would incorporate such matters in a school-book should give a synoptical statement of its orthographical peculiarities rather than assume that the book will be read in course with a memory tenacious of pertinent notes. In fairly instituting any change from the conventional to the historical

method of spelling Latin, the distinction in form between vocal and consonantal *i* and *u* should certainly be abandoned. Another slight defect in this edition is the marking of certain passages as spurious, or of doubtful authenticity, without a statement of the reasons therefor. The ordinary reader of Virgil—in whom little familiarity with textual criticism can be presumed—resents, as a species of sacrilege, any apparently arbitrary interference with the traditional text, while the school-boy gazes only vacantly at the mystic brackets.

In the second volume of this edition we are promised, not only the Georgics and the remaining books of the Æneid, but also the too much neglected minor poems attributed to Virgil.

Physiology for Practical Use. Edited by James Hinton. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.)—Displeasing as much of the deluge of "popularizing" books of science may seem to the more strenuous student, he must simply bow his head, and instead of protesting content himself with discriminating and picking out the best. This being the case, we think Mr. Hinton's treatise is to be recommended as conveying a great deal of useful information in clear and untechnical words. It is true that the chapters are desultorily strung together, and that the subject is made easy by an almost complete omission of reference to the experimental methods by which the results given have been ascertained. Thus the work has hardly any educational value. We think the reading, on the one hand, of such a book as Huxley's 'Elementary Lessons,' and, on the other, of some popular book on hygiene, were it even nothing better than Black's 'Ten Laws of Health,' would be more profitable, because more systematic, and would take no longer time. But our minds nowadays are getting intolerant of any but desultory, scrappy reading. Professor Agassiz used to say that no man could understand more of a generalization than his knowledge of particulars would cover: no particulars, no intelligence whatever of the general theory. The proposition is not always absolutely true, but we feel strongly its force in reading the first chapter of Mr. Hinton's book, probably written by himself, on 'The Brain and its Servants.' A reader whose only knowledge of the nervous system came from this account of its functions, its inhibitions, its sensibilities, and its various degrees of automatic and voluntary performance, all expressed in vague theorems with nowhere a concrete analytic experiment—such a reader's notions would indeed be strangely wild and dim. Still the book, as far as it goes, is accurate and very readable. Some will object to the frequent moralizing of the editor. We ourselves do not. The chapters on alcohol, on the ear, taking cold, ventilation, headache, and sleeplessness are good. Here is an extract with which we may close:

"Hydropathy has at all events made one thing popular, namely, that people do not necessarily catch cold from sleeping in wet bandages or even wet sheets if proper precautions are adopted. These precautions consist in placing a sufficient amount of dry clothing over that which is wet to prevent any feeling of chilliness from being experienced by the patient. Here is a principle not to be lost sight of; should it be one's misfortune to meet with a damp bed under circumstances in which no other is to be had, let all available coverings be placed over it, or at least to the extent that the person who occupies it shall feel warm and comfortable. He may then defy the damp and sleep in security."

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Forty-third Congress, First Session. House of Representatives. Report No. 259. Cultivation of Timber and Preservation of Forests. March 17, 1874. 8vo, pp. 120.

At the meeting of the American Association held at Portland in August, 1873, a committee was appointed to memorialize Congress in reference to the wasteful destruction of American forests, and the importance of arresting it, not only with respect to the future supply of timber, but also on account of the effect upon the climate of the country. This committee, consisting of Mr. George B. Emerson of Boston, and Dr. Franklin B. Hough of Lowville, N. Y., proceeded to Washington during the past winter, and presented to the Secretary of the Interior the memorial referred to. This was favorably endorsed by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, and then transmitted to the President, who made it the subject of a special message to Congress, whereupon it was referred to the Committee on Public Lands, by whom this report is made. After a comparison between our former and present supply of timber, the Committee give the percentage of woodlands in various countries, and proceed to a critical consideration of some of the forest tracts of the United States, especially the pine forests of Michigan. Lumber statistics follow, as furnished by the census, and an estimate is attempted of the ratio of consumption of timber for various purposes—as, for railroads, fences, bridges, fuel, etc. The effect of forests upon rivers and water-courses is next considered, and a note of warning raised as to the result of indiscriminate clearing of the ground, especially in mountainous regions, upon the distribution of the rain-fall, producing freshets on the one hand and stages of low water on the other; and the experiences of various nations in this respect are cited. Several essays by Dr. Hough, who has paid particular attention to this matter, are given in the work, which forms an excellent synopsis of the present state of our knowledge on the subject. A copious alphabetical index makes it possible to refer at once to any particular topic. The Committee on Public Lands recommend the appointment of a competent Commission of Enquiry, upon whose report Congress can adopt such remedial and precautionary measures as may be found expedient.

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THE SEVENTH EDITION was issued in England last month, though the book was only published on the 15th of last May!

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 14, 1874.

THE money market has remained easy, with the rate standing at 2 to 3 per cent. for call loans. There are no indications of any improvement on rates, the banks and financial institutions being as greatly encumbered as ever with surplus funds, which they have been unable to loan out at anything like paying rates. For commercial paper there is a quick market, with very little offering. We quote the market as follows: 6½ to 7½ for prime names having 3 to 4 months to run, and 5 to 6 per cent. for that running 60 days and under.

Cable advices on Thursday reported the Bank of England rate of discount unchanged at 3 per cent., and a gain of £260,000 in the bullion of the Bank.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks of this city, issued on Saturday, was slightly unfavorable; it compares as follows with that of the previous week:

	Sept. 5.	Sept. 12.		Differences.
Loans	$279,084,900	$280,867,800	Inc..	$1,782,900
Specie	18,891,300	19,863,100	Inc..	971,800
Legal tenders	65,604,700	65,325,900	Dec..	278 8 0
Deposits	234,746,000	237,882,500	Inc..	3,136,500
Circulation	25,662,400	25,605,700	Dec..	56,700

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Sept. 5.	Sept. 12.		Differences.
Specie	$18,891,300	$19,863,100	Inc...	$971,800
Legal tenders	65,607,100	65,325,900	Dec..	278,800
Total reserve	$84,496,700	$85,189,000	Inc..	$693,000
Reserve required against deposits	58,686,500	59,470,625		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't	25,809,500	25,718,375	Dec..	91,125

The stock market during the week was active and the prevailing feeling generally "bullish." The efforts to advance prices have been mainly directed towards a few stocks, such as Union Pacific, Lake Shore, and Western Union, the improvement in which ranged between 1¾ and 3¼ per cent. New York Central was strong upon the usual declaration of its half-yearly dividend of 4 per cent., coupled with the announcement that in future the dividends upon the stock would be paid quarterly, 2 per cent. every three months. The movement in Union Pacific has assumed important shape, and there is no end to the rumors which have been set afloat relative to the heretofore unknown intrinsic value of the stock. The most important statement, which comes from the "great operator" himself, Jay Gould, is that the road earned its interest for the entire year during the first eight months, and that the net earnings, after paying operating expenses, during the last four months of the fiscal year, will be applicable to the payment of dividends on the stock. The "talk" among the bulls is that by the 1st of January the price of Union Pacific will be 50, and by July next 75 will be low for it, as by that time payment of regular dividends will have been commenced. While there may be some doubt as to the correctness of these predictions, there is no doubt whatever upon one point, and that is, that extraordinary efforts are being made to advance its price, and that a sufficient amount has already been purchased by the bulls, which would, in ordinary times, have been sufficient to have worked the stock up to 40. The weak spot in the market has been C., C. and I. C., which fell off to 8. The "Granger" stocks—Milwaukee and St. Paul, and Chicago and Northwestern—have also been a drag upon the general market, speculation in which has been feverish, owing to pending litigation regarding them in the Wisconsin court.

The market to-day opened strong and buoyant, particularly in Union Pacific, which during the day advanced to 34½; Lake Shore, which sold up to 75⅝, and Western Union, which sold at 80⅜. The balance of the list advanced from ¼ to ½ above the closing prices of Saturday. In the afternoon, the "Granger" stocks took a sudden jump, St. Paul going from 32½ to 34, and Northwestern from 36 to 38⅜, upon the false announcement that the Wisconsin court had made a decision in the railroad suits favorable to the roads.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, September 12, 1874:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday.		Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R..	103	103⅜	103⅞	104⅜	104	104⅞	104	104½	104⅜	104⅜	104	104½	33,005
Lake Shore	73¼	74	74⅜	75	74⅜	75¼	74⅝	75⅛	74½	74⅜	74¼	74⅜	132,235
Erie	34¼	34⅜	34⅝	34⅞	34⅜	34⅜	34⅜	34⅞	34	34¼	34	34⅜	20,400
Union Pacific	30¼	30⅝	30½	31	30½	30⅞	30¾	31⅜	31⅛	31⅜	31½	33⅜	165,900
Chi. & N. W.	....	37⅜	37⅜	37⅞	37	37½	37¼	37⅝	35½	37	35⅜	36	24,075
Do. pfd.	55⅜	55⅞	....	57	. ..	56½	....	51	....	55⅜	51⅜	55⅛	500
N. J. Central	....	104	....	104⅜	....	....	104¼	104⅜	....	101½	104⅜	104½	1,620
Rock Island	99¼	100⅝	100⅜	101⅜	100⅜	101⅜	100⅜	101⅜	100⅜	101⅜	100½	101	36,900
Mil. & St. Paul	33⅜	34⅛	33¾	34½	33⅜	34	33⅜	34	32⅝	33⅝	32⅜	32⅞	25,000
Do. pfd	....	52½	....	53	....	....	52½	52⅜	52	52⅛	52	52⅛	1,400
Wabash	31½	32⅜	31⅜	33	31⅞	33	32⅜	33⅜	32½	33⅛	32½	32⅜	81,500
D., L. & W	108	108⅜	....	108⅜	....	108⅜	....	109	....	108⅞	....	109	1,125
O. & M	24¼	24⅜	24⅜	25	24⅜	24⅞	24⅛	24½	24	24½	24	24⅜	9,960
C. C. & I. C	8⅜	9	8	9½	8¼	9	8⅜	9⅜	8⅜	9⅛	....	8½	6,400
W. U. Tel	78½	79⅜	79	79⅜	79	79½	78⅜	79¼	78⅞	79⅜	78⅞	79⅜	142,100
Pacific Mail	48⅜	49⅛	48⅞	49½	48⅞	49¼	48⅜	49⅜	48¼	48⅝	48⅛	48⅜	92,500

Government securities have been quiet, with prices fractionally lower, in sympathy with the weakness of the gold premium. The demand for bonds has been extremely light, both for home and foreign account. The following are the closing prices this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	117⅛	118	Registered 5-20's, 1867, c	116¾	116⅞
Registered 5-20's, 1862, c	112¾	112⅞	Registered 5-20's, 1868, c	116¾	117
Registered 5-20's, 1864, c	115⅜	115⅝	Registered 5's, 10-40's, c	111¾	111⅞
Registered 5-20's, 1865, M and N	115⅝	116	Registered 5's of 1881	111⅞	112⅛
Registered 5-20's, 1865, J. and J.	115⅞	115⅞	U. S. Currency 6's	117⅛	117⅝

The principal feature in the railroad bond market was the sharp decline in the bonds of the C., C. and I. C. R.R. Co., the First Mortgages of which sold down to 70, and the Second Mortgages to 23, against 81 and 60 respectively, the prices they were selling at previous to the default in payment of interest. Union Pacific bonds were strong, especially the Incomes, which advanced from 80 to 88 during the week. The better class of railroad bonds are in very good demand, a marked preference being shown for them by investors over any other securities now offering. The New Jersey Central consolidated bonds, recently offered to the stockholders at 90, are in demand at a premium of 3 to 4 per cent. over subscription price. $3,000,000 New York Central and Hudson River Consolidated 7 per cent. bonds have been recently negotiated abroad at 105.

The gold market exhibits continued dulness; the extreme figures have been between 109¾ and 109⅞, the market closing on Saturday at the lowest point of the week.

The following shows the range of quotations:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Sept. 7	109¾	109¾	109¾	109¾
Tuesday, Sept. 8	109⅞	109¾	109¾	109¾
Wednesday, Sept. 9	109¾	109⅞	109¾	109¾
Thursday, Sept. 10	109¾	109¾	109¾	109¾
Friday, Sept. 11	109¾	109¾	109¾	109¾
Saturday, Sept. 12	109⅞	109⅞	109⅞	109⅞

The specie shipments for the week were unimportant in amount—$723,000, consisting mostly of silver bars.

NOTICE TO THE HOLDERS OF THE FIRST-MORTGAGE BONDS OF THE OREGON AND CALIFORNIA RAILROAD.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 24, 1874.

The Week.

THE New Orleans revolution has come to an end within the past week, McEnery and Penn surrendering to the United States immediately after the proclamation of the President calling upon the rebels to disperse. Kellogg was at once reinstated, and the time has since been occupied by the discussion of a proposed compromise between the Conservatives and the Kellogg party. The United States forces still remain in New Orleans, and the orders given for the concentration of other troops in Louisiana have not yet been countermanded. The history of events in detail has been this: On Wednesday of last week Kellogg was reported to be still in the Custom-house, all the State offices had been turned over to Penn, the courts were taken possession of and reorganized, the McEnery legislature was summoned to meet and impeach the judges who had sustained the Kellogg usurpation, barracks for the White Leaguers were erected as they came pouring in from the country, and "one of the ablest military men in the South," on being asked by a *Tribune* correspondent whether the United States Government would be able to suppress the White Leaguers, supposing them to have "one-half the force they professed to have," and were disposed to resist, replied: "With troops, no; with troops and gun-boats, yes." The city in the hands of the insurgents seems to have been perfectly quiet and orderly, and numerous despatches testifying to this fact were sent to the North, one of them signed by Casey himself. McEnery appeared on the scene from North Louisiana, and this fact, though not of much importance in itself, seemed to be an indication of the intention of the Conservatives to go to work thoroughly in the reorganization of the Government.

On Thursday, however, the Conservatives had come to the conclusion that it would involve a foolish waste of life to attempt any resistance; and a conference was held, followed by a proclamation by McEnery disbanding his militia, and a "circular" was at once issued by General Emory, appointing Brig.-Gen. Brooke military commander of the city, and ordering him to take possession of the State buildings. By this same circular, however, the McEnery police were retained on duty, and made responsible for the good order of the city. The Metropolitan police (Kellogg's) have since been reinstated, and Kellogg is now in full possession. Vigorous efforts are making to effect a compromise between the two parties with regard to the approaching election. The Conservatives demand a fair registration, and they maintain with great plausibility that there is no chance of one if the present officials are retained in power. The State Returning Board is composed of five men, who are all Kellogg partisans, and the Conservatives propose that of these five three shall retire, and two Conservatives, with a Republican approved by Conservatives, shall be appointed to the vacancies. This the Kellog party have declined to agree to; and it remains to be seen what course the negotiations will take. The city now seems to be in good order, and the only quarter from which danger is apprehended appears to be Kellogg's police, a fierce and warlike body, mainly composed of negroes, who are determined, now that they are protected by United States troops, to prevent a war of races at all hazards. The *Tribune* has been making some enquiries among the arms-dealers and manufacturers in this city, and has discovered the singular fact, that notwithstanding the arming of the negroes and whites all over the South, and the active preparations for a bloody war, there are no more arms sold to the South than usual at this time of year. We believe this is almost unexampled in the history of modern warfare.

The Democratic Convention of this State, which met at Syracuse last week, nominated Mr. Samuel J. Tilden for the governorship, and Mr. William Dorsheimer for the lieutenant-governorship. The nomination of Mr. Tilden was in effect a victory of the Respectables over the Roughs, who may be said to constitute the two great divisions of every Democratic convention in this State nowadays. In the old days of Tweed, the Respectables were apt to get the worst of it, but although that statesman is said to have reached forth his arm this year from his retirement on Blackwell's Island to defeat the man who did so much to bring him to his doom, his efforts were unavailing. There was strong opposition to Mr. Tilden from the western part of the State also, owing to the rural jealousy of city managers, but he has been so prominently identified with the reform movement that his opponents were afraid to face the construction which would have been generally put on his rejection. Mr. Tilden is too well known to make it necessary to say anything about him. Should General Dix be put up, as we hope he may, by the Republicans, voters will have in the matter of governors something like an *embarras de richesses*. It is a long time since two men of equal distinction and capacity were offered for their choice. But then General Dix has far the advantage in services, and has given proofs of far higher civil judgment. He was right about the war, about which Mr. Tilden blundered tremendously, and is a much less skilful and astute politician, which in these times is saying a good deal both for him and against Mr. Tilden. Mr. Dorsheimer is a lawyer from Buffalo of considerable literary attainments and high character, who, under the influence of a most unfortunate hallucination, left a district-attorneyship under Grant in order to throw himself into "the Greeley movement." The death of Mr. Greeley removes the only bar we know of to Mr. Dorsheimer's claims on popular confidence. It is a singular, and many would say a hopeful, circumstance that both Democratic candidates are members of the Century Club in this city, something which has never occurred before.

The Democratic platform is a very remarkable document, and shows that light is at last creeping in on the Committee on Resolutions. Entirely absent is the vibratory buncombe which has since the war been so common in these instruments, and by which there is a good word said for each of the two opposing sides of every question on which the party has not committed itself—*e.g.*, while "firmly upholding the just rights of capital, we shall seek by wise legislation to satisfy the reasonable expectations of labor; and, while vigorously maintaining the claims of the railroad corporations to charge what they please, faithfully uphold the right of the producer to have his goods carried for next to nothing." The platform consists, in fact, of a string of short, clear, compact definitions of the position of the party on the leading questions of the day, without the least equivocation. It calls for gold and silver legal-tender, and resumption of specie payments; payment of the public debt in coin; taxation for revenue only; local self-government; equal and exact justice for all men; denounces "the gag-law" and the "sumptuary laws," meaning, we suppose, prohibition; the private use of public funds by public officers; calls for State supervision of corporations; and denounces the third term. The ticket and platform are formally commended to the support of the Liberal Republicans, who are conciliated by the nomination of Mr. Dorsheimer.

Mr. Tilden made a speech in acknowledgment of a serenade after the nomination, in which he drew a picture of the condition of the Republic which would have done credit to the prophet Jeremiah, but which contained many things worth pondering—this, for instance, speaking of the prevailing tendency to centralization:

"We have a country eighteen times as large as France, with a population of 43,000,000, doubling every thirty years, and full of ac-

tivities and interests. A centralized government, meddling with everything and attempting to manage everything, could not know the wants or wishes of the people of the different localities, and would be felt only in its blunders and its wrongs. It would be the most irresponsible, and therefore not only the most oppressive, but the most corrupt, with which any people have been cursed. To-day the advances which we have made toward this system are maturing their fatal fruits. The Federal Administration is tainted with abuses, with jobbery, and with corruption."

His picture of what the Democratic party had to do, however, in order to become worthy of its high mission, is calculated to reduce all but the most sanguine to despair. "It must remove," he says, "every taint which has touched it in evil times. It must become a compact and homogeneous mass. It must gather to its alliance all who think the same things concerning the interests of our Republic." We hope it may; but when one reads the platform of some of the Western conventions, one feels rather blue about the prospect.

When Mayor Havemeyer was arraigned before the Governor by a movement led on by Mr. John Kelly, the leader of Tammany, his mighty heart was filled with thoughts of vengeance, which he has cherished through the long weeks in which he has waited for the Governor's decision, giving, however, frequent hints to the reporters that he was getting a "bombshell" ready which he would explode in due time on Kelly's head, and which would leave nothing visible of that statesman beyond a few shreds of clothing. The severe "wigging" the old gentleman received from General Dix seems only to have rendered his ire deeper, and he has accordingly exploded his shell, which has certainly covered Kelly with earth and stones, from which he promises, however, to extricate himself by degrees. The Mayor's charges are very serious; and, as in the case of the other Ring frauds, of which these, if true, form a part, they come to light through a quarrel with an old confederate, Mr. Nelson J. Waterbury, sometime District-Attorney. It appears, the Mayor says, that when Mr. Kelly was sheriff of the city and county he defrauded the city of $34,259, by charging his legal fee on three or four times as many prisoners as were really convicted; that he defrauded it of $9,945 by charging double the legal fee for the conveyance of prisoners to Blackwell's Island, by charging for prisoners whom he never conveyed, and afterwards, raising his charge still higher, made a further fraudulent gain of $4,586; that he defrauded it of $19,382, by exacting his legal fee for summoning 64,607 jurors more than were required or used, and that he afterwards made further amounts, by raising his fee, and exacting it in like manner when not legally earned; that he cheated the city out of $990 by overcharges for hanging several convicts, exacting in one case $25 for having a person shaved previous to execution. He was, it is alleged, enabled to secure payment of these bills by the connivance of the late comptroller, Connolly. The Mayor is highly pleased with these charges, and has been chuckling over them for several days. Kelly's answer is said to be that the Mayor has omitted the returns from the principal courts, which if true will place the old gentleman in an awkward position.

The Hon. Charles S. Spencer, Col. Joel W. Mason, George Starr, Mr. Disbecker, Justice Flammer, Mr. Van Nort, and Sheridan Shook, have all declared themselves of the opinion within the past week that Governor Dix is certain to be renominated by the Republicans at Utica, and, though the value of the opinion of some of these worthies might under some circumstances be doubted, there can be no question that in this they are right. The renomination of Dix is decided upon, much to the disgust of the Custom-house set, who would, it is thought in some quarters, prefer a ticket headed by Mr. A. B. Cornell, and it is said that they have a plan of putting Mr. Cornell on the ticket as lieutenant-governor, hoping to be able afterwards to send Dix to the Senate in place of Fenton, and thus put Cornell in the governor's chair after all. This story, however, comes from a Liberal-Republican source, and as it concerns gentlemen who understand very thoroughly the value of language as a means of concealing no less than expressing human thoughts, it may be doubted or believed as the reader pleases. For ourselves, we are inclined to hope and to believe it is true, for as it is understood that there are politicians who are not wholly disinclined to consider even now the question of the next Presidential candidate, and as General Dix has been for some time talked about for the office, there may be a connection between the two plans. There is no doubt that the senatorship is quite as important a piece in the game just now as the governorship, and the reported negotiations between Fenton and the Custom-house do not seem as yet to have come to anything. On the other hand, there seems as we go to press more probability of the renomination of all, or a greater part, of the State Ticket, and the confusion and rout of the Custom-house party. The retention of the present Lieutenant-Governor is supposed to be demanded by the "military element," while the "temperance element" is desperately hostile to Dix. These we take to be figures of speech, however.

The five per cent. redemption system introduced by the last Congress seems to have broken down almost as badly as the silver resumption begun by Mr. Richardson. The difficulty seems to be want of time and an excessive number of banks. If there was only one bank in the country, and that was situated within three or four miles of the Treasury Department, the system would work perfectly, for the cashier might easily leave the five per cent. required by the law at the Treasury on his way to business in the morning, and in the afternoon, on returning to his home, might present a few bills to be redeemed. But owing to the reckless manner in which banks have been scattered about the country, one here and another there, and the time required by the common carriers for the delivery of parcels of bills, it now takes a fortnight or more for any one to get a bill to the amount of five dollars redeemed, and, owing to the fact that when redeemed on the five per cent. plan they are after all still only redeemed in paper, no great popular enthusiasm has been developed on the subject. The Treasury has just suspended redemption for a fortnight, but no doubt will begin again as soon as the express companies can be heard from. One peculiarity of the five per cent. plan as distinguished from most economical schemes is, that owing to the small amount of greenbacks retained as a redemption fund, its success can only be secured by everybody's refraining carefully from making use of it.

Tilton has published a second "statement" of enormous length which it is useless to comment on, for the reason we gave last week with regard to Moulton's, namely, the near approach of the legal trial, which, though it may not result in a verdict, will subject the parties to rigid examination and cross-examination. Mr. Beecher has retained Mr. William M. Evarts for his defence, and it is not unlikely Butler will appear on the other side. He has now himself a strong personal interest in the result, as he is, it appears, with his friend B. G. Jayne, the ex-Custom-house detective, part owner of the *Graphic*, the illustrated evening paper to which Moulton and Tilton gave the first publication of their "statements." This paper, as well as Moulton, has been sued for libel by Miss Edna Dean Proctor, about whom Moulton recently produced a most disgusting story.

The trial of the Tilton suit will have the dimensions of a *cause célèbre* of the most tragic kind, as the defendant at least will be fighting, if not for his life, for all that makes life worth having; and as the parties on both sides are exasperated to the last degree, the utmost ferocity will doubtless be displayed. Moreover, it is a church, newspaper, and suffrage fight all in one. Plymouth Church has its existence as an organization at stake; the *Christian Union* too is most deeply interested in it, pecuniarily as well as otherwise; and under the dispute over Mr. Beecher's morality there lies concealed a deadly feud between the New York and Boston women suffragists. Indeed, nearly all the parties in the

controversy are "suffrage workers." In 1870, when the seeds of the *teterrimum bellum* were sown, Beecher was the President of the Boston Suffrage Association, Tilton of the New York one. The Bostonians were proud and scornful, and refused all alliance with the New Yorkers, whom they suspected, and not without cause, of free-love leanings. Tilton tried in vain to bring about a coalition by sending "greetings" to Beecher, and a conference between the two bodies was held in this city in that year, to discuss the question of union, at which, comically enough, Moulton, the Mutual Friend, figured as the alternate of Mrs. Lucretia Mott. All was in vain, however, and they separated breathing mutual defiance, which was aggravated by the increasing prominence of Woodhull in the New York councils. The *Woman's Journal*, in Boston, accordingly stands up valiantly for Mrs. Tilton and Beecher, while the New Yorkers, led by Mrs. Cady Stanton and Susan B. Anthony, though they have since the death of the *Revolution* no organ, are doing yeoman service on the Tilton side by means of letters and "interviews," and will probably appear as witnesses on the trial, and while striking deadly blows at the chastity of the foe fully vindicate their own. The case suggests some curious reflections as to the probable results of a falling out among female politicians during an exciting canvass.

The Irish Protestant Episcopal Church is already, three years after the Disestablishment, face to face with the main difficulty of the voluntary system. Hardly any young ministers are coming forward to take curacies. The rectors have doubled the salaries they offer, but in vain. The divinity students turned out by Trinity College nearly all go to England, where their professional chances and their pay are likely to be much better. The result is terrible wrath against Mr. Gladstone among the senior clergy, who see impending the destruction of the church when, on the death of the present holders of livings, the endowments are withdrawn. The *Spectator* discusses the subject in a very despondent tone, in an article which anticipates the total failure of a supply of educated clergy for an organization which will, under the voluntary system, be able to pay so poorly as the Irish Episcopal Church. It says the resource of an ignorant peasant priesthood, such as the Catholic Church uses in France and Ireland, will not avail, because the Irish Episcopalians who belong to the upper and middle classes will not tolerate an illiterate minister, so that unless bands of men of fortune, willing to do the work for nothing, present themselves, it is difficult to see what is to prevent the extinction of Protestant worship in many parts of Ireland. Indeed, in some places the number of worshippers is so scanty that it must be extinguished under the voluntary system, unless pecuniary help comes from the outside. The *Spectator* suggests the adoption by the church of the Scotch system of licensing no minister who has not had a long university training—that is, four years in the academical department and four years in the divinity school, provided Trinity College will furnish, as it ought, such an education at a cheap rate; but it is difficult to see what should induce any man who cares in the least for money or distinction to pass eight years in a course of preparation for a career which presents so little attraction as the Irish Church apparently does now, no matter how cheaply it was offered him. The difficulty is one which, as everybody knows, is already felt very seriously in the United States. The lack of candidates for the ministry in all the denominations in which any high degree of culture is called for is a growing complaint, which the premiums offered in the shape of cheap education by the theological seminaries do not meet. Men were ready to encounter the privations of a country minister's career when the smallness of the salary was made up for by social and political consideration, and the weight which came from being a member of the only learned class; but they are not willing to face both poverty and lack of influence.

The seeds of trouble between France and Germany have, it is now acknowledged, been sown by the Carlist war, and the French Government is going through a process of discipline to which it has been a stranger since 1819, when the Allies evacuated France. There is no doubt that the Carlists draw their supplies across the French frontier, and as this frontier is on the Spanish side wholly in Carlist hands, and is a wild country, peopled by smugglers, it would require, with the best will in the world, almost superhuman vigilance to stop the traffic, and there is no proof that Marshal MacMahon has not done his duty in the matter. But Germany, which is naturally hostile to the Carlists as the priest-party in Spanish politics, has been still further incensed by the murder of Captain Schmidt, an ex-officer of the Prussian army, who was acting as a newspaper correspondent in the Carlist lines, and was brutally and unjustifiably shot as a spy, and since the recognition of Serrano's Government, Bismarck is evidently disposed to show that he is not prepared to allow the civil war to last indefinitely. A German fleet has accordingly appeared in Spanish waters, and German agents have appeared in the South of France, charged with the duty of watching the Spanish frontier, or, in other words, of seeing whether the French officials do their duty—an impertinence which the French doubtless find it hard to bear, and which they, nevertheless, are in no condition to resent. One would have more sympathy with them if one did not remember that, ten years ago, they were inflicting the same hard, pitiless, and insolent patronage on Italy. In the meantime, the probabilities increase that the growing incapacity of the Madrid Government, combined with the apparent inability or unwillingness of the Carlists to attempt a decisive blow, will before long lead to the joint intervention of the great powers in the interest of humanity, if for no other reason. Both sides, especially the Carlists, are conducting the war with the usual Spanish cruelty, inefficiency in the field being atoned for by ferocity toward the prisoners. The Carlists the other day shot and bayonetted in cold blood eighty poor custom-house officers, who had been drafted into the army, and had been taken after a skirmish, most of them being married men with families. There is an opportunity in the hands of both the United States and Great Britain of teaching the Spaniards a lesson in civilization, in the *Virginius* case now pending, which we trust will not be finally allowed to slip.

The Italian Government is occupied with a problem of hardly less importance than its finances—the pacification of Sicily, in which society seems to be on the eve of dissolution, from causes described in a very interesting article in a recent number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by M. Louis Lande. The island contains no middle or commercial or agricultural class, and is owned in vast estates, and cultivated by laborers or metayers, who are huddled in wretched villages or in the cities, and have to go long distances every day to their work. The church is all-powerful, and the bulk of the population is in a secret league against the law, called *Mafia*, an association made up of brigands and thieves and receivers and their accomplices, who defy the police, overawe jurymen and witnesses, and in fact have brought the machinery of justice, as well as trade and industry, to a stand-still. A conviction in the courts before a jury has become impossible; proprietors cannot visit their farms except under a strong military escort; officials live in daily terror of assassination. The robbers have actually undermined the Government pawnshop, or Mont de Piété, at Palermo, and made vast vaults for the storage of their plunder, and they levy regular taxes in the shape of blackmail on shopkeepers and all peaceable citizens not belonging to the association. The disease is known in the local dialect as *malandrinaggio*, and is the equivalent in an aggravated form of the brigandage of Calabria and Greece. It is, of course, the result of ages of ignorance and bad government and priestcraft, and it cannot be cured in one year or ten. It has been terribly aggravated by an attempt to govern the island on constitutional principles, but it cannot be remedied by a dose of martial law, which is what the Italian ministry now propose to try.

THE LOUISIANA REVOLUTION.

WE have kept our readers informed from time to time of the leading features of the dispute in Louisiana, which finally culminated in the recent outbreak. The history of the State since the war has been very much like that of other Southern States, only sadder. As soon as the constitutional amendments were passed, it was taken possession of by the carpet-baggers and the negroes. The head carpet-bagger was an adventurer named Warmoth, who had served on Banks's staff, had modelled himself on that illustrious soldier, and speedily got himself elected governor. Under his rule and that of his associates, the taxes rose from 37½ cents on the dollar in 1866 to $2 in 1871, and the State debt from $14,500,000 in 1868 to nearly $49,000,000 in 1871. Before the war, a sixty-days session of the legislature cost from $100,000 to $200,000. In 1870, the regular and extra session of the legislature cost $750,000; and in 1871, the regular session alone cost *over* $900,000. In the expenditure of these sums, too, there were, we need hardly say, enormous frauds; and it must be remembered that the legislature which cost these great amounts and imposed these crushing taxes was composed not of civilized men, but of, in large part, ignorant negroes and of white rogues, without character or standing either in the community which they governed or in any other.

All this was bad enough; it was, perhaps, an unavoidable consequence of the sudden admission of a large body of recently emancipated slaves to the franchise, combined with the ill-advised but we think not wholly unnatural or inexcusable abstention of the native whites from participation in local politics at the outset of the Reconstruction process. But everybody will admit that as it was the Federal Government which was subjecting the Southern communities to the perils and sufferings of this tremendous experiment—the like of which has never been seen in the history of the world—the Administration was bound in decency (to take the very lowest view of the matter) to see to it that the Federal officials at the South during this great trial were men who would fairly represent the intelligence, integrity, and public spirit of the conquering North, who would preserve a strict neutrality between the contending local factions, and who would use their influence to prevent excesses, to promote harmony, to repress corruption and to initiate the negroes into the ways of honest and orderly government. The Administration, however, did not take this view of the matter. On the contrary, it took sides with one of the local factions, and sent down officers to represent it who shared fully in all the prevailing vice and turbulence. To New Orleans the President sent as collector of the port—or, in other words, the most powerful local politician—his own brother-in-law, an adventurer of the Warmoth type, named Casey, who was at first in alliance with Warmoth, but afterwards quarrelled with him, and in a fight which they had over the organization of their legislature actually used the United States revenue-cutter to carry off, and keep out of reach of the sergeant-at-arms for ten or twelve days, a sufficient number of members to prevent the Warmoth party getting a quorum. For this, Casey was not removed or even reprimanded, and he was seconded in his operations by a person of like character and antecedents, named Packard, the United States marshal. So far was the President from repenting him of this mode of using the offices in his gift, and so little troubled was he by what was going on in Louisiana, that in March, 1872, he reinforced Casey by appointing one Parker—a carpet-bagger from Lowell, Mass., a brother-in-law of B. F. Butler and uncle of the famous George H. Butler of Alexandria—surveyor of the port.

When there were to be a new governor and legislature elected in 1872, there occurred, as might have been expected, a real South-American scramble for the offices, Casey and the Custom-house siding with the more disreputable of the two factions—that headed by Kellogg, the present governor. The latter, finding that, although he had the Canvassing Board on his side, he had no returns to submit to it, went before the Federal judge, Durell, in a case trumped up under the Enforcement Act, and obtained from this worthy—who has during the past year had impeachment hanging over his head for this offence and for drunkenness—an order, "made," to quote Senator Carpenter's language in the Senate, "out of court, without due form of process, not sealed by the court, and not signed officially, and not directed in the name of the President, as it ought to have been." Upon this process the Judiciary Committee of the Senate expressed itself in these terms:

"Viewed in any light in which your committee can consider them, the order and injunction made and granted by Judge Durell in this case are most reprehensible, erroneous in point of law, and are *wholly void for want of jurisdiction*, and your committee must express their sorrow and humiliation that a judge of the United States should have proceeded in such flagrant disregard of his duty, and have so far outstepped the limits of Federal jurisdiction."

Nevertheless, under this order so granted, the United States marshal went with United States soldiers, seized the State House, and admitted and installed as members of the legislature such persons as Kellogg and Casey chose to designate. When the news of this performance reached Washington, the government thus set up was *promptly recognized by telegraph;* and this is the government under which the State lies to-day, and whose legislation and administration have been in all respects worthy of its origin. The corruption has continued and grown deeper, the contempt for public opinion more open, and the law-making more reckless. The decent people of the State made a strong appeal to Congress and to the Northern public, setting forth the facts. The Senate Committee examined the matter, and the majority found that there was no legal State government in Louisiana; five out of seven members found that, if there was a legal legislature, it was the McEnery legislature. Nevertheless, Congress took no action on the subject. Nor did the Northern public trouble itself about it. A few papers, the *Nation* amongst the number, said what they could of the atrocity and danger of the whole transaction, but it made little or no impression. The great body of the Republican press, in reply to it, crowed and cackled over the "new civil-service rules"; the Republican Convention renominated Grant by acclamation, and he was re-elected. When Casey's term expired, he was reappointed with the utmost brass, and confirmed by the Senate with the utmost coolness. Recalling these things, one does not wonder that two years later "Boss" Shepherd was also renominated.

These things might certainly not unreasonably have reduced the people of Louisiana to despair; but they did not despair. They went on with their business, making the best of the circumstances, and reiterating, through the press, their appeals to the Northern public, and probably hoping to turn the Kellogg government out at the expiration of its term by a lawful vote. That hope, if it existed, has been destroyed by the passage by the Kellogg legislature of a registry law placing the registry of voters throughout the State in the hands of the governor's appointees, whose decision is final, the courts even being prohibited from interference by mandamus or injunction. This law, faithfully carried out, may of course make the present régime perpetual. Upon its enactment, citizens of New Orleans appear to have begun to organize for resistance and to have imported arms from the North. The arms were seized in the gunsmiths' shops by Kellogg's police. This led to an indignation meeting, called by a large body of respectable New Orleans merchants, and the indignation meeting to an armed attack upon the existing government, which at once disappeared.

We must say frankly that we know of no case of armed resistance to an established government in modern times in which the insurgents had more plainly the right on their side. We know of no mark of justifiability in a revolutionary movement, except one, which this Louisiana movement did not possess. The existing government had its origin in fraud and violence; the question of its validity had been passed on by a competent and impartial tribunal, and decided in the negative. The evils it inflicted on the community were, if indefinitely protracted, intolerable; and that they would be indefinitely protracted there was fair reason for believing. Appeals for redress from the outside had elicited neither sympathy nor

response. Had the same state of facts arisen in London, or Paris, or New York, or Boston, there is no candid and impartial person, no lover of order and progress, at the North who would make use of any argument against a resort to force except the improbability of success. Unfortunately for the Louisiana people, they cannot succeed. Their situation is absolutely without precedent. They are not in the clutches of a tyrant who, while he oppresses with a strong hand, preserves order and equality and security. They are the victims of a band of wretched thieves, who could not themselves hold the government for a single hour, who can fulfil no duty of government, but who are kept in their places by overwhelming force from without. We can recall no parallel to the situation except the support given by the Austrians to the petty princes of Italy before 1859; but it is an insult to the Grand-Duke of Tuscany, or Parma and Modena, or even King Bomba, to compare him to Kellogg; and we are bound to say that we do not believe that in seventy years of odious tyranny and interference in Italy, the Austrian troops ever marched on so bad and despicable an errand as that on which the army and navy of the United States were set in motion last week.

We know very well all that can be said and will be said in palliation or defence of the part played by the United States in this miserable affair. We know that the President is not wholly to blame, because Congress might last winter have taken the matter out of his hands; and, under existing circumstances, after his course in recognizing Kellogg in the beginning, there was but one course for him to pursue. We know all that can be said about the bad conduct of the Southerners in the old slavery days. But we know also that, if it is deliberately determined to divide the States into two classes, leaving one in quasi-dependence on the arbitrary will of the executive, and liable to processes which would not be tolerated in the other class, the belief that free government will last very long on this continent is a chimera. In striking down the people of Louisiana for what they did last week, we help to extirpate the feelings and opinions and powers which have made this nation what it is, and which raise it above Mexico, and which give it all its promise for the future. No conduct on the part of any people, however bad, can forfeit their right to good government. That is the one really "inalienable right." No man or body of men on earth, however high or mighty or respectable, is entitled to inflict bad government on any community or any worse government than circumstances will permit. No acts of the South, and especially no acts committed before the war, can discharge the victor in the late rebellion from the duty of promoting the peace and prosperity of that portion of the Union by every means in its power. The doctrine that we can wash our hands of its troubles because the Charleston mob behaved badly to Mr. Hoar, or because the lives and property of Northern men were not then safe in many Southern districts or are not safe now, is a doctrine which no civilized man can hold or preach. The worse the state of morals or manners down there, the more careful and conscientious we should be in our treatment of the case. Our business is to govern the South as it is—that is, as negro slavery and civil war have left it, and not the South as it would be if there never had been any slavery in it or any rebellion; and as if the Pilgrim Fathers had landed on Sullivan's Island instead of Plymouth Rock.

The question, What should the North do? was asked last winter in Congress, and a committee was appointed to try and find out, but was discharged without any action on its report. This was a result which might naturally have been expected from a body which for some years back has never seen its way to any course on any subject whatever, except under powerful pressure from public opinion. On this matter of the condition of the South, there has however been no pressure from public opinion. People at the North, exasperated by the war, by the recalcitrancy of the whites in the matter of Reconstruction, and by the Ku-klux outrages, have not been in the mood to approach the Southern problem even from the selfish side, and consider seriously the probable effects on our polity of the protracted subjection of nearly half the Union to a régime not greatly superior to that of the Niam-Niam monarchy Moreover, the love of transcendental politics, the indisposition to treat the work of government as essentially experimental, and the inclination to put universal suffrage side by side with the Gospel and treat it as a specific for all social and political diseases, have been too deep-seated to permit of any open-minded consideration of the difficulty. We do not propose to go very far into the subject to-day. We shall confine ourselves to mentioning one thing that Northern voters can insist on, which violates no political tradition, which involves no concessions or pledges, no expense or trouble, and which religion and humanity and the general safety imperatively call for, and which a roused and indignant public opinion can bring about, viz., the absolute and immediate withdrawal of Federal countenance and support from the knaves who now have the upper hand in Southern politics, and the filling of Federal offices at the South with a new and better class of men, who will serve as missionaries rather than panders and conspirators. The success of the thieves in South Carolina and Louisiana as well as elsewhere, and their hold on the ignorant masses whom we have enfranchised, are mainly due to the fact that our marshals, and collectors, and surveyors, and postmasters are their confederates, and keep them assured of the support of the authorities at Washington in case the worst comes to the worst. This ought to come to an end; but it will not come to an end unless the public takes the matter in hand. There is enough stolid and selfish insensibility at the White House, and enough lazy indifference in Congress, to stand a dozen such broils as this in Louisiana with perfect equanimity. The President is probably glad he has not had to kill people or bombard an American city in order to reinstate Kellogg, but he is probably not sorry that he put him in power in the beginning, and does not care how long he stays in it.

THE RIGHT TO CONFISCATE.

THE Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin has published an abstract of the recent railroad decision of his court which makes the grounds of it perfectly intelligible. The argument, which is very simple and logical, is this: The Constitution of the United States contains a clause forbidding the States from passing laws "impairing the obligation of contracts," and ever since the decision of the Supreme Court in the Dartmouth College case it has been considered settled law in this country that the charter of a college or railroad or any other similar corporation is a "contract" within the meaning of this clause. It follows from this, as equally well-settled law, that a State legislature, having once made a contract with a corporation by giving it a charter, must afterwards leave the contract or charter alone. There is, however, one exception—where the State itself has reserved the right to alter or repeal the charter. In that case, the contract has been made subject to the right of one of the parties to alter or cancel it. This is the case in Wisconsin. In the State constitution, for the purpose of taking the railroads in that State out of the rule established by the Supreme Court in the Dartmouth College case, a clause was inserted giving the legislature the power to "alter or repeal" corporate charters, and the Potter law, as it is called, was passed under the power supposed to be granted by this clause. The law is no doubt an alteration of the charter, for it takes away from the roads affected by it all control over their tariffs, and vests in the State itself the right to determine the amount of the transportation charges. The railroads have opposed the law principally upon the ground that the new rates make it impossible for them to carry on their business at a profit. This is disputed by the supporters of the law; but it will easily be perceived that whether or not it be a fact is a matter of complete indifference from our present point of view. The Constitution gives the right to "alter" the charters in any way; the power is absolute and uncontrolled; and the people who invested money in the roads, either by stock subscriptions or purchase of bonds, did so, or ought to have done so—and if they did not it was no fault of the State's—with a full knowledge that the

State had a complete power to make their property worthless at any time.

This is the argument of those who support the law, and we may notice here one practical consequence from it which seems to have escaped the attention of the railroad people themselves. They are reported to have declared, since the decision was announced, that they intend to conform to the law, but to have added that they should be unable any longer to furnish the public with the same sort of transportation that they have furnished heretofore. If they are only to be allowed to charge Potter rates, they must give the public Potter cars, Potter rails, and Potter time. They will be obliged to take off some of their best cars, use more of their worst cars, make slower speed, and spend less in keeping the road-bed in good condition. But if the argument we are now considering be sound, the Milwaukee and Northwestern roads had better be very careful how they make these changes. The people are watching them, and the people know that the power to alter a charter does not give merely the power to fix rates: it gives power to do anything; and under it the roads can be made not only to lower their rates, but to improve their cars, speed, and roadway at the same time. All that would have to be done would be to pass a new law to that effect next winter, and the roads would have to conform to it just as they now have to conform to the Potter law as to the rates. The argument adopted by the supporters of the law is conclusive upon this point. The very perfection and logical coherence of it make it all the more impossible to escape from this conclusion. Last winter, the Grangers came to the conclusion that what they wanted was reduction of the rates; next winter, their fancy may take another turn, and they may think that each passenger ought to have a car for himself, with meals along the route furnished gratis by the company. On the principle maintained by the supporters of the Potter law, the legislature has a perfect right to force the roads to do this.

The whole matter will very shortly come before the Supreme Court of the United States, and it is, as we believe, of the last importance that it should be there determined not only correctly, but in such a way as to inspire public confidence in the decision. The Court, for the first time almost in its history, is out of politics. The judges are not Democrats or Republicans, nor are they politically divided as the country once was on the question of internal improvements. Since the lamentable fiasco of the legal-tender decision, the Court has shown a marked tendency to conservatism and self-respect. In construing the new amendments to the Constitution, it has shown a very laudable determination to cling to old and well-settled maxims of interpretation. The country will look with deep interest to its decision in this case; and, in view of the approaching argument, it may be worth while to point to one or two considerations which are of great importance, and do not yet seem to have attracted much attention.

In the first place, the Supreme Court of Wisconsin and the supporters of the Granger legislation generally indulge in a good deal of loose talk about a distinction of some kind between the corporate property of the railroad other than the franchise, and the franchise. In Chief-Justice Ryan's abstract, after saying that the State is under a "moral obligation" not to reduce tolls beyond a fair and reasonable amount (though where this moral obligation comes from, when the State has given notice to all the world that it has reserved the right to do anything it pleases with the tolls, we do not know), he says their "power over the franchise is absolute. But the power to alter or repeal cannot affect the property of corporations other than the franchise. Such right of property is inviolable." The Supreme Court of Wisconsin has always had a very respectable reputation, and we have therefore endeavored with humility and patience to make out what this means. We confess ourselves unable to do so. Most railroads are built nowadays "on bonds," *i.e.*, with borrowed money. It is maintained among some of the Western moralists who have considered the subject that this is a wicked way to build railroads; but no other way has been suggested by them as a substitute. When a road is built on bonds, one thing is pretty evident, that anything which affects the right to collect tolls affects the value of the bonds; and it is a notorious fact that the securities of the Granger railroads, as they are called, have been unfavorably affected by the recent legislation. But though the franchise—that is, the right to take tolls—may be taken away altogether or altered in any way that seems best to the legislature of Wisconsin, and in this way the bonded debt be practically wiped out, there is still, according to this Court, some right of property which is "inviolable." What is it? We sincerely trust that at Washington this matter will not be left undetermined. The franchise is not inviolable, because it may be repealed to-morrow; the bonds are not inviolable, because anything that touches the franchise touches them, so that we are left very much in the dark as to what these inviolable rights are. It might be well for the Supreme Court at Washington to consider the case in this light: If a State reserves a right to repeal or alter a charter, have bondholders in such a State any rights at all, and if so, what are they? As we understand this decision, they have no rights which the State is bound to respect or which the United States is bound to enforce; and we take this opportunity of saying, that until this decision is reversed, anybody who puts his money into Wisconsin railroad bonds does so at his peril. The right of confiscation is what this decision is based upon—a right which, like that of altering or amending railroad charters, is an "attribute of sovereignty." Lawyers and judges are justly averse, in the consideration of legal questions, to look too closely at practical consequences, for the excellent reason that, whatever conclusion is reached, some bad practical consequences are certain to follow, and that the only sure guide is legal principles. This rule, however, does not apply to legal consequences, and it is legal consequences we are here considering. What we say is this—the right to alter or annul a charter gives, according to the Wisconsin Supreme Court, the right to fix rates; but the right to fix rates involves the right to impair or destroy the value of property which depends for its very existence on the rates—*i.e.*, mortgage bonds. Therefore we have quite as much right to begin at the other end, and enquire not what the State may do with the franchise, but what the bondholders can do without the franchise. According to Chief-Justice Ryan, they, or some one, has certain "inviolable rights." What are they?

Again, no lawyer will contend that the State of Wisconsin can have any more power over chartered or other kinds of contracts, through reserving a right to "alter or repeal," than it would have were there no provision in the United States Constitution on the subject. Wipe out the whole United States Constitution, and make the legislature of Wisconsin sovereign in fact as well as name, and the naked question would then appear, whether a State legislature can confiscate railroad property by fixing rates. The Wisconsin constitution, as well as the constitutions of most other States, contains what is commonly known as a bill of rights, and one of the clauses in this bill (which is not an invention or device of constitution-makers, but one of the dearly-bought immunities which were wrung long ago from the tyranny of government) forbids the taking of private property for public use without compensation. We cannot here go into an examination of the numerous cases which have been decided in this country as to what constitutes a "taking" within the meaning of this clause; but the Supreme Court at Washington has not very long ago laid it down (in the case of Pumpelly *v.* Green Bay, 13 Wallace, 166) that the property need not be absolutely *taken* in the narrow sense of the word, but any serious interruption to the common and necessary use of it will be considered equivalent to a taking. Now, if any one can discover any more effectual way of seriously interrupting the common and necessary use of a railroad franchise than by altering the rates of transportation, we should like to know what it is. The value of the property consists entirely in the right to take tolls, and yet the State, after giving this right and allowing money to be borrowed on the faith of it, and on the faith of it alone, maintains that it can do what it pleases on the subject.

Again, what is the right of taking tolls? According to the supporters of the Granger legislation, it is nothing more nor less than a

kind of taxation. The railroads are, for certain public purposes, authorized to collect and appropriate from the farmers a certain charge, which is collected by a specific assessment on the property transported. Supposing this to be a true view of the matter, it must not be forgotten that something more has been done. The road has mortgaged this grant to the bondholders, and if the farming out of the tax is interfered with, it is the bondholders who suffer. If, now, the State, under its sovereign right to collect taxes, can fix the amount of this charge at any figure it pleases, and let the money, which would otherwise go to the bondholders, go to the farmers, what is this but taxing A for the benefit of B? There is nothing more sovereign than the power of taxation, yet there is nothing so well settled as that a State cannot, under it, take A's property and give it to B. There are no constitutional provisions on the subject in any of the States, so far as we are aware, because it has never been considered necessary until recently to provide in constitutions against the actual practice of highway robbery by the chosen representatives of the people.

And this brings us to the consideration of the point on which rests the whole case. No lawyer will deny that when the legislature reserves a right to alter or amend a charter, the State has some reserved rights. But it is not necessary for us, and it is not at all necessary for the Supreme Court, to enumerate or codify these rights. The opponents of this Western legislation maintain that whatever the reserved rights may be, the right to pass laws completely taking away the main corporate franchise, without compensation, is not among them. The power over charters, like the power over taxation or the police power, must be exercised in a rational way. The right to "alter or amend" this kind of contract must be looked at not only in the light of the literal meaning of the words, but in the light of all the circumstances of the case—including the fact that the State has allowed important rights to be created under the charter which by every principle of public law are inviolable. The whole argument in favor of the Potter law is a logic-chopping argument. The conclusion flows from the premises as naturally and necessarily as if it were all in *darii* or *babara*. If law were formal logic, it would be perfect. But the way to decide the case is not this; we must take the whole constitution of Wisconsin, and the whole Constitution of the United States, and then ask ourselves what is this Potter law—whether it is or is not confiscation? If it is, is confiscation legal? If it is illegal, then the Supreme Court of the United States will say to the State of Wisconsin: "Your law is illegal; we have wiped it from your statute-book. You have a right to alter or amend charters, but they must be altered in a reasonable and moral way. You cannot use this right as a cover for robbery, and your so-called law is void."

CHROMO-CIVILIZATION.

THE last "statement," it is reasonable to hope, has been made in the Beecher-Tilton case previous to the trial at law, and it is safe to say that it has left the public mind in as unsettled a state as ever. People do not know what to believe, but they do not want to hear any more newspaper discussion by the principal actors. We are not going to attempt any analysis or summing-up of the case at present. It will be time enough to do that after the *dramatis personæ* have undergone an examination in court, but we would again warn our readers against looking for any decisive result from the legal trial. The expectations on this point which some of the newspapers and a good many lawyers are encouraging are in the highest degree extravagant. The truth is that only a very small portion of the stuff contained in the various "statements" can, under the rules of evidence, be laid before the jury—not, we venture to assert, more than would fill half a newspaper column in all. What *will* be laid before the jury is, in the main, "questions of veracity" between three or four persons whose credit is already greatly shaken, or, in other words, the very kind of questions on which juries are most likely to disagree, even when the jurymen are entirely unprejudiced. In the present case they are sure to be prejudiced, and are sure to be governed, consciously or unconsciously, in reaching their conclusions, by agencies wholly foreign to the matter in hand, and are thus very likely to disagree. There are very few men whose opinions about Mr. Beecher's guilt or innocence are not influenced by their own religious and political beliefs, or by their social antecedents or surroundings. A curious and somewhat instructive illustration of the way in which a man's fate in such cases as this may be affected by considerations having no sort of relation to the facts, is afforded by the attitude of the Western press towards the chief actors in the present Scandal. It may be said, roughly, that while the press east of the Alleghanies has inclined in Beecher's favor, the newspapers west of them have gone somewhat savagely and persistently against him, and have treated Tilton as a martyr. The cause of such a divergence of views, considering that both Tilton and Beecher are Eastern men, is of course somewhat obscure, but we have no doubt that it is due to a vague feeling prevalent in the West that Tilton's cause is the democratic one—that is, the cause of the poor, friendless man against the rich and successful one—a feeling somewhat like that which in England enlisted the working-classes in London on the side of the Tichborne Claimant, in defiance of all reason and evidence, as a poor devil fighting a hard battle with the high and mighty. One of the reporters of a Western paper which has made important contributions to the literature of the Scandal, recently accounted for his support of Tilton by declaring that in standing by him he was "fighting the battle of the Bohemians against Capital." Another Western paper, in analyzing the causes of the position taken by the leading New York papers on Beecher's side, ascribed it to the social relations of the editors with him—believing that they met him frequently at dinners and breakfasts, and found him a jovial companion. All this would be laughable enough if it did not show the amount of covert peril—peril against which no precautions can be taken—to which every prominent man's character is exposed. The moment he gets into a scrape of any kind he finds a host of persons, whose enmity he never suspected, clamoring to have him thrown to the beasts "on general grounds"—that is, in virtue of certain tests adopted by themselves, judged by which, apart from the facts of any particular accusation, a man of his kind is unquestionably a bad fellow. The accusation, in short, furnishes the occasion for destroying him, not necessarily the reason for it.

In Europe there are already abundant signs that the Scandal will be considered a symptomatic phenomenon—that is, a phenomenon illustrative of the moral condition of American society generally; for it must not be overlooked that, putting aside altogether the question of Beecher's guilt or innocence, the "statements" furnish sociological revelations of a most singular and instructive kind. The witnesses, in telling their story, although their minds are wholly occupied with the proof or disproof of certain propositions, describe ways of living, standards of right and wrong, traits of manners, codes of propriety, religious and social ideas, which, taken together, form social pictures of great interest and value. Now, if these were really pictures of American society in general, as some European observers are disposed to conclude, we do not hesitate to say that the prospects of the Anglo-Saxon race on this continent would be somewhat gloomy. But we believe we only express the sentiment of all parts of the country when we say that the state of things in Brooklyn revealed by the charges and countercharges has filled the best part of the American people with nearly as much amazement as if an unknown tribe worshipping strange gods had been suddenly discovered on Brooklyn Heights. In fact, the Actors in the Scandal have the air of persons who are living, not *more majorum*, by rules with which they are familiar, but like half-civilized people who have got hold of a code which they do not understand, and the phrases of which they use without being able to adapt their conduct to it.

We have not space at our command to illustrate this as fully as we could wish, even if the patience of our readers would permit of it, but we can perhaps illustrate sufficiently within a very short compass. We have already spoken of the Oriental extravagance of the language used in the Scandal, which might pass in Persia or Central Arabia, where wild hyperbole is permitted by the genius of the language, and where people are accustomed to it in conversation, understand it perfectly, and make unconscious allowance for it. Displayed here in the United States, in a mercantile community, and in a tongue characterized by directness and simplicity, it makes the Actors almost entirely incomprehensible to people outside their own set, as is shown by the attempts made to explain and understand the letters in the case. Most of the critics, both the friendly and hostile, are compelled to treat them as written in a sort of dialect, which has to be read with the aid of commentaries, glosses, and parallels, and accompanied, like the study of Homer or the Rig-Veda, by a careful examination of the surroundings of the writers, the conditions of their birth and education, the usages of the circle in which they live, and the social and religious influences by which they have been moulded, and so on. Their almost entire want of any sense of necessary connection between facts and written statements has been curiously revealed by Moulton's

production of various drafts or outlines of cards, reports, and letters which they proposed from time to time to get up and publish, for the purpose of settling their troubles and warding off exposure, by imposing on the public. No savages could have acted with a more simple-minded, not disregard, but unconsciousness of truth. Moulton, according to his own story, helped Beecher to publish a lying card; got Tilton to procure from his wife a lying letter; and Tilton concocted a lying report for the Committee, in which he made them express the highest admiration for himself, his adulterous wife, and her paramour. Here we have a bit of the machinery of high civilization—a committee, with its investigation and report, used, or attempted to be used, with just the kind of savage directness with which a Bongo would use it, when once he came to understand it, and found he could make it serve some end, and with just as little reference to the moral aspect of the transaction.

Take, again, Tilton's account of the motives which governed him in his treatment of his wife and of Beecher. He is evidently aware that there are two codes regulating a man's conduct under such circumstances—one the Christian code, and the other the conventional code of honor, or, as he calls it, "club-house morality"; but it soon became clear that he had no distinct conception of their difference. Having been brought up under the Christian code, and taught, doubtless, to regard the term "gentleman" as a name for a heartless epicurean, he started off by forgiving both Beecher and his wife, or, as the lawyers say, condoning their offence; and he speaks scornfully of the religious ignorance of the Committee in assuming in their report that there was any offence for which a Christian was not bound to accept an apology as a sufficient atonement. The club-house code would, however, have prescribed the infliction of vengeance on Beecher by exposing him. Accordingly, Tilton mixes the two codes up in the most absurd way. Having, as a Christian, forgiven Beecher, he began, thirty days after the discovery of the offence, to expose him as a "gentleman," and kept forgiving and exposing him continuously through the whole four years, the *éclat* of such a relation to Beecher having evidently an irresistible temptation for him. Finally, when Dr. Bacon called him a "dog," he threw aside the Christian rôle altogether, and began assailing his enemy with truly heathen virulence and vigor. A more curious blending of two conceptions of duty is not often seen, and it was doubtless due to the fact that no system of training or culture had made any impression on the man, or gone more than skin-deep. His interview with Beecher, too, by appointment, at his own house, for the purpose of ascertaining by a comparison of dates and reference to his wife's diary the probable paternity of her youngest child, which he describes with the utmost simplicity, is, we venture to say, an incident absolutely without precedent, and one which may safely be pronounced foreign to our civilization. Whether it really occurred, or Tilton invented it, it makes him a problem in social philosophy of considerable interest.

Moulton's story, too, furnishes several puzzles of the same kind. That an English-speaking Protestant married couple in easy circumstances, and of fair education, and belonging to a religious circle, should not only be aware that their pastor was a libertine and should be keeping it a secret for him, but should make his adulteries the subject of conversation with him in the family circle, is hardly capable of explanation by reference to any known and acknowledged tendency of our society. But perhaps the most striking thing in Moulton's rôle is that while he appears on the scene as a gentleman or "man of the world," who does for honor's sake what the other Actors do from fear of God, his whole course is a kind of revolting caricature of what a gentleman under like circumstances would really do. For instance, he accepts Beecher's confidence, which may have been unavoidable, and betrays it by telling various people, from time to time, of the several incidents of Beecher's trouble, which is what a weak or loose-tongued person—vain of the task in which he was engaged, as it seemed to him, *i.e.*, of keeping the peace between two great men—might readily be guilty of; but he tells the public about it in perfect unconsciousness that there was anything discreditable in it, as he does of his participation in the writing of lying letters and cards, and his passing money over from the adulterer to pacify the injured husband. In fact, he carries, according to his own account, his services to Beecher to a point at which it is very difficult to distinguish them from those of a pander, maintaining at the same time relations of the most disgusting confidence with Mrs. Tilton. Finally, too, when greatly perplexed as to his course, he goes publicly and with *éclat* for advice to a lawyer with whom no gentleman, in the proper sense of the term, could maintain intimate personal relations or safely consult on a question of honor. The moral insensibility shown in his visit to General Butler is one of the strange parts of the affair.

We have of course only indicated in the briefest way some of the things which may be regarded as symptomatic of strange mental and moral conditions in the circle in which the affair has occurred. The explanation of them in any way that would generally be considered satisfactory would be a difficult task. The influences which bring about a certain state of manners at any given time or place are always numerous and generally obscure, but we think something of this sort may be safely offered in consideration of the late "goings on" in Brooklyn: In the first place, the newspapers and other cheap periodicals, and the lyceum lectures and small colleges, have diffused through the community a kind of smattering of all sorts of knowledge, a taste for reading and for "art"—that is, a desire to see and own pictures—which, taken together, pass with a large body of slenderly-equipped persons as "culture," and give them an unprecedented self-confidence in dealing with all the problems of life, and raise them in their own minds to a plane on which they see nothing higher, greater, or better than themselves. Now, culture, in the only correct and safe sense of the term, is the result of a process of discipline, both mental and moral. It is not a thing that can be picked up, or that can be got by doing what one pleases. It cannot be acquired by desultory reading, for instance, or travelling in Europe. It comes of the protracted exercise of the faculties for given ends, under restraints of some kind, whether imposed by one's self or other people. In fact, it might not improperly be called the art of doing easily what you don't like to do. It is the breaking in of the powers to the service of the will; and a man who has got it is not simply a person who knows a good deal, for he may know very little, but a man who has obtained an accurate estimate of his own capacity, and of that of his fellows and predecessors, who is aware of the nature and extent of his relations to the world about him, and who is at the same time capable of using his powers to the best advantage. In short, the man of culture is the man who has formed his ideals through labor and self-denial. To be real, therefore, culture ought to affect a man's whole character, and not merely store his memory with facts. Let us add, too, that it may be got in various ways, through home influence as well as through schools or colleges; through living in a highly organized society, making imperious demands on one's time and faculties, as well as through the restraints of a severe course of study. A good deal of it was obtained from the old Calvinistic theology, against which, in the days of its predominance, the most bumptious youth hit his head at an early period of his career, and was reduced to thoughtfulness and self-examination, and forced to walk in ways that were not always to his liking.

If all this be true, the mischievous effects of the pseudo-culture of which we have spoken above may be readily estimated. A society of ignoramuses who know they are ignoramuses, might lead a tolerably happy and useful existence, but a society of ignoramuses each of whom thinks he is a Solon, would be an approach to Bedlam let loose, and something analogous to this may really be seen to-day in some parts of this country. A large body of persons has arisen, under the influence of the common-schools, magazines, newspapers, and the rapid acquisition of wealth, who are not only engaged in enjoying themselves after their fashion, but who firmly believe that they have reached, in the matter of social, mental, and moral culture, all that is attainable or desirable by anybody, and who therefore tackle all the problems of the day—men's, women's, and children's rights and duties, marriage, education, suffrage, life, death, and immortality—with supreme indifference to what anybody else thinks or has ever thought, and have their own trumpery prophets, prophetesses, heroes and heroines, poets, orators, scholars, and philosophers, whom they worship with a kind of barbaric fervor. The result is a kind of mental and moral chaos, in which many of the fundamental rules of living, which have been worked out painfully by thousands of years of bitter human experience, seem in imminent risk of disappearing totally.

Now, if we said that a specimen of this society had been unearthed in Brooklyn by the recent exposures, we should doubtless, to many people, seem to say a very hard thing, and yet this, with the allowances and reservations which have of course to be made for all attempts to describe anything so vague, shifty, and fleeting as a social state, is what we do mean to say. That Mr. Beecher's preaching, falling on such a mass of disorder, should not have had a more purifying and organizing effect, is due, we think, to the absence from it of anything in the smallest degree disciplinary, either in the shape of systematic theology, with its tests and standards, or of a social code, with its pains and penalties. What he has most encouraged, if we may judge by some of the fruits, is vague aspiration and lachrymose sensibility. The ability to dare and do, the readiness to ask one's due which comes of readiness to render their due to others, the profound consciousness of the need of sound habits to brace and fortify morals, which are the only true foundation and support of a healthy civilization, are things which he either has not preached, or which his preaching has only stifled.

Notes.

A NEW English weekly journal of public health, called the *Sanitary Record*, issued its first number July 4, making a good beginning with well-known writers. It is a handsomely printed quarto. G. P. Putnam's Sons have the American agency.——According to the *Academy*, Professor Corssen's work on the 'Language of the Etruscans' appears this month.——Mr. Wm. H. Whitmore, 56 Studio Building, Tremont Street, Boston, solicits subscriptions to a new edition of the genealogy of the Eliot Family. The one previously published in 1854 dealt only with the descendants of the Rev. John Eliot (the "apostle to the Indians"), of Roxbury, Mass. In the meantime, much has been learned concerning his birth and ancestry, and the descendants of his brothers, who likewise settled in this country, and concerning other families of the name. Corrections and additions to the previous record are desired by Mr. Whitmore. The volume, when completed, will make about 200 pages 8vo, and will be published by Joel Munsell, Albany, at $4 to subscribers, as soon as one hundred names are secured.——We have received from B. Westermann & Co. Part 7 of the first and Part 5 of the second volume of Ritter's German Gazetteer (Holzbalge—Ronda).——The Prison Association of New York will gladly receive at their rooms, No. 19 Centre Street, contributions of books, magazines, etc., for the newly-provided library for the penitentiary on Staten Island. Money for the purchase of books for the same destination may be sent to Wm. C. Gilman, Treasurer, 46 Pine Street.——The hay-fever refugees among the White Mountains have formed a permanent association for the discovery and spread of whatever promises to relieve or cure the malady. For the ensuing year, Judge Briscoe, of Hartford, was chosen president, and Mr. Frank B. Fay, secretary. The latter is also very appropriately secretary of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and his new duties will be to communicate any glad tidings of relief to all the members of the association. The annual place of meeting is Bethlehem, N. H., on the last Monday in August.

—We had the pleasure not long since of describing with the praise which was due them two such different and individual catalogues as those of the State Library at Madison, Wisconsin, and the Mercantile Library of St. Louis. Another catalogue is now before us, which also has its peculiar merits, and is in some respects superior to those just mentioned. We refer to the catalogue of the Mercantile Library of San Francisco, the third which the Association has issued in twenty years. In 1854, the library contained less than 3,000 volumes; in 1861, nearly 14,000; the present catalogue enumerates more than 36,000. Its general plan is that of the Boston Public Library catalogues, but the extent to which this has been carried out makes it an improvement upon its model. Thus, the titles are very full, and the topical classification very comprehensive—more so than would be practicable in a collection numbering 100,000 volumes; while the alphabetical arrangement is carried even into tables of contents. Examples of subject-divisions are Drawing, Indians, Insanity, Manners and Customs, Men, Philosophy, Photography, Physical Geography, Railroads, Rare Books, Sermons, Sociology, Voyages, etc. The Franco-Prussian War is another division; others still, Mineralogy, and Mines and Mining, on which stress is naturally laid in a catalogue for the Pacific Coast. Biography occupies three pages. States and countries, and even cities, obtain a systematic as well as alphabetical classification. The works relating to California fall under six heads, and cover ten pages; those on San Francisco cover two and a half. Wherever the case permits (*e.g.*, New England, Scotland, etc.), Historical Fiction forms the last group of illustrative works. All this is admirably done, with an eye to the needs of the general reader; but equally time and labor-saving is the alphabetizing of collections and of contents of works which would otherwise have to be handled and examined. For instance, all the Dramas in the Library are arranged by title from A to Z, and occupy nearly twenty-four pages, closely printed, in three columns; Lacy's plays occupy three and a half pages; all the Arundel Society's and all the Chaucer Society's publications are alphabetically arranged; and the same labor has been performed after classification for the Smithsonian Institution's Reports, Contributions, and Collections, occupying some five pages. On the one hand, the contents of a simple book of essays (like that made up from articles in the *Nation*) are printed in the order of the dictionary; on the other, Sainte-Beuve's essays, or Villemain's or Voltaire's or Goethe's or Swift's or Bentham's collected works, or Griswold's 'Prose Writers of America,' is made easy of reference before a single volume has left the shelf. The Shakspere analysis and grouping are further evidences of the compiler's intelligence and industry; and indeed there is no end to the examples which we might give of this feature of the catalogue, the utility of which has doubtless occurred to other librarians besides Mr. Whitaker, but has never, so far as we are aware, been undertaken on such a scale as in the San Francisco catalogue. The work deserves, in fact, as we believe we remarked of its Western predecessors, to be kept in all libraries as a guide to readers and students—as a part of the economy of such institutions.

—Mrs. Martha Walker Cook, who died on Tuesday week, aged 67, was a good Greek and Latin scholar, a fluent speaker and writer of the French, German, and Italian languages, was familiar with the Spanish and Portuguese literatures, and, through Continental translators, with Polish, Servian, and Russian poetry. Her knowledge of theology, metaphysics, and of music was that of a hard student. She was noted for active charities, effectual sympathy with Polish and other national woes, and also as the head of an intellectual and elegant *salon*. She had translated—but through the medium of German and French versions—Krazinski's "Ungottliche Komödie," the Polish masterpiece, first into English prose and afterwards into rhythm. During the rebellion, Mrs. Cook relieved her brother, the Hon. Robert J. Walker, of the editorship of the *Continental Monthly* magazine. We regret to have to chronicle also the death of Mr. David Lee Child, which took place at Wayland, Mass., on Friday last. He was, we believe, originally a lawyer by profession; and at one time also an instructor in the Boston Public Latin School. He was a vigorous and able writer for the press, and together with his wife, Mrs. Lydia Maria Child (better known than himself, but not because of any intellectual inferiority on his part), edited at one time the *National Anti-Slavery Standard* in this city. He died at the age of eighty.

—The death of Judge B. R. Curtis is a loss not only to the bar of New England, but to the entire country. The quiet and strictly professional life he led from the time of his retirement from the Supreme Court in 1857 down to his death, prevented his great abilities and learning from being as thoroughly recognized outside New England as they were in it. Indeed, if it had not been for his appearance in the impeachment trial of Johnson, it may be doubted whether the general public would not have required at his death to be assured that this Judge Curtis was really and in fact the same Judge Curtis who, some twenty years ago, took part, with much credit to himself, in one of the greatest political cases which have ever been decided by the Supreme Court. The interval between these two public appearances was filled by an active professional life, in which he was always engaged in the most important suits or in the consideration of important questions submitted to him for reference. He has left behind him little, we believe, except his decisions while on the bench of the Supreme Court, some volumes of Reports, and arguments scattered through other volumes not his. He was a lawyer *pur sang*, accomplished and profound, though without the eloquence which is necessary to make a popular advocate. Lucidity was the distinguishing characteristic of his reasoning and delivery, and his use of language was always so pure and pointed, and his manner so little that of an advocate, that in hearing him argue a case it was sometimes difficult for the hearer to believe that he was not listening rather to the decision. For one thing, his loss is almost a public calamity—that he was one of the few remaining lawyers of age and experience in America who combined with devotion to the study and science of the law, in no narrow or technical sense, a complete indifference to public clamor of any kind, and who could be neither turned aside by fear of public disapproval nor carried away on a tide of popular enthusiasm. The country is willing enough now to see that in the Dred Scott case and the Johnson impeachment he did the United States great public service; hereafter, too, we have very little doubt that his opinion, recently given in the Wisconsin Railroad matter, will be cited as a proof of his sagacity and his comprehensive grasp of the fundamental principles of public law.

—Dr. Dyrenfurth, the newly-appointed principal examiner in the class of Chemistry, in the Patent Office, has recently rejected an application for letters-patent for a "medical compound," substantially upon the grounds that a mere mechanical mixture, or assemblage without chemical union, of a number of medical ingredients, possessing well-known properties, is neither such invention nor discovery of a new and useful composition of matter as is contemplated by the law—its preparation involving at most only the exercise of a skill common, in varying degree, to all persons having a knowledge of disease and of the curative properties of drugs and medicines; that, if patents may issue upon this and kindred applications, it follows, such skill being exercised whenever a physician writes an original prescription, that thousands of patentable inventions of this class are made daily—a fatal *reductio ad absurdum*—and that the creation of monopolies restraining others from the exercise of such skill is in contravention of public policy and human welfare. It might have been further urged that, in the present stage of therapeutic knowledge, there is no mode of determining with reasonable certainty whether a given medical agent (with rare exceptions) does really

produce the result claimed or exercise the function ascribed, matters usually susceptible of demonstration in other classes of patents. The omission, however, loses importance in view of the grave doubt that the decision of the examiner will be ultimately sustained. Probably the only remedy for the reproach of Governmental aid in the patent-medicine business must be sought through a change in the law—a change which, by excluding medicines from the category of patentable matters, will bring the United States patent laws in harmony with those of the large majority of other countries.

—Circular No. 90 of the Treasury Department, and General Order No. 109 of the War Department, calling attention to an almost forgotten statute (February 25, 1799) concerning quarantine and the public health, are noteworthy as giving promise of a possibly near future in which both the civil and military agencies of the National Government will be made available in promoting the general welfare by co-operation with State and municipal health authorities. These latter are so obviously the ones most directly charged with the protection of the public health that there can be little ground for anticipating the successful enforcement of any scheme of national quarantine—a subject which has been pertinaciously pressed upon the attention of Congress during the last two or three sessions. By existing statute and regulation, a large body of more or less thoroughly trained officials—including the surgeons of the Marine Hospital Service, officers commanding United States forces upon the seaboard, customs officers, and officers of the revenue marine—are required to assist in enforcing local health-laws and quarantines. If to this could be added such assistance as the State Department might readily furnish through its consular officers, and the Department of the Interior through its pension agents and others, the information from all these various sources to be collated and digested by a proper Advisory Board, publishing advices, instructions, and suggestions much as the Signal Service now does concerning meteorological matters—if this could be done, either with or without legislation, there would seem to be little left for the sanatist or advocate of State medicine to ask for.

—The long-awaited Montpensier collection opened on Monday last at the rooms of the Boston Art Museum, and contains, amidst a good deal of the heavy platitude of the commonplace Spanish art, a few pictures of great value. The chief in point of merely artistic interest is, one might say *of course* in a collection of Spanish pictures, a portrait by Velasquez of a head, with indications of a lace collar and scarcely a hint of the shoulders—a most masterly lesson of the qualities of great portraiture, technically invaluable to art-students. The Murillo, a picture of modest pretension in point of size, is one of the most favorable examples of the master to be found amongst the smaller pictures, carefully painted, agreeably composed, and mostly well preserved, the best and least retouched part of it being indeed as excellent painting as anything to be found in the painter's work. Parts of it have been retouched crudely, to the disadvantage of the *ensemble;* but, as a whole, it is an excellent and characteristic example of Murillo's sacred vein—*i.e.*, the material, matter-of-fact Spanish view of nature, made up with wings and halos to suit church purposes, but without a trace of the exaltation or asceticism of the purely religious schools of art. Of four pictures by Zurbaran, one, an Adoration of the Magi, is of the very best vein of this second-rate master, and is in execution, in naïveté of composition, and in quality of wear worthy a place amongst the great masters, among whom Zurbaran fails to be placed from his want of imagination, of ideality, or even of sentiment, as well as from total deficiency of dramatic conception. The others of the series are more or less weak and heavy compared with this. Only six of the twenty-one Spanish pictures are in any way noteworthy, while of the Italian schools there is no representative of any great master, and good ones only of Salvator Rosa, who has two landscapes, of which one is excellent. A single example of ascetic Spanish art, a Pietá by Morales, dry, hard, and painful as it is, is of great interest, and worth all the Riberas, Herreras, Ribaltas, etc., in the collection. A single picture ascribed to Sebastian del Piombo suggests the unlucky dupe of an auction sale in New York. Of the taste which admits to its sensorium such very degradation of the brush as the "Cato tearing out his Entrails" by Ribera, we can only say that it is incomprehensible. The "Repentant Magdalen despoiling herself of her Jewels," by Boccanegra, has a certain value as showing how utterly bad art can be; less bad, but still too bad for human companionship, are some landscapes by Herrera and some so-called Bassanos, while, to show how bad in another way modern art can be, are some pictures of Henri Lehmann and Tony Johannot. But when all is said, the few pictures worthy of commendation are so well worthy of it that the enterprise of the committee has not been thrown away, and these alone are quite enough to repay the trouble that any one may take to visit them.

—Now that we have a full report—apparently a literal translation—of Wurtz's eloquent as well as masterly address, entitled "The Theory of Atoms in the General Conception of the Universe," we find that the short sentence at the close is more terse and neatly pointed than in the version from which we quoted last week. We add it in full:

"Such is the order of nature, and as science penetrates it further she brings to light both the simplicity of the means set at work and the infinite variety of the results. Thus, through the corner of the veil we have been permitted to raise, she enables us to see both the harmony and the profundity of the plan of the universe. Then we enter on another domain which the human mind will always be impelled to enter and explore. It is thus, and you cannot change it. It is in vain that science has revealed to it the structure of the world and the order of all the phenomena; it wishes to mount higher, and in the conviction that things have not in themselves their own *raison d'être*, their support and their origin, it is led to subject them to a first cause—unique, universal God."

Just here, in the difference between Wurtz and Tyndall, is the gist of the question. The predication of intelligent will behind force, viewed as an hypothesis to account for the facts, has the great advantage of being one which the human mind cannot help making. However that be, the hypothesis may justly be thought to stand in about as near a relation to knowledge as does the hypothesis of molecules, or at least of atoms; and why (so far as concerns the principle) the one should be utterly illegitimate and sterile and the other sound, is not apparent. Professor Lovering, in the address from which we quoted last week, closed with a high compliment to the British mathematical physicists—meaning such men as the two Thomsons and Clerk-Maxwell—by whose help "Great Britain has now taken a position in science which she has not held before since the days of Newton." Apropos to what we have been considering, Clerk-Maxwell's presentation of atoms as bearing the marks of being "manufactured articles" might be referred to.

—Professor Tyndall's estimate of Aristotle's powers as a physical philosopher seems to be as wanting in the *Vorstellung* of historical perspective as he believes the Stagirite to have been in physical insight. The greatest difficulty of such an historic sketch of philosophical thought as Tyndall has attempted—a difficulty which often restrains wiser men from the undertaking—is to place the mental powers and services of thinkers rightly in relation to their times. That the inventor of the theory of syllogisms, one who worked out the principle of proof from the beginning to so great completeness that succeeding ages regarded the work as incapable of material improvement, should have been deficient in imagination, or the power of seeing principles in facts, is a rather astounding assertion. Prof. Tyndall also appears to forget that the modern physicist's imagination is essentially a trained one—trained in an accumulated body of experimental and mathematical truths, extensive enough to make over any ordinary genius from what nature may have created him into an investigator who, compared by the machinery of discovery which he can wield, is to Aristotle a giant, but who should modestly attribute his superiority to his training and his implements rather than to his *Vorstellungskraft*. Aristotle was, in fact, a model of an investigator for his time, especially in natural history. That his theories of physics seem to us crude and deficient in accurate ideas, illustrates the importance in the physical sciences generally, including physical biology, of a discipline such as only a great progress in a knowledge of cause-and-effect relations can afford. They neither illustrate Aristotle's powers as a philosopher, nor place even Pascal above him, nor assimilate him for mental one-sidedness to Goethe.

—The *Renaissance*, giving some account of the origin of the hymn known in our books as "Brattle Street," essays a French version of it. The difficulty of the task will be appreciated on comparing the first stanzas of the original and of the translation. One who had been accustomed to sing the former might almost feel that it had suffered in its devotional as well as in its lyric quality by the expansion to which it has been subjected:

"While thee I seek, protecting Power,
Be my vain wishes still'd,
And may this consecrated hour
With better hopes be fill'd."

"Quand c'est toi que je cherche, ô Pouvoir tutélaire,
J'impose le silence aux terrestres soupirs;
Je veux que les instants voués à la prière
Soient pleins des célestes désirs."

There is an obvious loss, on the devotional side, in exchanging the present tense of "*this* consecrated hour" for an indefinite tense.

MR. BAYARD TAYLOR'S 'PROPHET.'*

THE chief truth which Mr. Taylor's 'Prophet' illustrates is one which has been illustrated in the career of many prophets, small and great, since religious fanatics first led followers into wildernesses—the truth, namely, that such messiahs begin by being themselves a prey to their own strongly felt and thoroughly believed delusions, and often end by lending themselves to a wilful

* 'The Prophet: A Tragedy. By Bayard Taylor.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.

deception of the disciples long after the falseness of the supposed heavenly mission has been internally suspected or perceived. This is the main truth of the poem. Another is one equally well attested, and certifies that if the fanatical dupe of his own hallucinations and aspirations is so far successful in the highways and byways as to gather around him a body of believers, it often happens that he is joined by a pretended convert of abilities which are strictly supplementary to his own, and as capable of coping in earnest with worldly forces in the contest for power or wealth, and of ruling men, as incapable of apprehending the things of the spirit. As David in Mr. Taylor's poem stands for the self-duped fanatic and prophet, who afterwards gives in to a policy which his better self does not approve, so Master Nimrod Kraft is the worldly right-hand of the divinely commissioned one, the unscrupulous organizer and administrator and the possible usurper by-and-by of the chief place. Still another of the truths on which the poem is built is that prophets are liable to the seductions of handsome, clever, energetic women, whose acquaintance they make after their wives have become faded perhaps; or perhaps after they have ceased to keep up with their prophet-husband's advances in spiritual development. Such a "brilliant" woman—tall, dark-eyed, mistress of several languages, accomplished in music, a poetess of facile skill, sharp-witted, very well acquainted with several of the ways of the world, and convinced she knows them all, a child of wealth, hungry-hearted withal—is Livia Romney, who, in all respects very unlike the faithful Rhoda, seeks control of David's heart and career, obtains it, is chiefly instrumental in causing polygamy to be adopted as the policy of the faithful, and in every way exercises a baleful influence. Also, incidentally, she teaches us, we suppose, that the Rhodas sitting beside their children and their work-baskets are infinitely more respectable than their brilliant sisters, which they certainly are as the two types are here exhibited.

To clothe with life this collection of observed truths which we have enumerated, to utilize them and make them serve for a poem, Mr. Taylor has had recourse to the old Mormon history of a generation or more ago. He has not literally followed it in its details; sad work that would have made with the David and Rhoda love-tale, which struggles throughout for ascendancy over the story of the Latter-Day Saints, and at last, so far as the reader is concerned, and apparently so far as the writer is concerned, fairly gets the better of its antagonist. But without the necessity of being literal, he has been easily able to appropriate a mass of material which has saved his invention much labor: the deluded student of Scripture, who very soon makes himself half-distracted by ignorant ponderings on the naked but obscure words of the New Testament; the shrewd and worldly-minded Kraft, who joins the leader when he sees the people will follow the new apostle; the promulgation very soon of the revealed command that the faithful must turn pilgrims and seek a new land and free homes; the setting up of a productive tithe and tax system; the hostility of the Gentile world outside; the revelation from heaven of the plural system of wives—these events are all approximately true to the course of early Mormon history, and Mr. Taylor finds his general purpose well served by the records of the Smiths and Youngs and their band. His own peculiar contribution to the poem is the characters of David, Rhoda, Livia, Nimrod, and the one or two other figures of the *dramatis personæ* that rise to the rank of characters, and of these the least successfully depicted is at the same time the most important, and the one very much the most difficult to describe or to depict dramatically. We speak of David—a weak mind who passes through three stages of mental experience before our eyes. At first he is religiously confused and convulsed by a set of emotions which it is extremely hard to realize to ourselves, but to which, unfortunately, it is extremely easy to fit any quantity of a peculiar phraseology which is thought to be expressive of them. Our author gives us much of the peculiar language, but apart from that he does little to make us appreciate the fanatic's state of mind. At least, he does little in this direction when he shows us that the searcher into mysteries, betaking himself into the desert mountain, sees on the second day a snake looking at him, tries the power of his eye on the intruder to see whether the prophet or the serpent-tempter is the more powerful, and rejoices, as over a confirmation of his call, when the latter slips away. A "God-intoxicated man," who is within two years to lead a host into the wilderness, might reveal, we think as we read, a little more force than this. Perhaps, with the same intention of showing us how the absorbed devotee is ready for the acceptance of miracles anywhere, Mr. Taylor makes Rhoda, who is alarmed at her betrothed lover's long absence in the mountain, carry him out some food, which her servant secretly sets on a rock near a brook. This David soon finds, and, as he had not long before spoken of a supply of food as something that would be taken by him to indicate the authenticity of God's call to him, he is of course greatly strengthened and edified when he beholds the viands spread on the rocky table. But this incident could have been but as corroborative evidence of an inward proof buried in the heart of David, which not only assured him of his mission but alone after all made his preaching the effective means which we are asked to believe it was. Nor, no more than we get a good view of David's time of darkness, do we anywhere get any good sight of his time of triumph, or of his later time of perhaps deeper trouble, when he more than suspects himself of chicane, knows himself false to his first love and its concomitant duties, and more than doubts if he had ever been other than a miserably false messiah. While we make this objection to Mr. Taylor's dealing with David in his most important capacity, we may remark that the only really dramatic moment in this poem—the only point where interest overpowers a pervading gentle dulness—has reference to this same breakfast beside the mountain brook: David is hesitating about the establishment of polygamy, and wears a troubled countenance about the house. Rhoda attempts to share his counsels and to soothe him, and slowly he imparts to her the new revelation of which he is now daily expecting the signs; he has been led so far on the way that he feels it is the Lord's doing. Rhoda, as may be supposed, is much affected; she sees the hands of Livia and Nimrod Kraft, and energetically declares that this policy is neither the Lord's nor David's. David then asserts that he has felt the Divine guidance in the matter; asks how he can refuse obedience to the power which so long has directed his steps; and, recurring to the early days, speaks of the great interposition in his behalf when, after long wrestling with the spirit, he awoke from his trance on the dividing verge between this world and the next, but, lo! he saw his bread prepared for him:

" . . . I ate and I was saved."

Then follows what we have called the best scene of the tragedy, with its highly dramatic collision of deep feelings and powerful interests—the wife's and mother's, the husband's, leader's, and prophet's:

RHODA.
(*Eagerly.*)
. . . . . Who saved you then
May save again! 'Tis naught to offer food;
But I obeyed a voice, this moment clear,
And charged, I feel, with all the Lord's high will
In woman manifest. I pray you, take,
Even from my hands, which then were hid from view,
Now, openly, my evidence from him!

DAVID.
What double sense is in your words? I hear,
Not comprehending.

RHODA.
How could I refrain?
Two days had passed: I dared not interrupt
Your solitude of soul, and prayers that fed
Upon the life of your forgotten frame;
But, guided near you, oh, thank Him for that!
I left the food—

DAVID.
You? you!

RHODA.
As was his will.
What ails you, David?
(*Aside.*)
He is deadly pale;
There's something fierce and strange within his eyes:
He frightens me.

DAVID.
You brought me food?

RHODA.
I did.

DAVID.
What else? What more have you in secret done?
Who taught you so to counterfeit the Lord?
Woman! to burrow underneath my feet,
And make a hollowness where rock should be!
How dared you cheat me?

RHODA.
Slay me with your hand,
Not with such face and words! If I but saved
(You say it saved you), how could love refrain?
I have obeyed, believed all else in you,
As I believe and worship still: forgive!
[*She falls on her knees before him.*

DAVID.
Not unto me your husband, David, man;
But, if I be a Prophet of the Lord,
Yes, *if!* It seems to you a little thing:
Rise up! I cannot answer now: the house
Rocks to and fro, the temple's pinnacles
Dance in the air like devils' shuttlecocks:
There's nothing stable. Rise, I say again!
[*She rises to her feet.*
Now take your seat and sew! I've heard it said
Women think better when the hand 's employed:
If 'tis so, think!
[*He moves toward the door.*

RHODA.
. . . . David!

DAVID.
. . . . . I go to pray.
(*Exit.*)

RHODA.
Come back! He's gone. O God! what have I done?

Rhoda is so drawn as mostly to look rather pale, though she conciliates the

reader's regard by several times showing signs of active life and personal existence. The lurid Mrs. Romney, on the other hand, is of a commonplace bookish type and purely a stage figure. The "line of goods," as they say, is well known, and there is nothing about this particular sample to make looking at it worth while.

THE RAILROAD MANUALS.*

THERE are now about 60,000 miles of railroad in this country, *represented* by over three thousand millions of dollars in securities, good, bad, and indifferent, and actually *representing*—for the two things are very different—an investment of twenty-five hundred millions of dollars. It is in no way surprising, therefore, that a very considerable demand exists for publications purporting to furnish some reliable information as to the condition of the various enterprises in which so large a proportion of the accumulated savings of the country has been put away. It is greatly to be regretted that these are no better than they are. The two best are undoubtedly those compiled by Messrs. Poor and Vernon. The sixth of Mr. Poor's annual series and the second of Mr. Vernon's are now before us, and each is rather suggestive of what it ought to be than of commendation of what it is. Poor's book is statistical, and Vernon's historical. In a certain respect they are thus complementary to each other, and, in its make-up, its maps, and its general effect, Vernon's book is decidedly creditable. Here, however, commendation must stop. Mr. Vernon hardly appreciates the duty of an editor of a railroad manual. His introductory chapter is badly written and worse conceived, reminding one painfully of Mr. Poor's earlier efforts in the same line. Editors of this class of compilations seem, almost as a matter of course, to misconceive their functions. They have an abiding faith, which is truly admirable, that people go to their pages for philosophy as well as for facts. Accordingly, Mr. Poor, through all the earlier volumes of his series, was wont annually to dribble out to us his views on things in general connected with railroads and their administration, and Mr. Vernon has now taken up the practice at the point where the former dropped it. By so doing, he has deprived his manual of just half its value. The twenty pages of editorial matter which should have been devoted to a most careful tabulation of statistics, to comparisons, and the consequent rigid sifting of results and exposure of suppressions—all this room is wasted in commonplaces about the financial panic, the decline in railroad construction, the decease of prominent railroad officials, the Grange movement, and abortive efforts at Congressional legislation. We have a surfeit of all that in the columns of the daily press. When we buy "manuals" we want something else—figures, and nothing but figures. In the first place, we want the statistics of the various roads well grouped together and made intelligible by maps properly prepared. With these neither Vernon nor Poor yet furnishes us. We then want a thorough system of tabulation—synthetical and analytical, positive and comparative—which will enable us to see at a glance what the whole thing amounts to. All beyond this is surplusage. Neither of the present manuals is complete in these respects; each possesses features which the other might advantageously borrow. Poor's manual is wholly unsupplied with maps, and makes no pretence at all at arrangement. Indeed, the returns of the various corporations seem to be thrown into some common receptacle as received, and then fished out hap-hazard as the printer calls for copy. Different members of the same group of roads are thus found at opposite ends of the volume, while the corporations of Texas, without rhyme or reason, appear cheek by jowl with those of Maine. Vernon, on the other hand, has maps and a system of arrangement, but there is a deficiency in his statistics, and not unseldom he is, to say the least, reckless in his statements of fact.

Leaving, however, the "get up" of the manuals, it would be well to consider for a time their contents. Just now they are very melancholy reading. It was but one short year ago that every one was rich; coupons were continually maturing, and were promptly paid; stock which had cost nothing, was sold at 20, at 50, at 100 per cent. of its face value; new forms of securities, each more profitable than the other, were put upon the market as fast as they could be printed and signed, and faster than the joyous brood of brokers could place them. To-day, one-quarter part of the whole railroad bonded indebtedness of the country is discredited; the coupons of every fourth bond, when presented at maturity, are returned unpaid. As for the stock of the roads, the figures are simply incredible. After you leave the Atlantic seaboard, and get fairly into the area of recent "wild-cat" construction, as compared with dividends angels' visits seem matter of daily and almost hourly occurrence. Not a dividend is paid by any road in Michigan, and but one in Indiana. Illinois boasts five dividend-paying companies, Wisconsin one, and Iowa three; but Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, and almost all the Southern States, are a dreary, hopeless blank.

Indeed, it requires some study of the figures to enable us to realize how all-absorbing the mania for railroad investment of the last six years really was. It was a simple craze. Under the stimulus of the land-grant system, it swept through the country like a first-class epidemic, and is probably in its effects to-day occasioning not less quiet suffering. Kansas was the very hot-bed of the disease, and a very few figures, drawn from these manuals, will illustrate the madness which prevailed as regards that region, which differed only in degree from others. Ten years ago Kansas had no railroad at all; it now has little less than 2,500 miles, about 33 per cent. more than Massachusetts, with one-third of her population; in other words, Massachusetts has seven times the population of Kansas in comparison with *its* railroad mileage. But the Kansas railroads were built on the sale of their bonds, not on their stock capital; accordingly, we find them loaded down with over $70,000,000 of indebtedness. The interest on none of this is now paid, but as long as money could be borrowed with which to pay it, it did not average less than 8 per cent., or $5,600,000 per annum. All that the Kansas roads in their best condition ever pretended to earn was about $3,400,000, or less than 5 per cent. on their bonded indebtedness. Nor indeed did they ever earn that amount, or anything which approached to it. The claim was that in a business which averaged but $3,800 per mile in gross receipts, the net receipts were no less than 40 per cent. of that amount. To one accustomed to dealing with railroad accounts such a claim is simply preposterous. To produce such a result, the operating and construction account would be muddled beyond all comprehension. This is the time for liquidation; the day for doctored balance-sheets is, for the time being, gone. Kansas, like many other of the Western States, is poor and sparsely settled. To its railroad system it can contribute but very sparingly even for its population. It is probably safe to say that the cost of operating and maintaining the Kansas railroad system will consume for years to come 75 per cent. of its gross receipts. The problem will then be how to make at most $3,000,000 per annum pay 8 per cent. interest on $70,000,000 of principal, besides a large amount of accrued and unpaid coupons which are covered by the mortgages.

The simple truth is that madness has ruled the hour—that the whole system of recent railroad construction in the West was dishonest and rotten to the very core. The only people who made anything by it are the people of the West—they secured their railroad system, and, curiously enough, it is they who are loudest in their complaints over the results. Three hundred millions of external capital, upon which not one cent of interest is now paid, have within the last few years been applied to Western railroad construction. It is all there, and cannot be removed. Yet the race of unthrifts who have thus stripped themselves of their substance in a feverish pursuit of gain are now fiercely denounced as "grasping capitalists" by those who alone enjoy an assured use of the wealth, without the unpleasant necessity of paying interest therefor. The bubble, however, is burst, and it will probably be some years before the hardy pioneer of the West is again burdened by a too great eagerness on the part of the East to develop his means of transportation. It has cost a great deal to learn the lesson, and after all it was a somewhat elementary one. We call ourselves a shrewd people, and yet we have just paid some $300,000,000 to satisfy ourselves that railroads in a wilderness are poor property.

* 'Manual of the Railroads of the United States, 1873-74. Henry V. Poor.' New York: H. V. Poor. 1874.
'American Railroad Manual for the United States and the Dominion. Compiled and edited by Edward Vernon.' New York. 1874.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IN a book which bears on its title-page the statement that it is a novel of New York and Hartford one may be pretty sure of finding a good supply of local color, and it cannot be denied that we have it in 'Scrope; or, The Lost Library' in good, fast tints, which contrast very strongly with the pallid hues of most American novels. Certain parts of New York, for instance, are described with the utmost exactness, and deep familiarity with life in this city is shown by the introduction of a fire in Broadway, of adventures in a low saloon, in a gambling-hell, in various business offices, and of an important newspaper reporter, whom it would delight us to be able to regard as a fair representative of his class. The underground bar-room is also brought in, or, as some say, lugged in; but our author is never sparing of details.

We have often had occasion to speak of Mr. Benedict's writings, but generally only with a certain feeling of disappointment that so painstaking a writer should still come no nearer the mark than he did in his earlier novels, which bear a very close resemblance to the ordinary English novels. In most of them he drew characters which are more familiar to us in the

* 'Scrope; or, The Lost Library. A novel of New York and Hartford. By Frederic B. Perkins.' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1874.
'John Worthington's Name. By Frank Lee Benedict.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

printed page than in our daily experience; and hence it is with some surprise as well as satisfaction that in 'John Worthington's Name' we find at last brought upon the scene personages who may be called lifelike enough if we will begin by appreciating that they are acting in an atmosphere highly charged with the rather cheap sensational. This is more than we could ever before say in Mr. Benedict's praise; and we admit that what we say now is not full of promise for his future. The heroine, Mrs. Marchmont, a widow lady of this city, has fallen by her extravagance into money troubles, and, from having placed confidence in a Wall-Street broker, gets to a certain extent in his power, and is exposed to his odious attentions. These harass her extremely, and being obliged to borrow a sum of money to rid herself of him, she has recourse to a professional money-lender, who requires an endorsement upon her note. She has no one to turn to; her friend and possible lover, John Worthington, has made a vow, as she knows, never to put his name to any paper; so, in her despair, being unable turn to him, she forges his name.

'The Clique of Gold' is the title of a translation from the French of Gaboriau of a very sensational novel, in which we find a good hero and heroine, and a bad hero and heroine, with each pair plotting against the other pair, until, after all manner of singular perils and attempts at murder and suicide, justice stalks in red-handed at the close. M. Gaboriau, no more than many of his betters, ever neglected to spice his novels with social relations in what the cooks would call a "high" state. But, to do him justice, his own apparent strongest desire was to make the wonderful detective and the unsuspected criminal the real centre of the momentary interest which he was capable of imparting. These always occupy the first place; and, indeed, the reprehensible social relations occupy a place no higher than the third—the second, we should say, being taken by the author's more or less indirect assaults on the French method of administering criminal justice. But he is not worth many words; he was, we believe, an industrious workman—no prodigy and no eight-hour man—at the business of manufacturing the Detective novel. This he has done here, doing it, too, very ill, for the book is perhaps his dullest.

Mr. Eggleston's stories have had from the beginning a great popularity with a large circle of readers, and it has been in many ways well deserved. They are full of incident; all of these rapid events occur amid scenes almost entirely new to the Eastern reader and the new generation of Westerners; and they have, in a high degree, the element of dialectic speech, which intrinsically for itself is a popular element, and which, delusively perhaps as often as really, confers upon the personages of the story that appearance of reality and individuality for which the novel-writer has to watch so keenly and work so hard. Another important quality of Mr. Eggleston's books, and one which does much to hold fast the sort of readers whom his novelty and liveliness attract, is his good nature, which never fails to make him always kind to his characters and keeps for him a constant supply of a practical poetic justice which ensures the marriage of the almshouse girl to the hero of the tale, and makes out of the hero the sheriff of the self-same county where the regulators had nearly had him convicted for horse-stealing. It may be doubted if we ought to set down another of the traits of Mr. Eggleston's books as one of the causes of the popular favor with which they have met; but it will not now be doubted so much as it would have been a little while ago. We refer to his preaching with great freedom, indeed with a camp-meeting *abandon*, a theology and religion which at the same time are in one way most exacting and in another most loose. But it may be roughly said of the system, that much of the strictness and loftiness must be theoretical, while of the looseness much may be found in the practice of frequently backsliding but readily repenting sinners. It is, in brief, a rude sort of "revival" religion of the general type known all over the country—a religion of sudden conversions accompanied with wrestlings of the soul and perturbations of the body; little or no learning of any kind; a scanty knowledge and a correspondingly small respect for the theological fabric which has been reared by the Christian intellect working under all circumstances through many ages; a reliance upon the testimony of the patient's class-leader and his own inner feelings as evidence that the works which he does are or are not works such as should be wrought by a true member of the "Church of the Best Licks," as Mr. Eggleston calls it in one of his books. We dare say that any description which we should give of the tenets of a given church would be open to objections and contradictions. We mean only in brief to indicate the kind of religious experience through which Mr. Eggleston, in a way whose sort of coarse familiarity with sacred things will offend some persons, causes his personages to pass. The "getting of vital religion" is a critical incident in his stories as common as the hero's having a fever in the old-time novels; and it will be accordingly as one thinks concerning the magnitude of religious questions whether he will hold that Mr. Eggleston properly appreciates the fact that he has settled a question more important than Tom Jones's having a fever or falling off a horse at the right door.

In this particular novel there is nothing that calls for special remark. Mr. Eggleston has had to suffer from the demand made upon him as soon as he wrote a readable story that he should turn himself into the coming native novelist. This he has not done; but we do not see that he does not write as before, nor why he should not continue to amuse an audience which, if not very critical, or, to tell the truth, not critical at all, is respectable for many things. We wish to suggest that while Mr. Eggleston is doubtless not to be the great American novelist, neither is he to be the great Anglo-German or the great Anglo-Irish novelist whom we are to produce. His German broken-English and his Irish broken-English have had the effect of casting us into doubt about the authenticity of his Hoosier dialect. There seems, however, little occasion to doubt that in his picture he has been faithful to the main features of the singular life which is his theme. The riot and roughness of "the boys"; the sort of sneaking desperadoism of the disguised bands of thieves infesting the rural neighborhood, unsuspected at first, and at last dealt with by the vigilants; the development of a rude manliness of character; the scenes, simple and often sordid, of the daily life of the people—all these seem to be given us by Mr. Eggleston with as much practical truthfulness as by the realistic author of the first part of Lamon's 'Life of Lincoln.' By-and-by, it is true, it will be time to remind Mr. Eggleston that we have had enough.

In the 'Floating City' M. Verne gives an account of a trip from Liverpool to New York in the *Great Eastern* in 1867, and the romantic adventures with which some of the passengers met. This was the same trip which brought over "the celebrated Cyrus Field of New York, the Honorable John Rose of Canada, the Honorable J. MacAlpine of New York, Mr. and Mrs. Alfred Cohen of San Francisco, Mr. and Mrs. Whitney of Montreal, Captain McPh —— and his wife," who will all no doubt be glad to certify to the leading incidents of the voyage narrated by M. Verne. One of these was an extremely interesting duel with weapons described by the author as basket-hilted "battle-swords," in which two of the passengers, with good reason, engage. A duel on ship-board is an unusual thing, and it may be worth while to mention that the place of rendezvous in this case was the stern of the vessel, though whether on the poop-deck or just aft of the round-house we do not quite make out; but, wherever it was, it speaks volumes for the steadiness of the *Great Eastern*. The story is an amusing extravaganza which will not bear the closest critical analysis, yet, like so many other things in this world which do not satisfy the imperious demands of the intellect or the ardent longings of the heart, may still make the reader laugh. The 'Blockade-Runners' is a romance of the late war, of which the scene is laid on board a blockade-runner, in Glasgow, and in Charleston.

'Prudence Palfrey' is a slight sketch of New England life, with numerous bits of satire and humor, in which many of the peculiarities of the people of that section are touched upon in the usual manner. The story opens with the young hero, John Dent, penniless, and, as a natural consequence, soon madly in love with his uncle's ward, Miss Prudence. Since he is anxious to make a sudden fortune before marrying, he leaves for the West in search of gold-mines, but without any formal engagement to his lady-love. In this new region he makes his fortune, and loses it again by the treachery of his partner, "Nevins." Meanwhile, Miss Prudence hears nothing from him for a long time after his first letter, and lends a not wholly unwilling ear to the love-making of a Mr. James Dillingham, a young clergyman who had lately come to the place where she lived. News is brought to the uncle, who favors Dillingham, that John Dent is dead. Dent returns, however, and it turns out that Dillingham, the clergyman, is really Mr. "Nevins" himself, who had been a road-agent, or something of the sort, on the Western plains for many years before John Dent met him. He it was who had already robbed Dent, and had afterwards had him half-killed by an accomplice, and now, although he fails to win Miss Palfrey, he manages to keep possession of his enemy's fortune. It cannot be denied that this turn of affairs is a surprise to the reader, who could nohow have imagined that the gentlemanly, polished clergyman was really a desperate ruffian fit for the gallows, and if keeping the plot a secret were the most commendable thing in fiction, 'Prudence Palfrey' would at once take a very high rank. It would almost seem that Mr. Aldrich, having recently had success with a bright, clever trifle, 'Marjorie Daw' (in which the most commendable thing was just this same

'The Clique of Gold. Translated from the French of Emile Gaboriau.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.
'The Circuit Rider: A Tale of the Heroic Age. By Edward Eggleston.' New York: J. B. Ford & Co. 1874.

'A Floating City, and The Blockade-Runners. By Jules Verne.' Translated from the French. New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.
'Prudence Palfrey. By T. B. Aldrich.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.

keeping of the plot a dead secret), had been led to the belief that it is a good thing for the author at the end of any story, of what kind soever, to come out and say "Boh" to the reader, and ask him what he thinks of that for a somersault. In this case his course has occasioned the turning at the last of a sketchy tale of sentiment and New England character into a tale of clumsy incident, and this is a rudimentary artistic blunder.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 21, 1874.

THE money market has remained easy at 2 and 3 per cent. for call loans with time money, secured by collaterals, ranging from 3 to 6 per cent. according to the length of time the loans run, varying from 30 days to 4 months. Commercial paper is in good demand; prime endorsed names running 3 and 4 months are quoted at 5 to 6½ per cent., and that having a shorter time to run 3 to 5 per cent., according to its length.

London advices by cable are favorable, the Bank of England gaining £121,000 in bullion for the week ending on Thursday; the discount rate remains standing at 3 per cent.

The weekly statement of the New York banks for the week ending September 18 showed no important changes affecting their surplus reserve; the gain of $1,041,700 in the deposits is nearly met by a corresponding gain in legal-tenders, while the specie remains at very nearly the same figures as those of the previous week. The following shows the changes in the different items going to make up the statement:

	Sept. 12.	Sept. 19.		Differences.
Loans	$280,867,800	$280,569,200	Dec..	$298,600
Circulation	25 605,700	25,638,600	Inc..	32,900
Deposits	237,882,500	236,840,800	Dec..	1,041,700
Specie	19,863,100	19,952,100	Inc..	89,000
Legal-tenders	65,325,900	64,804,800	Dec..	521,100
Total re-erve	$85,189,000	$84,756,900	Dec..	$432,100
Reserve required against deposits	59,470,625	59,210,200	Dec..	260,425
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	25,718,375	25,546,700	Dec..	171,675

The stock market was fairly active during the week, with prices tending upward. The decision of the court in Wisconsin against the railroads created a temporary depression in the entire list of stocks, as well as in those directly affected by it—the Chicago and Northwestern and Milwaukee and St. Paul, the decline in which was 3¼ per cent. in the common stock of the former and 2¼ per cent. in that of the latter; the preferred stocks of the roads were affected only 2½ for the Northwestern and 1¾ for the St. Paul. Union Pacific and Lake Shore have been the strongest stocks on the speculative list, and show an improvement during the week of 2 per cent. on the former and 1¾ on the latter. On the balance of the list, prices were irregular, Central and Hudson, Rock Island, Western Union, Hannibal and St. Joseph, and the Quicksilver stocks being firm, and Wabash and Pacific Mail weak.

In the investment shares the demand has been greatest for New Jersey Central and Delaware, Lackawanna and Western, both of which have been firm in price with a decidedly upward tendency, especially for New Jersey Central, which improved upon the announcement to-day that the untaken consolidated bonds recently offered to the stockholders, amounting to $1,000,000, had been placed by the Company at 95 per cent., against 90 per cent., the price at which the entire $5,000,000 had been previously offered to the stockholders.

The market to-day was strong, and prices seemed to take a fresh upward start. Union Pacific sold up to 36¾; Lake Shore to 76¾; New Jersey Central, 105½; Delaware, Lackawanna and Western to 109¼; Western Union, 78¾, extra dividend of 2 per cent.; C., C. and I. C. to 11⅞; and Erie to 37½. Northwestern and Milwaukee and St. Paul also improved from Saturday's prices. The effect of an adverse decision to these roads in the Wisconsin court seems to have been almost fully discounted in Wall Street; as it is, it affects only about one-fourth of the mileage of the Northwestern, and one-third of that of the St. Paul, as to local tariffs, and does not have any bearing whatever on the through traffic of either.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, September 19, 1874:

	Monday.		Tuesday.		Wed'day.		Thursday		Friday.		Saturday		Sales.
Erie	34⅜	34⅞	34⅞	35¼	34	34⅞	34¼	34½	34¼	34⅞	34	35¼	52,300
Lake Shore	75	75⅝	75¼	76½	75¼	75⅝	75⅜	76½	75⅝	76⅜	71⅞	76½	203 100
N. West. Com	36⅜	38¼	36¼	38⅛	35¼	36½	36½	37½	36¼	36⅝	35¼	38½	90,200
Do. pfd	55	56	55¼	57	54⅜	55	54⅜	55	54¼	54⅜	53½	57	2,200
St. Paul Com	32½	34	32⅜	34½	32½	33⅜	33	34½	32⅜	33½	32¼	34½	69,900
Do. pfd	51⅜	53	....	53	51¼	53	5 ⅜	53⅜	....	52½	51¼	53⅜	1,7 0
O. & M	24½	24⅜	24⅜	25	23½	24½	24	24½	23⅜	24¼	23⅜	25	10,200
Union Pacific	33½	34½	33⅞	34⅝	34⅛	34¼	34⅜	34⅜	34½	35¼	33⅜	35⅝	197,300
Pacific Mail	48⅜	48⅞	48¼	48⅜	47⅜	48¼	47½	48½	47½	48	47¼	48⅞	55,800
W. U. Tel	79⅝	80⅜	79⅝	80¼	79¼	79⅝	79½	80	79½	79⅜	79¼	8 ⅛	123,200
N. J. Central	....	....	....	104¾	....	105	....	105	....	105	105	105	1,100
D., L. & W	109	109¼	109	109⅜	....	109½	....	109¼	....	109¼	109	109¼	805
C. C. & I. C	8½	8⅝	8⅜	8⅜	....	8⅜	9	9⅜	9¼	10	8¼	10½	8 600
Rock Island	100⅜	101⅜	100⅜	101⅜	100¼	101	100⅞	101⅜	101	101⅜	100¼	101⅜	22,100
N. Y. C. & H. R	104⅜	104½	104	104⅞	103⅜	104¼	100¼	104¼	100⅜	100⅜	99⅜	104½	14 010
Wabash	32½	33½	32⅜	33⅜	32⅜	33⅛	32⅜	3 ¼	32⅜	32⅞	31⅜	33½	63,800
Harlem	....	126⅜	....	126½	..	125	....	126¼	....	126¼	125	126⅜	510

Governments improved during the early part of the week in sympathy with the higher price of gold. Later, the market was a shade weaker, and closed on Saturday at very nearly the same prices as those at the close of the previous week.

The Syndicate which took the new 5's has brought out the loan in Europe, and offers the bonds for sale in amounts to suit purchasers.

The market closed this evening at the following quotations:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Registered 6's, 1881, c	117¾	118⅛	Registered 5-20's, 1867, c	116⅝	116¾
Registered 5-20's, 1862, c	112⅜	112¾	Registered 5-20's, 1868, c	116½	117
Registered 5-20's, 1864, c	114⅞	115¼	Registered 5's, 10-40's, c	111¼	111¾
Registered 5-20's, 1865, M and N	115½	116	Registered 5's of 1881	111⅝	112
Registered 5-20's, 1865, J. and J.	115¼	115⅝	U. S. Currency 6's	117¼	117¾

The New Orleans trouble created a strong feeling in gold, the price on Wednesday advancing to 110⅛, but with the withdrawal of the McEnery party the premium quickly receded, and the price finally settled down to 109⅝. The following shows the range of quotations during the week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Sept. 14	109⅜	109⅜	109⅜	109⅜
Tuesday, Sept. 15	109½	109⅞	109½	109¾
Wednesday, Sept. 16	109⅞	110⅛	109¾	110
Thursday, Sept. 17	110	110	109¾	109⅞
Friday, Sept. 18	109¾	109¾	109⅝	109⅝
Saturday, Sept. 19	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 1, 1874.

The Week.

THE Republican Convention has met at Utica, and in an entirely harmonious manner renominated the old ticket—General Dix being perhaps the only name on it which possesses much interest for the general public. The retention of General Dix, whether the convention felt it to be necessary or not, will be received by men of all parties, we venture to say, with genuine satisfaction. His administration has been successful to a rare degree. It is worthy of notice, and especially by professional politicians, that the success has been largely due to thorough independence. He has not made himself subservient to any prejudice or passion or private interest, and has not tried to please anybody in particular, and the result is that he has pleased everybody. The platform is in no way remarkable, or rather is more remarkable for what it does not contain than for what it does. It adheres to the old jargon, which has been so judiciously and effectively abandoned in the Democratic platform, and produces in it a string of very harmless propositions, which do not touch many of the principal topics of the day. It opens, as usual, by "pointing to the past," etc., and then, as might also be expected, denounces "Ku-klux assassins" and "White-League revolutionists," and informs the public that "armed attempts to subvert the government of a State is revolution," which of course is wrong, and that "the supremacy of the law must be maintained at any cost." It then calls for payment of the public debt in coin, and a return to specie payments, denounces inflation, and lauds the Administrations of President Grant and of Governor Dix.

Mr. Conkling of course dwelt on the Louisiana affair with great gusto and true professional solemnity. But he did not get very far into the subject without indulging in a characteristic piece of untruthful suppression. He said that even if it was true that Kellogg was fraudulently counted into the governorship—"what of it—suppose he was," said he; "we in New York have known equal wrongs; it is an open secret that John T. Hoffman was counted in as governor when John A. Griswold was elected. We did not know then that in two cities forty thousand was added to the count; but we had far more conclusive evidence that Mr. Hoffman was not elected than has yet been discovered in the case of Mr. Kellogg. But we did not . . . seize by force the capital of the State, shoot down the police, barricade the streets, and inaugurate a reign of terror on the ruins of the law." The asterisks in the above cover a highly-colored account of the disorders in the interior of the State. The dishonesty of it does not lie simply in the embellishment of the circumstances attending the overthrow of Kellogg. It lies also in the deceitfulness of the parallel between what occurred here in 1868 and what occurred in New Orleans. Kellogg was not fraudulently counted in as Hoffman was, because he did not wait for a count at all. There was, in fact, no counting whatever prior to his installation. The comparison would be accurate and truthful if after the election, and before the votes were canvassed, Judge Barnard, or a man like him, on the Federal bench, had issued an order in the night from Josephine Mansfield's house in Twenty-third Street, in a trumped-up suit; and the United States marshal had under this order taken United States regulars up to Albany, seized the State capital at two o'clock in the morning, and then called on Hoffman to come and take possession, and bring his members of the legislature with him, and had then and there installed him and them in the government by force of arms, and the Attorney-General at Washington had telegraphed his approval, and directed the marshal to kill with rifles and artillery anybody who offered any opposition to it.

The seizure of the State-house in New Orleans by the McEnery party led to the capture and examination of Kellogg's letters and check-book, from which it appears that he had retained among others Caleb Cushing, B. F. Butler, and Senator Carpenter as counsel in the proceedings before the Supreme Court arising out of the attempt to overrule Durell's orders, and had paid them all heavy fees, Butler, as might be expected, clamoring for more. There has, we think, been more fuss made over these revelations than they merit. They show undoubtedly that leading men in the Republican party occupied the position of feed lawyers in matters which they were called on as legislators to decide judicially; but in one case at least—Senator Carpenter's—the fee had no influence on his senatorial judgment, as nobody could more strenuously oppose the Kellogg usurpation than he has done. In fact, there is no sign that the fees had any effect on the political course of anybody who took them, and yet there can be no question of the impropriety of the practice of taking fees as counsel by members of Congress in political cases in which Congress is likely to have to act judicially. The whole tone of political circles at Washington with regard to money has, however, been so much lowered since General Grant's accession to the Presidency, that we feel there is little use in commenting on this kind of thing until we have a change at headquarters. To scold Chandler, the Chairman of the Republican National Committee, who appears to have come into the case *ex officio*, for taking Kellogg's money when Boss Shepherd is the President's intimate friend, and was renominated by him for the government of the District after he had been swept out of office by a legislative act for gross corruption and disorder, seems to us a waste of energy; just as we think it has been, since Butler was allowed to put Simmons in the Boston Custom-house, a waste of energy to grumble over the condition of the Civil Service. We denounce Marshal Packard, who, by the bye, drew heavily also on Kellogg's bank account, as the prime mover in the Louisiana troubles, but more as an act of justice to the unfortunate people whom he plagues than because we have any hope of his removal.

The Committee of Seventy of New Orleans have issued to the people of the United States an address of the same able, forcible, and temperate character as that which came from the same source in 1872. They declare that Kellogg was defeated by a clear majority of the votes cast, as was shown by the official count, and quote the report of the Senate Committee in support of their assertion. They show that after the Durell outrage had been perpetrated, they appealed respectfully to the President, but were repelled with insult by the Attorney-General; they then appealed to Congress during two successive sessions without any result; and, finally, they went to the Supreme Court, which dismissed them for want of jurisdiction. They thus had only one hope left—a new election. The Governor holds for four years, and consequently does not vacate until 1877. But this fall a State treasurer, all the members of the House of Representatives, and half the Senate were to be chosen. If the Conservatives could have elected a majority, they would have gained a solid victory, which would at least have given them a fair representation in the State government. They therefore went to work in the ordinary peaceful way by the holding of a convention, the nomination of candidates, and the formation of clubs in every ward of the city of New Orleans and of every parish in the State. But they were here met by the new registration law passed by the Kellogg Legislature, which "gives to the supervisors of registration supreme power, so that they may refuse to register a citizen or strike his name from the registry at their mere will and pleasure, and no court can or dare, under a penalty of $500, entertain any application to enforce the right of the voter to be registered as such." Under this law, Kellogg appointed none but creatures of his own, many of them persons of disreputable character. The result was

what the address stigmatizes as "a fraudulent registration, in which white citizens were arbitrarily excluded from the registry and certificates distributed lavishly among the colored people." To test the right of the supervisors to exclude persons thus arbitrarily from the lists, a voter, clearly entitled, applied to the Superior District Court for a mandamus; but his motion was denied on the ground that the courts were expressly prohibited from interfering. All peaceful modes of redress having thus been tried in vain, the citizens took arms—and the Kellogg government disappeared. An obvious error crept into our article on the "Louisiana Revolution" last week, when the taxes were made to rise from "37½ cents on the dollar to $2," instead of "on the $100." The figures appeared correctly in the *Nation* of Jan. 11, 1872.

The difficulty between Chicago and the insurance companies is coming to a head. Some of the demands made by the companies have been complied with by the city, but as to others nothing has been done, and the National Board of Underwriters has again issued a notice that on the 1st of October it will advise all insured members of the Board to cease writing policies in Chicago. In all probability this will lead to some arrangement, for it is inconceivable that the authorities in a place so exposed to fire will not take all means in their power to render themselves safe, and there seems at present to be some misunderstanding as to the powers of the legislature and the city in the premises. The tone of public discussion, however, in Chicago on the subject might be more enlightened than it is. The Chicago *Tribune*, for instance, calls the action of the insurers a "dastardly blow," evincing a "mean spirit," and intimates that the "animus of their conduct" is to be "sought for in the city of New York." What this means we do not understand, unless it has some reference to the Mayor and Mr. John Kelly's differences. The *Tribune* adds that if they were going to withdraw at all, the obviously "decent and businesslike way" for them to have taken would have been through private instructions to their agents. Instead of that, their resolutions have been published in all the papers, and it is just as well known in St. Louis that Chicago is in trouble as it is in Illinois. This is undoubtedly tyranny; and we are surprised to see no suggestion that the companies should be wound up and the National Government undertake the business. At any rate, we are glad to hear from the *Tribune* that the National Board "has done its worst," that the *Tribune* has "no respect for it or its executive committee," and wants no more of "its insolent dictation—the product of combined ignorance and jesuitism." This is conceived in the right spirit, and will probably show the tyrants that the people are in earnest. On the other hand, the tyrants seem to be in earnest too.

There are now three parties in the field in South Carolina—the Regular Republicans, the Republican bolters, and the Taxpayers. The dissatisfaction with the nomination of Chamberlain has caused a serious split among the regulars, and at a colored ratification mass-meeting held last week at Charleston, a strong anti-Chamberlain feeling was manifested among the negroes—Ransier, an Independent member of Congress, being elected chairman, and the voices of the Chamberlain speakers being drowned by cheering for Judge Green, the Independent Republican candidate for governor. The ratification resolutions were not even offered. The Independents have a strong hope of being able by a union with the Taxpayers to elect Mr. Green, who, on the score of ability and principle, seems to have everything to recommend him. Chamberlain, meanwhile, is trying, without much success, to persuade the public that he is in no way responsible for the bond frauds of Scott's administration. A correspondent of the *Tribune*, who seems to have looked into the question pretty thoroughly at the time, and to have been in a position which gave him peculiar opportunities of getting information, writes to that paper to say that he considers Chamberlain one of the most deeply involved. As Attorney-General, Chamberlain was a member of the Financial Board through which the frauds were committed, and on his sole recommendation the financier Kimpton (a college classmate of Chamberlain's), was appointed agent to negotiate the State loans in New York. Kimpton was a "curbstone broker," without property or responsibility, and the only bond he was required to give was his own recognizance.

The correspondent who narrates the history of the transactions which followed says that, on enquiring of Scott why he had accepted such a bond, Scott had replied that he had not examined it thoroughly, "because Chamberlain had told him it was all right." Besides this, all the acts for the increase of the State debt were drawn by Chamberlain, and were cunningly worded, so that the Board might be able, or at any rate were able, to sell any number of bonds, reporting if they chose only the net sum obtained, and thus being enabled to make this net sum whatever they pleased. Finally, when the orange had been sucked dry, and it was plain that the nominal total debt could not be increased, "a bill was prepared by Chamberlain, and put through the legislature in February, 1872, if I remember right, known as the Conversion Bond Act. This act authorized the issue of a new species of bond in exchange for any of the old bonds out, the ostensible object being to simplify the debt by converting it all into one kind of obligation. What the real object was is only too well known now to the swindled purchasers of these pretended securities. Six millions of these bonds were sold or hypothecated by Kimpton in New York, and not one cent of the money he got for them was ever used to cancel any portion of the former indebtedness of the State. What he and his fellow-conspirators in the Bond Ring did with the money remains a mystery." The correspondent admits that Chamberlain is educated and has "æsthetic tastes," and that he would make a better governor than Scott or Moses. But he thinks also that, until the natural inference from the facts he gives—that Chamberlain was privy to the conspiracy—be disproved, Chamberlain had better be kept in a strictly private station.

The international rifle-match between Ireland and America took place on Saturday at Creedmoor, and resulted in an American victory after a very close and exciting contest. The score was 934 to 931, and the shooting is said to have been the best ever done. The result reflects great credit upon the gentlemen who got the match up, and will, we trust, encourage them to further efforts. A generation ago America had a world-wide fame as a rifle-using country, and it is gratifying to know from the result of contests like that at Creedmoor that, not only in the backwoods, but in scientific shooting also, we still hold our own. One of the most pleasing things about this match, when we consider that it was international, was that it did not break up in confusion amid loud accusations of fraud on both sides and threats of violence from the spectators, followed for the succeeding week by letters to the newspapers proving that the targets used by the two sides were not the same size; that the ground was not measured fairly; that the score was not correctly kept; and that the sights of the rifles had been tampered with. On the contrary, the greatest good feeling seems to have prevailed, and the match terminated with a festive procession to the Windsor House, from the balcony of which the Lord Mayor had the pleasure of addressing an enthusiastic public, a large portion of which was quite as Irish as himself. The visit of the Lord Mayor and his party has been from the first an immense success. The friends of peace might perhaps have feared for the result of the necessary interview with the Mayor, but it went off very nicely, no race hostility being developed on either side.

The election for the Department of Maine-et-Loire, which was looked for with some anxiety as the first which was to take place after the Bonapartist triumph in Calvados, came off on the 14th ult. There were three candidates—M. Bruat, an Orleanist by conviction and a Septennalist by force of circumstances; M. Berger, the Bonapartist; and M. Maille, the Republican, who was not long ago Mayor

of Angers, but was removed for publicly reproaching the Lyceum—or public school of that town—for having dismissed an inspector because he was a Republican. The department has been in times past strongly Legitimist, but the Monarchists put up no candidate this time, on the ground that it is not worth while to struggle for seats in an Assembly which must shortly be dissolved. The Comte de Chambord was appealed to to decide what course his followers should adopt, but all he would say was that they must not support the Septennate; with this reservation, they were left free to vote as they pleased, and the general expectation was that they would support the Bonapartist sooner than the Republican. The result has been that the Republican has been elected by over three thousand majority. The great uncertainty as to the course pursued by the Legitimists in a strongly Legitimist district of course deprives these figures of a large part of their value as an indication of the drift of public opinion.

The Prussian Government continues to carry on the war against the Ultramontanes with the greatest vigor. All foreign-born nuns have received orders to quit the country, and the same rule is about to be, or has already been, applied to foreign-born priests and monks. The Old-Catholic movement at the same time begins, in spite of Father Hyacinthe's troubles at Geneva, to assume an appearance of greater strength and solidity. The late congress at Freiburg received an account from Bishop Reinkens of the most encouraging character as to its progress, as the result of a journey he had been making through Germany, although the number of members he ascribed to the Church—100,000—is nothing very formidable. Delegates were present from the American, English, and Greek Churches, though the amount of authority with which they were entitled to speak was, of course, a point on which there might be a difference of opinion. Two committees have been formed for the purpose of discussing terms of union, one with the Greek and the other with the Anglican Church, Dr. Döllinger being the chairman of the latter. As regards the relations of the new church to the state, the congress proclaimed that the Old Catholics were entitled to their share of the church property, although they did not seek the exclusive use of it, and declared that it was the duty of the Government to take a vote in each parish upon the question of adhesion or non-adhesion to the decrees of the Council of the Vatican.

The "Institute of International Law," which held its first meeting at Ghent last year, has this year held a second one, which has attracted rather more attention, at Geneva. Mr. John Westlake, one of the English members, has sent an account of the body and its proceedings to the London *Times*, from which it appears that it is limited to fifty members, of whom there are now forty-four, and twenty-three took part in the recent meeting, either personally or by written communication. The American members are Mr. David Dudley Field, Mr. William Beach Lawrence, and Dr. Woolsey of New Haven. The discussion this year was confined to three subjects: (1) The regulation of procedure in international arbitration. (2) The "Three Rules" agreed on by Great Britain and the United States in the *Alabama* case. (3) The utility of rendering obligatory for all states, by means of one or more international treaties, a certain number of general rules of private international law to secure the uniform decision of conflicts between different civil and criminal legislations. The meeting seems to have expended most of its attention on this last point, as that on which its opinions and reclamations are likely to have most influence, and that on which most progress had already been made by international negotiation. Mr. Westlake mentions, in illustration of his report, the difference between the rules of Anglo-American jurisprudence and those of the Continent, as to what fixes a man's "personal law"—that is, the law regulating the age at which he attains his majority, the validity of his marriage, the distribution of his personal property in case of intestacy, etc. In England and here it is the law of his domicile; on the Continent, or at least in France and Italy, it is the law of his political nationality; and the adoption of a common rule would in these days of incessant migration be of course a great gain.

The International has again shown its head in Europe after many troubles and reverses, and has once more startled society a little by its strange doctrines. The Seventh Congress met at Brussels on the 8th ult., and the report of proceedings has just reached us. The attendance was thin, and the proceedings somewhat gloomy, but the gospel preached was just as ferocious as ever. The smallness of the gathering was due to the fact that the Association is now under the ban of the police in its principal seats. The "Latin races"—that is to say, Frenchmen, Italians, and Spaniards—are its principal supporters, but neither in France, Spain, nor Italy is it able to emerge from the comparatively powerless condition of a secret society. The Italians and Spaniards made up for their feebleness in numbers and resources, however, by sending on addresses, which are the only truly radical calls to reform we ever remember to have seen. Here is a passage from them which contains the pith of their programme:

"It is with a heart filled with an immense faith in the realization of that programme that to-day we conspire for the complete destruction of the state, with all its malevolent institutions, the annihilation of every kind of authority under whatever form it may present itself, and for taking possession by the uplifted masses of all the implements of labor, machines, and raw material, including the soil and all the riches which, by the most flagitious robbery—the exploitation of the starving multitude—alone it has been possible to accumulate in the hands of a small number of enjoyers. These acts we propose to carry out with a provident promptitude, not by decreeing to accomplish with an efficacious energy, not by proclaiming; we find all summed up in the two words 'Anarchy' and 'Collectivism,' conditions which we consider indispensable to ensure the triumph of the social revolution and the realization of our programme."

What a poor, time-serving, weak-kneed, cowardly, heartless, conservative epicurean this makes even our own Phillips seem!

The principal speaker at the Congress was a German delegate, who gave a very doleful account of the political and social abasement of the working-classes in Germany. He said the war had made their condition worse than ever, and reproached Bismarck bitterly with the exclusion of men under twenty-five from the franchise, because, he said, the young men were generally revolutionists. He had, however, little to say that was very comforting with regard to the Socialist cause in Germany, except that 400,000 votes had been cast at the last election for Socialist candidates. That Socialist ideas gain ground in Germany and that the German Socialist is a peculiarly ferocious and untamable variety there is, however, unhappily little doubt; but the picture, nevertheless, has its bright side, and it is very bright in some ways. For instance, the Schulze-Delitzsch "co-operative savings-banks," which that gentleman started in 1853, and which enable the workingman to get credit through his own economy and industry, during their first year only did a business of $620. It was, however, announced at the Co-operative Congress—for the sane men have their congresses, too—held in August at Bremen, that there were now in Germany 2,049 of these banks in existence. Only 834 sent in their reports to the Congress, and these alone had during the year 1873 a paid-up capital of $20,000,000; had advanced in loans to their members during the same period over $300,000,000; had a reserve fund of nearly $10,000,000, and deposits to the amount of $65,000,000. It must be remembered that all this is the money of small shopkeepers, mechanics, and laborers. The eight hundred associations we have mentioned have 1,300,000 members. They are, from the fact that they only have sent in their reports, probably the largest and most prosperous. But even if we treat the remaining two-thirds as only equal to these in numbers and volume of business, it must be acknowledged that a new and formidable bulwark has been added to the defences of rational civilization.

THE INFLATION OF THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL.

WE took occasion once or twice, during the Boutwell-Richardson period, to call attention to the enormous accession to the powers and responsibilities of the Secretary of the Treasury which had resulted from the relation of the General Government to the banks and the currency created by the war. This officer at the foundation of the Government was charged simply with the duty of collecting the revenue, keeping a proper account of it, and disbursing it in the manner and for the objects prescribed by Congress. This was the whole extent of his functions down to 1860. He by no means occupied the position of an English chancellor of the exchequer or of a Continental minister of finance. He was not authorized or expected to frame schemes of taxation, or estimates of receipts or liabilities. He was not allowed to have a seat in Congress, or to exert any direct influence on that body in favor of or against any financial plan. The report which Alexander Hamilton made on the finances of the infant Republic was called for by a special resolution of Congress. His successors as a rule confined themselves in their annual report to the President to a recital of the manner in which the formal work prescribed by the legislature had been done in their department. The more enterprising, perhaps, made a few suggestions, which rarely received any attention; but the more modest or timid were at perfect liberty to make no suggestions at all. This state of things whether desirable or undesirable was the state of things created by the Constitution and contemplated by Congress in establishing the Treasury Department. The Secretary of State was, in short, a sort of head-clerk, who looked after the financial business of the Executive and supplied Congress with information when he was asked for it. The management of the finances, in the higher sense of the term, was reserved to committees of the two Houses, and especially to the Committee of Ways and Means of the Lower House, which might communicate with the Secretary of the Treasury if it pleased, but was not bound to do so.

How all this was changed by the war we do not need to tell over again. Mr. Chase, through the terrible and unlooked-for necessities of the case, was for a time forced into the position of a real minister of finance. At that period, the country was only too glad to allow anybody to assume responsibility who was willing to do so. Mr. McCulloch, presuming on the precedent thus created, endeavored for a short time to play the same part, and would probably have been allowed to play it if it had not been for his connection with Andrew Johnson. But his successor, who was more favorably situated, and was by no means bashful, made the best possible use of Mr. Chase's example. By the end of Grant's first term, the Secretary of the Treasury had armed himself with powers such as neither Colbert nor Turgot, nor Fould nor Pitt, nor Peel nor Gladstone, ever dreamed of claiming. Not only was he the chief of a great many thousand officials holding their places, not during good behavior but during his pleasure, but he was armed with discretion in the construction of obscure, vague, and contradictory revenue laws, in the remission of fines and penalties of enormous amount to which the most honest-minded manufacturer, trader, or merchant might any day render himself liable; was able to build up national banks by his indulgence or ruin them by his hostility; and, though last not least, was controlling the money market, and raising and lowering the prices of goods, by sales of gold made when he pleased, and by expanding and contracting the paper legal-tender currency at such times as he thought proper, over a margin amounting to one-seventh of the whole issue. Nobody, we believe, was ever in modern times, and in a civilized country, put in possession of such power over men's property and business as Mr. Boutwell exercised; yet in one of his reports he actually, with a curious simplicity and self-confidence, asked Congress to enlarge it still further. Now, all this may have been good or bad; which it was, we shall not discuss here. We merely wish to point out now that this expansion of the functions of the Treasury Department has occurred indirectly, without specific legislation, and without its being foreseen or expected by the country, and without proper provision being made for it in the shape of responsibility. No man should, under a constitutional government, be armed with such powers as Mr. Boutwell possessed unless the public is at the same time furnished with the means of calling him to account and compelling him to explain himself at short intervals.

We wish to-day to direct attention to the fact that the very same process of inflation is now going on in the Attorney-General's office, or, as a recent act has magniloquently designated it, the "Department of Justice." When this officer was first created by Congress in 1791, it was simply provided that he should be a "meet person, learned in the law," whose duty it should be to conduct such suits in the Supreme Court as concerned the United States, and give legal advice to the President and heads of departments when he should be asked for it. This modest position he occupied down to 1861, when, in view of the complications occurring in different parts of the country, he was charged with the superintendence and direction of the United States marshals and district-attorneys in the discharge of their duties, and they were ordered to report to him. This was a very natural and proper arrangement, and when it was made probably no one had the least idea of what would grow out of it.

What has grown out of it is this: As a result of the Reconstruction Acts and the Constitutional Amendments, a large number of the Southern States have been divided between, not two political parties, but two bitterly hostile factions, which are only prevented from flying at each other's throats by the armed force of the United States, and one of which is led by adventurers from the North, who act under the superintendence or advice of the United States marshals, who have the control of the soldiers. The marshals are, in truth, everywhere political chiefs, who derive their strength from the fact that if the worst comes to the worst—that is, if their opponents lose all patience—they can bring up the troops. The importance of such an officer in States which are liable after any election to have two governors and legislatures disputing each other's claims to power, may be readily imagined. The control of the troops in the Southern States has, therefore, been transferred to the Attorney-General, who moves them on the marshal's report; for the claimants who demand Federal protection of course act under the marshal's direction. Indeed, the history of Louisiana since 1872, which has been so often told, fully illustrates the whole matter. Now, the result is that the Attorney-General's office has become a kind of political bureau, to which competitors for the government of sovereign States carry their petitions and proofs. Southern governors now report to him on the State elections, on the general condition of the State, on its finances and taxation, its criminal justice, and take his advice as to internal legislation. Political parties send in to him statements of their grievances, and ask him for redress against the tyranny or exactions of the local rulers, and he accepts all the power and influence which the position brings him with great equanimity. He snubs the proud, warns the unruly, discourages the wicked, and cheers on the faithful supporters of the Administration. His functions, indeed, are a combination of those of the French Minister of Justice and Minister of the Interior and of the Governor-General of British India. That is, he has the supervision of the officers of the law courts in the discharge of their ordinary duties; he has the direction, also, of a kind of prefects of departments in the United States marshals, whose functions are semi-political; and his relations to the Southern governors are very like those of the Governor-General to the native princes who are still allowed to hold their territory. He admonishes them if they administer badly, upholds them by force if he approves of them, and, as in Kellogg's case, calls on them to resign if he thinks the public interest requires it.

It must be admitted that this is a remarkable kind of officer to be evolved in a dozen years out of a "meet person, learned in the law," charged with giving his opinion when he was asked for it. Moreover, unless some great change comes over the South, of which as yet there is little sign, his functions are likely to be still further enlarged. It must not be supposed that even now they are limited to

cases in which the interference of the Executive is permitted by the Constitution. In Arkansas, the troops were employed under his orders for six weeks, not in defending the State government against insurrectionary violence, but in preventing the *de facto*, and, as it was afterwards decided, the *de jure* Governor from using the State forces to expel a usurper, who had seized the State-house, and held possession of it with an armed mob. For this the Attorney-General did not take the trouble to offer the slightest excuse. Finally, the officer now exercising these extraordinary powers is one in whose selection the people have no voice, and who has not displayed any talent either legal or political. When he was nominated for the Chief-Justiceship, the country was thoroughly indignant. He is, moreover, acting as the servant of a President who treats his ministers as members of his staff, and all criticism of them by the public as an impertinence unworthy of notice. We draw no conclusions from these facts. We simply offer them as food for reflection.

SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARSHIP.

PRESIDENT PORTER, of Yale College, has been discussing recently, in the columns of the *College Courant*, existing defects in the "secondary" school-system—in the schools, that is, which undertake to fit boys for college; but his remarks obviously apply, and indeed he apparently restricts them, to schools supported by taxation. He does not make any remarks about the numerous private schools scattered all over the country which undertake to fit boys for college. But with the growth of the country in wealth, these schools, which receive most of the children in comfortable circumstances who are fitting for Harvard, Yale, or Princeton, are growing every year in numbers and importance. At no time in the history of the country have the older colleges been so crowded as at present, and at no time probably has a father who desires to find for his son a good place of education, been so embarrassed by the number and variety of the opportunities afforded him. There are Catholic, Orthodox, Episcopalian, and Unitarian schools. There are French, German, and American schools. There are schools which endorse and schools which repudiate the dormitory system; schools which give their pupils the benefit of country air and improving scenery, and schools in which the pupils are turned out every afternoon by the right flank to get their scenery and air in Washington Parade Ground or in Tompkins Square. There are schools which advertise modestly and truthfully, and schools which are conducted on the same sound business principles which have led to success and wealth many an enterprising vendor of patent medicines. There are good schools and bad schools; and the difficulty in which parents find themselves is, among so many, to know which are good and which are bad. The intentions of parents are as a rule honorable, and what they desire is to find some one who will give a boy a home, keep him strong and well, sound in mind and pure in morals, and give him such an education as will enable him to enter college creditably. There are difficulties in the way, however.

In making enquiry into the character of the various schools which offer themselves, he is surprised to find that there is no common standard to which to refer them. They "fit boys for college," it is true, but with most of them this is only an incidental aim. They are not connected in any way with any particular college. They have a few boys who would like to enter Harvard, others who would like perhaps to go to Dartmouth, and still others who have no definite idea what to do. Some of them are going to travel abroad, some are not going to college at all but are going into business. With this variety of tastes and intentions, the most obvious thing for teachers is to undertake to teach everything—to have classical studies, modern languages, music, drawing, and science all provided for, and to have, as the result, a smattering of many things and the mastery of nothing. The bewildered parent is perfectly unable to tell whether his son can be fitted for the particular college he has selected for him, because every college has prescribed qualifications of its own, and the school must be ready to fit boys for any of them. There is no test which he can apply. The teacher appears to be an educated man; his references are always good; and the result is that, after going about from one school to another, some good, some bad, until, what with references and curriculums and conversations about the limits and the necessities of culture, he has been nearly driven crazy, the poor man very likely ends with the very place he meant to avoid, and falls into the hands of some loud-mouthed charlatan—and there are plenty of them at work—who, having failed in every legitimate business, has at last determined to try the educational trade, has got out his fall circular requesting the public to give him a call and "see for themselves" whether he cannot furnish them with the real genuine educational article. If the parent does not fall into the hands of one of these educators, he is apt to end by settling the question at haphazard, and the chances are that in the end the boy, in getting to college, finds himself unprepared and heavily handicapped with conditions.

This is unquestionably a bad state of affairs, and for no one is it worse than the school-teachers themselves. That there should be no protection for a patient, hard-working school-master, who has sent generations of boys with credit to pass their college examinations, against scheming charlatans who go into education to make what they can out of it, or incompetent addle-brains who are secured a school by their friends to prevent them from going to the poor-house, is a great hardship. There never was a time in the history of the world when sound education was more universally needed than now, and when really good teachers—men who in teaching do not merely fill their pupils' heads with verbal learning, but who broaden their minds, elevate their character, and fill them with generous ambition instead of sordid and grovelling aims—were more needed, and yet the man who is all this to his pupils is obliged to compete in the open market with rivals who, to get money, hunt up pupils as a Tombs lawyer does clients. It cannot be denied, either, that an educator who does this shows a good deal of intelligence. His boys may very likely not get into college, but this awkward fact can often be explained away by charging the boy with laziness; and the boys' fathers have, as a general rule, no means of telling whether the teacher is right or wrong. The school, too, is continually changing—old boys going and new boys coming—and unless it is in the immediate neighborhood of some college, and connected directly with that, it takes a long time to discover whether there is any radical defect in it.

Both in this country and in England the question of preparatory schools is beginning to attract a good deal of attention, owing to the increasing number of ill-prepared pupils who every year present themselves for admission. In England there is a connection between the universities and the great public schools, such as Harrow, Eton, and Rugby, to which we have nothing exactly corresponding in this country. But in that country, as in this, the want of adequate certainty as to the preparation of boys is a crying evil. The origin of the trouble is different in the two countries. On the other side of the water, the traditions of the great schools and the absence of inspection of them by the universities have had a tendency to send a number of boys to Oxford or Cambridge every year who are good cricketers at the bat or in the field, run well, swim well, and row well, but are not well grounded in the rudiments of Latin, Greek, and mathematics. In this country, owing to there being no supervision of the "secondary" schools by the universities, and owing to the absence of any system of public schools like that in England, the country has filled itself with an infinitude of schools calling themselves preparatory, all claiming to do pretty much the same things, some actually doing it well and some very ill, but affording to those most interested in education no means of knowing which are good and which are bad. The remedy adopted in England is very simple. Oxford and Cambridge have by joint action instituted a system of school examinations, the object of which is to test the instruction furnished in the preparing schools, and

which is to be extended to those which are not public. The universities offer to any school which sends pupils for examination to give those who are successful a certificate or diploma, which is to be considered as the equivalent of passing the first university examination. This certificate, besides being of advantage to the student, is also a direct inducement to the schools to greater thoroughness in preparation. Under the new system, there will be no sort of doubt as to which schools succeed most thoroughly in their work; and indeed, the best possible proof we could have of this is the publication of the results of the first examination in the *Times*, showing the relative standing of the schools. It has caused such a sensitive feeling among the less successful that several of them have felt obliged to publish letters explanatory of their low standing. Now, if this system recommends itself in England, it will be found ten times more useful here. Let Harvard and Yale, or any number of the older colleges which have the same or nearly the same scheme of education, institute a similar system. Let them announce that they will give diplomas or certificates in the same way. These diplomas would be the best proof of the character of secondary schools. Schools which generally secured them would rise in consideration, and those that generally failed to get them would fall. Of course, it will be objected to this plan that the colleges could not examine together, because they all have different standards. But it is not necessary that the examination should be for admission. It might be solely for the determination of the relative merits of schools, and for this purpose a special examination might be devised. Even now, with schools in the immediate neighborhood of the principal colleges, the practical test of admission is rigidly applied. It is perfectly well known about Boston, for instance, which of the local schools succeed in entering their boys and which do not, and the reputation of those schools is in the exact ratio of their success. With regard to schools at a distance, however, little or nothing is known, and we do not see how, until some such supervision is undertaken, it can be; or why under present circumstances the gentleman who treats education as a branch of trade, and invites the public to "walk up and see for themselves" whether his school is or is not all that it ought to be, is not wise in his generation.

AN EPITAPH.

WORLD, Flesh, and Devil gave him all they could,
Wealth, harlots, wine, and disbelief in good;
Fame, too, he bought, our modern kind of fame,
The morning-column reeking with his name;
Lifelong he never did his lusts deny
One pleasure sin could give, or money buy.
The halter bilked, a pandar's coward shot
Sent him to where he—nay, I had forgot;
That's *passé*, so they tell us who should know,
Put out with milk and water years ago:
No retribution, then? Yes, something worse
Than angry justice e'er distilled in verse;
He had (could shame or vengeance this exceed?)
Living, Gould's friendship, dead, the tears of Tweed!

1872.

STRASBOURG REVISITED.

PARIS, September 11, 1874.

I HAD paid a visit to Strasbourg two years before the war, and I could not bear the idea of seeing the beautiful old town torn by the bombardment. One of my friends had sent me an album of the photographs of the ruins just after the siege. I waited until there were no longer any ruins, and with some reluctance visited Strasbourg again during the last month. "The ruins of a church," says La Fontaine in one of his fables, "can be repaired—not so the ruins of a religion." In its material aspect Strasbourg is not much changed. The Faubourg de Pierre, which was the most exposed part of the town, and which was after the siege a heap of burning ruins, looks now quite new, and the pretty houses built in red sandstone have a much better appearance than the old wooden houses. The only monument of historical value which has been destroyed is the old Temple, containing the valuable library, which was burnt to the last volume. Some precious manuscripts were destroyed in the fire. In the place of the old Gothic church called the Temple, which had become the public library, you see now the rising walls of a new church, built in the purest Roman style (of the Alsatian Roman school, the model of which can be admired at Rosheim, in a little village church which is a jewel of art). The theatre and the prefecture had been completely destroyed, but are now rebuilt, and Herr von Moller, the Ober-President of Alsace, already inhabits the gorgeous rooms of the prefecture. The statue of Lezay-Marnesia, a prefect of the First Empire, still stands in front of it, but the bronze suffered during the siege, and the coat of this venerable functionary looks as if it had holes and had been badly mended. General von Fransecki, the hero of Sadowa, is now the commander of Strasbourg, and he lives in the rooms left by the last French general on the Place de Broglie, which bears the name of the grandfather of the present duke. Opposite, there is a new and splendid building, the Officers' Club, as the German officers live much by themselves. It cannot be said that society is shut against them. There is nothing left in Strasbourg of which to constitute anything which could go under the name of society. All the families which used to form it are gone; the liberal classes have made an exodus. Nothing has remained but the small bourgeoisie, the shopkeepers, and the people. In consequence of the absence of the cultured class, Strasbourg has become much more provincial than of old. The German functionaries, though they are much better paid than I had supposed, have also more provincial habits than the French functionaries. The most distinguished in every respect are those who belong to the bench; the German judges bear a very high character; but they live very much as do the small functionaries of the police or the administration—they smoke long pipes, drink in the *Bierhalle*, eat sausages and cheese in public, leave their wives at home. The inhabitants of Strasbourg were very much surprised at the difference of station, if I might say so, and of habits of most Germans and their wives. The gentleman, officer or civilian, eats a good dinner in the hotel, drinks good wine, and leaves his *Frau* at home to study and practise all the arts of simplicity. The wives of the highest functionaries were seen arriving almost without any luggage. I have seen with my own eyes an advertisement in a Strasbourg paper thus conceived: "I wish to find a good cook, one who can make *feine Kuchen*," and under it this name, "Generalin von Fransecki." Such a notice could not be found in a French paper. These are perhaps minute details; but details become important when you have two populations watching each other with sentiments of antipathy. The few Frenchmen of the higher class who have been obliged by circumstances to remain in Strasbourg, have incessant stories to tell, which all go to prove that society is extinct in Strasbourg, and that nothing can revive it.

Among the middle-classes and among the people I judged that much resentment was felt at the bombardment of the town. An old hop-merchant said to me: "After the battles of Woerth and Spicheren, Alsace was lost to France. The Germans by a mere blockade were sure to force our capitulation. If they wished to make us Germans, if they constantly appeal to the old ties of Strasbourg and the Empire, why did they burn our houses and keep us during fifty days under a rain of iron?" I doubt if this hop-merchant will ever forgive the conquerors the long hours of agony of the bombardment. I went to see in the botanical garden of the University the tombs of many victims of that time; flowers are constantly brought there and placed on the little wooden crosses. A plain stone monument has been erected there, but quite out of view of the street. It bears this simple date, 1870—not a word, not an inscription; the German authorities would not permit it. Not far from the University buildings is the citadel; not a single stone is left of the barracks, and of the chapel which formed a quadrangle in the citadel everything was burned, and iron lay almost a foot deep over the whole area after the capitulation. New buildings are now erected in the place of the old ones, but the citadel will never be any longer the centre of the defence; immense forts are rising all round Strasbourg at a great distance; they are not yet finished, but bands of Italian workingmen are engaged in finishing the casemates and the parapets. A railway and a telegraphic line join all the forts together. These forts are not shut at the gorge; they form only powerful salients, and will be armed with heavy artillery. They will at least have one advantage: they will prevent a new bombardment of Strasbourg.

Much of the beauty of the promenades is gone; rows of trees were cut down during the siege in every direction. The road to the Rhine, once so shady, is now quite burnt by the sun. The old pontoon bridge is still there; and a *Trinkhalle*, called the "Rheinlust," has been built close by, where the German soldiers and the girls of Baden may be seen dancing on Sundays. There was something indescribably saddening to me in this gayety of the conquerors—for they are still looked upon as conquerors. I returned slowly back to Strasbourg, along the old familiar dykes of the Rhine, gazing at the

mystic spire of the cathedral. How often, in my infancy, I had gazed upon it for hours! There it stood, as tall, as majestic as ever—quite unchanged. It is only when you go round it on the *place* which surrounds it on three sides that you can see the wounds of the bombardment. The roof of the nave, which was burned one night, has been completely restored, but in every direction you see patches of new stones, which mark the place of the bombs. How many balustrades, columns, gargoyles, were thus broken. The four open staircases which stand on the four sides of the tower were so dangerously broken that ascent of them is still forbidden, and you cannot go higher than the terrace. The great cross, which sits on the crown of the spire, became a target during the bombardment. I overheard a guide showing an English traveller a photograph of this cross as it was after the siege, broken and looking as if it was going to fall (it was, in fact, only preserved by the iron bars of the lightning-rod): "It was an officer, sir, who hit the cross from the battery of Kehl. Was it not a good shot?" Here an Alsatian, who was also looking at the photograph, sharply interposed: "No, it was not a good shot; it was a very bad shot," and quickly walked away, perhaps for fear of the policeman who was walking about with his helmet on his head. I was informed that the work of repairs on the cathedral would last two years longer; but even now it looks as fine as ever; its wounds are like holes in a fine lace-work, which do not affect the lines and the general effect. Many churches have I seen in many countries; none has ever given me the sensation of sublimity so much as this spire of Strasbourg. The sensation cannot be analyzed; it is almost painfully intense. The old quaint houses, built of wood and carved at every angle, are still to be seen on the *place* of the cathedral; they were almost miraculously saved: next to the finest of all, a house was burnt to the ground.

There is hardly a street of the old town which I did not visit. I looked even for the old sign-posts; they are still written in French, but the names of the streets have been carefully translated into German. In the small country towns the innkeepers are obliged to have their sign-posts in German whenever they wish to have a new one or to repair the old one; the *Ours* must become the *Bär;* in Strasbourg this petty tyranny has not been tried. Large and handsome buildings have been erected by German companies in various places; cigar-shops, kept by Germans, are found everywhere, as the tobacco trade is now free; but the physiognomy of the town is not much altered. The Alsatians are a very open, inquisitive, and frank population; they are essentially what the Germans calls "gemüthlich," a word which cannot be well translated. They have none of the characteristics of the conspirator; they do not conspire, they probably will never do so; they are not hypocrites, they cannot well conceal their sentiments; they have a certain sort of simplicity which often must puzzle the Prussian authorities more than would an attitude of reserve. They do not show any personal aversion to the Germans, but they are never tired of explaining that their feelings have not and cannot be altered with regard to France. Old men will quietly say to the Germans, "How can you expect us to change at our time of life, and to forget what we have always cherished?" They have an irritating frankness sometimes, and will ask an official, "Are you a Prussian or a Saxon or a Bavarian? You are a Saxon; oh! then I will not hesitate to tell you what I could not tell a Prussian." The Prussians have contrived to make themselves the objects of the most marked aversion; they will say such insulting things; they have all the qualities and all the knowledge which science can give, but very little besides. "We don't want your affection," they say to the Alsatians; "we are quite contented with your obedience." Of course, I speak of the generality; there are everywhere to be found men of refined and delicate sentiment; these men must suffer, living as they do in an atmosphere of sorrowful hostility. Many ladies, wives of functionaries, would not remain in Alsatia; and the officials now sent there are the adventurers who want to make a rapid fortune. Alsatia must seem a California to men who were born in the sands of Brandenburg. When Napoleon entered this province, which seems made only for fishes to live in its lakes, he could not help exclaiming: "This is what these fellows call a fatherland." Fancy the Brandenburger arriving in this magnificent province, dotted with rich towns and villages, adorned with lovely hills crowned with castles—this valley which is a garden as rich as Lombardy, with its fields of tobacco, of Indian corn, its vineyards. The prey is worth many more battles, and it cannot be expected that these battles will not be fought. Alsatia is occupied rather than conquered; the statue of Kleber still stands on the *place*, which is crossed constantly by the Danes of Schleswig, the Brandenburgers, the Hessians, the Poles of Posen. The arms of the German Empire have been placed everywhere; the heraldic eagle, with his claws open and his two curling tongues, is everywhere to be seen; the wooden boxes of the sentries have been painted with the colors of the Empire; but it looks after all like the decoration of a theatre—you feel that there is no reality in it; a few strings pulled at Berlin might change all in a minute. Europe is on the eve of some hundred-years struggle between conflicting races and conflicting ideas. The revolution is a hidden force which may derange all the calculations of the statesman. I left Strasbourg convinced that after all there was not much reality in the tenure of it by Germany; there are dreams in history as there are in our sleep. Two hundred years of association, of common sufferings and pleasures, the long impression of the French culture and literature and language, are things which cannot be effaced by the blood of a few thousand men.

Notes.

IT should be generally known that a committee of the American Society of Civil Engineers has been instructed to consider two questions of the greatest importance for this city—the best means of rapid transit for passengers, and the best means of delivering, storing, and distributing goods and freight. Suggestions of all kinds from without are desired, and may be sent in writing to the secretary, Mr. G. Leverich, 63 William Street.——The little volume of poems by Omar Khayyam has met with so much appreciation in this country as to have exhausted the original edition and led to the publication of a second in England. Meantime, the importers have enjoyed the profits on a rise from sixty cents for the first copies to something like three dollars for the later. We learn that an admirer of the poet, the Rev. George Folsom, of Dedham, Mass., intends importing one or two hundred copies for private sale at cost, or about a dollar apiece.——The second volume of the Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy of Sciences, Arts, and Letters (1873–4) has appeared. The contents are somewhat scrappy, and of a greater local than general importance. The scientific department is best sustained. Prof. W. F. Allen continues his researches into the condition and classification of the English peasantry in the thirteenth century, and treats also of ranks and classes among the Anglo-Saxons. His colleague, Prof. J. B. Feuling, examines the etymology of the word *church*, and proposes a new derivation from Latin *cura, curatio (sc. animarum)*.——The recent very long rain-storm (Sept. 16 to 20 inclusive) furnishes a striking illustration of the truth of the discovery by the late Judge Butler (of Connecticut) of the belt of rain in the temperate zones, which he said passes over the latitude of New Haven at about the Autumnal Equinox in its journey southward, returning northward about the last of May. During August it is usually over British America, while an area of drought exists to the southward of it.——The soundings of the *Challenger* expedition furnish the *Geographical Magazine* for September with the materials for a contour chart of the Atlantic; and in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for July 25 we have numerous sections through the North and South Atlantic Oceans, showing both the contour and the temperature. Both these periodicals have timely articles on Arctic exploration. Rear-Admiral Sherard Osborn's advocacy of the Smith Sound entrance to the circumpolar region is confirmed by the return of the Austrian Weyprecht and Payer expedition; and this event also lends interest to the account of the geology of Novaia Zemlia given in the *Mittheilungen* by Prof. Höfer, companion of Count Wilczek in his visit to that dreary and very ancient land in the summer of 1872. No. 51 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal* has an article, illustrated by a map and profile, on the Peruvian railroad from Mollendo to Puno, on Lake Titicaca.——Prof. Wurtz's address, to which we have once or twice referred, is contained in *Nature*, No. 252 (Macmillan & Co.)

—The story, for which the *Tribune* was our authority, that Butler and B. G. Jayne were part owners of the *Graphic*, is now pronounced by the former journal, on further enquiry, to be untrue.

—At last we have an official U. S. Postal Guide which is worthy of the magnitude of our service, and which will, like its British exemplar, be revised and published quarterly. The work, as we lately mentioned, has been committed to the Riverside Press, and bears the imprint of Hurd & Houghton, New York, through whom, or through postmasters, subscriptions may be procured at $1 50 per annum, the single copy selling for fifty cents. It consists mainly (1) of an alphabetical list of post-offices in the United States; (2) of a list by State and county; (3) of a list of money-order offices. The last occupies sixteen pages and is manifestly superfluous, since the alphabetical list can be made to serve the same purpose by means of asterisks for domestic, and the letters B., G., S. for foreign money-order offices. The list of offices whose postmasters are appointed by the President, and whose salaries are therefore annexed, appears to be inserted not for the convenience of an office-seeking public, but of postmasters themselves. Among the topics of the index (and of the Guide) we miss the carrier system of free delivery. There is no list of the cities enjoying this privilege, nor any statement of the rule regulating its extension. The index is otherwise not what it ought to be; *e. g.*, postal cards to foreign countries have but a

single reference, requiring in the case of Germany another reference, and in the case of Switzerland and Canada two others. While the typographical execution of the Guide is characteristically excellent, there is room for improvement in the Foreign Postage Table. Here the columns are too wide for the figures, and the eye cannot keep to the line. In this respect the British Postal Guide, whose "suggestions to the public" have been very literally adopted, might again be copied to advantage.

—Simultaneously with the elevation in England of a statue to Bunyan, under circumstances which fed with pride and joy the soul of British Dissent, a little tribute to the immortal tinker was in preparation on this side the water. Mr. A. H. Ritchie, the favorably-known engraver, has now finished the plate, from a painting of his own, representing the most delicate of Bunyan's varied characterizations. That the rude dreamer of Bedford Jail could find in his soul so sweet an image as that of "Mercy," and caress it into shape with touches of such rare invention, heightened (as in the episode of Mercy's lovers) with a humor so pathetic, goes far to redeem the character of the seventeenth-century *plebs* for inborn chivalry and refinement. Only the elect among artists are fit to handle this Protestant Dolorosa, this lady of sorrow, whose nights are passed in accusing the hardness of her heart. Huntington has done well, and the present delineator has succeeded with a plate that forms a suitable pendant for that artist's "Mercy's Dream." In Ritchie's picture she is knocking at the Wicket Gate. Timidity and self-distrust are expressed in the gesture with which she reaches for the iron knocker, and a tear stands half-dried upon her cheek, indicating that the poor child has already made acquaintance with Despair's hard spouse, Diffidence. Through the ivy-grown wicket is seen the narrow way, winding past crosses and ruins towards the Delectable Hills. The posture of the figure is certainly expressive, and the face well modelled and distinguished in type, but it is not beautiful, and the execution—of stipple, braced here and there with line—is too confused to be entirely artistic. What is encouraging in the production of such a work is that the author of it, like some of the great engravers and aquafortists of old, has been his own designer, and we hope to be always able to praise the efforts of our capable burins in the way of autographic delineation.

—We have been permitted to examine the proofs of such of the maps and letterpress of Part II. of General F. A. Walker's Statistical Atlas as illustrate the growth of population in the United States from 1790 to 1870. The maps represent the country east of the 100th meridian, and show (1) the density, (2) the extension, and (3) the centre of population at each decade. Their value in studying the history of the country at any given epoch need not be pointed out. The letterpress discusses the "Progress of the Nation," beginning with the successive total areas of settlement and the aggregate population. The area of 1790, 239,935 square miles, had become 1,272,239 square miles in 1870; the population had grown from 3,929,214 to 38,558,371; the average density of settlement from 16.4 persons to the square mile to 30.2. General Walker's Table III. marks the linear extension of population for each degree of latitude from ° to 7° N. inclusive, calculated from the average projection of the coast line in each case. The greatest distance attained (E. of the 100th meridian) is 1,325 miles, on the 41st degree; and this degree exhibits also the greatest extension since 1790, viz., 1,087 miles. Next follows an analysis of the density of settlement for each decade, according to the progress or decline of the five groups: 2 to 6, 6 to 18, 18 to 45, 45 to 90, and 90 or more to the square mile. Of this intricate subject it is impossible to convey a clear notion in the space at our command. Table V., of cities, shows one only of the class 8,000 to 12,000 in 1790, against ninety-two in 1870; three of 12,000 to 20,000, against sixty-three; one of 20,000 to 40,000, against thirty-nine; and one of 40,000 to 75,000, against fourteen. The class 75,000 to 125,000 began in 1810; 125,000 to 250,000 in 1830; 250,000 to 500,000 in 1840; 500,000 and upwards in 1850. The next census will institute a new class of 1,000,000 and upwards. The city population of 1790 was 3.4 per cent. of the total population of the United States; that of 1870, 20.9 per cent. An interesting chapter is devoted to the "centre of population" of which we have heard so much, and which is in effect a sort of centre of gravity—"twelve individuals in San Francisco exerting as much pressure at the pivotal point—say the crossing of the 83d meridian and the 39th parallel—as forty individuals in Boston." This centre is represented on the several large maps (and on a wood-cut in the text) by a star. It rested in 1790 about twenty-three miles east of Baltimore, in 39° 16′.5 N. lat., and in 1870 it was within forty-eight miles of Cincinnati, in 39° 12′ N. lat. What is remarkable is that during eighty years "the extreme variation in latitude has been less than nineteen minutes," and only twice has the centre crept south of the 39th parallel. It is curious that the westward movement of this "star of empire" coincided with the change in the political preponderance of the two sections of the country. In 1850, the centre was in Western Virginia; about the time of Kansas-Nebraska it crossed the Ohio; and in 1860, it was securely located on the free side of that river. The sceptre had passed finally and for ever from the South. Moving at the average rate of about five miles a year, the centre of politics and of population was still thirty-eight miles from Cincinnati when the abortive attempt was made in that city to effect a political revolution by means of the Greeley movement. Probably no other city can so well lay claim in 1876 to being the centre of a population rising 45,000,000, according to the estimate of Mr. E. B. Elliott with which General Walker closes his review.

—American geologists have of late years developed a remarkable activity in the department of exploration and field research. Their indoor performance has, however, fallen seriously behind. Contented with the larger features of geographical interest, they have conspicuously neglected the patient, minute digestion of field results, and the application of such analytical methods, both chemical and microscopical, as alone could put their results on a footing of common terminology with those of European writers. As a consequence, American petrography is for the most part written in a language unknown to the scientific world, and passes unnoticed among foreign scholars. The Geological Exploration Corps of the Fortieth Parallel, having completed their outdoor work, have now broken ground in the right direction by inviting Dr. Ferdinand Zirkel, the eminent Leipzig professor, to come over and co-operate with them in the classification of their great collection of rocks. This distinguished savant is now here, at the Fortieth Parallel quarters in Lafayette Place, hard at work with Messrs. King, Emmons, and Hague upon the crystalline rocks of Nevada, Utah, Colorado, and Wyoming. It will be remembered that Zirkel's first paper on rocks was published as early as 1859. In 1861, he was made Ph.D. at Bonn, and in 1871, after filling several honorable positions, was elected the successor of Naumann at Leipzig. His geological travels in Iceland, written when he was only twenty years of age, and the maturer study of the Pyrenees, are among his outdoor labors. His excellent works on petrography and microscopical geology are everywhere regarded as standards of excellence.

—General Sherman has published through the *Army and Navy Journal* the concluding chapter of his "Memoirs" of the war. This chapter is a general summing-up of conclusions, which are interesting as coming from an officer who has seen so much and such extraordinary fighting. The greater part of his essay relates to organization and tactics, and his conclusions frequently confirm the popular opinions on the subject of war which the four years of popular fighting during the rebellion made for the time being a sort of common civil and military property. How long it will take for the military experience of that period to die out, and whether at the beginning of our next great war it will all need to be learned over again, we do not undertake to say; but at the end of the rebellion there was certainly an accumulated store of military wisdom in the breast of every private or officer then mustered out of the service which led him to believe himself, as he often was, perfectly competent to form, and quite ready to express, an opinion on many an intricate military subject. Among the things which were at that time considered pretty well settled by the ex-military population was, for example, that the practice of filling up old regiments with new men was a better plan than sending out new and untrained regiments, and that the election of officers by men did not, as a rule, work well. On both these points General Sherman confirms the popular impression, saying as to the first: "The greatest mistake made in our civil war was in the mode of recruitment and promotion. When a regiment became reduced by the necessary wear and tear of service, instead of being filled up at the bottom, and the vacancies among the officers filled from the best non-commissioned officers and men, the habit was to raise new regiments with new colonels, captains, and men, leaving the old and experienced battalions to dwindle away into mere skeleton organizations"; and he adds that, owing to the fact that the State of Wisconsin pursued the true plan in this matter, "we estimated a Wisconsin regiment equal to an ordinary brigade." With regard to arms of precision, General Sherman agrees with most European observers of the Franco-Prussian war that the effect of their introduction will be mainly to make a higher order of intelligence necessary among soldiers—those arms leading to a development of the importance of the skirmish-line, and modern skirmishing being impossible without men who can be trusted to do their work without much superintendence from officers, and who have self-reliance and intelligence enough to move upon the enemy, each man almost by himself, in open irregular order, without the moral support given by ranks of men on each side. Strategy, General Sherman thinks, is the same science that it was in the days of Jomini, and unlikely to be changed by any alteration in the mode of warfare.

—It was the fortune of Mr. Fechter before his first successful appearance in this country to have himself heralded to the public by a sort of voucher from Mr. Charles Dickens, and so Mr. Toole, who is now acting at Wallack's, though not in the same conspicuous way, has had his merits vouched for in a

general way by reminiscences of Mr. Dickens's approval. Dickens, who was himself an amateur, almost a professional actor (for his success in reading was certainly quite as much due to his theatrical talent, and essentially theatrical management of voice, as to the interest of the subject, or even to the excitement caused by the presence in the flesh of the author of 'Nicholas Nickleby' and 'Oliver Twist'), had a good right to criticise the actors of his time, and however exaggerated his way of speaking of Mr. Fechter's acting may have been, there is no doubt that in melodrama there was much to be said for it. Mr. Toole's acting belongs to a widely different category from that which "Monte Cristo" or "Ruy Blas" demands, his range being from broad farce to low comedy, for we can hardly suppose that such plays as "Uncle Dick's Darling" or "Wig and Gown" are held out to the public as high comedy. He is a good and at the same time a disappointing actor, for in some parts he makes so pleasing an impression as to spoil the audience for his representation of others in which he is weaker. On his first appearance here in "Wig and Gown," a tedious play, written, we believe, by the unfortunate author of "Fortune," he was received by the audience with unmistakable delight, which, as the evening wore on, grew to positive enthusiasm, and on looking over the list of his plays we are inclined to think that this was his most successful appearance. In "Paul Pry" Mr. Toole did not, according to our observation, succeed in doing more than make the character ridiculous, while in one or two farces he does not even do that. His strong point is his management of the transition from the comical to the serious or the pathetic, as in "Wig and Gown," when, in the court scene, he suddenly changes from the farcical barrister, who has been convulsing the room with his absurd and almost idiotic behavior, to the terrible avenger of fraud, and, by his hot but steady cross-examination of the witness in the box, fairly drives the wretch out of it a convicted perjurer. In such a scene as this, as in some of the scenes in "Dearer than Life"—in which his part is that of an indulgent father reduced to beggary (as he supposes) by the wickedness of his good-for-nothing son—he exhibits genuine pathos, and it must have been a hardened theatre-goer who could have remained unmoved by his acting.

—What plays are decent and what are not decent will, we suppose, always remain a moot question in dramatic ethics, and one rather to be settled for himself by each individual member of the audience in the case of a particular play, than by any general rule. It seemed to have been settled among certain moralists a few years ago that a convenient line might be drawn at *opéra bouffe*, and that while there was no particular objection to being seen at a representation of the "Dame aux Camélias" or "Article 47," the "Grande Duchesse" or "Périchole" must be considered tabooed. There seems, however, some likelihood just now that this decision will be reversed for the time being, for as to the examples of the two schools now in process of representation here there cannot be much doubt that in every way Offenbach's "Princesse de Trébizonde" is preferable to the extraordinary play called the "Sphinx," adapted from Octave Feuillet, acting at the Union Square Theatre. The plot of the latter is simple enough: A wife falls in love with her best friend's husband, and is tortured for two or three acts by love, jealousy, and remorse at once. Meantime she always carries about with her some poison in a finger-ring, and, on the discovery of her unhappy predicament, she takes this and dies in great agony, the details of which are thus described by a competent critic:

"As the poison begins to work she is thrown into violent convulsions, her eyes distend, her mouth is drawn tense, and a greenish emission starts from her lips. As she motions *Berthe* to throw a veil over her face she tears open her corsage in the agony of death, and then, sinking back upon a chair, stiffens in a last convulsive throb and dies with staring eyeballs and foaming mouth."

There is nothing in the play but this, as it is acted in New York. Of course in Paris it may have been given with much delicacy, and the various shades of feeling brought out by the situations depicted in such a way as to be interesting; but Miss Clara Morris's forte is not depicting shades of feeling, but dying in horrible agonies, which she always accomplishes with great skill; and the play may be, therefore, considered to be a good realistic exhibition of the effect of poison taken into the human stomach in excessive quantities. The comparative decency of such plays as this and the opera called the "Princesse de Trébizonde" do not seem to us to admit of question, and the latter is, as may be imagined, much more amusing than the "Sphinx." The Aimée troupe have been acting it, too, with as much reserve as *bouffe* actors can be expected to show, and a person must be either very prudish or very prurient to find anything out of the way in the libretto. The music is extremely gay and often pretty.

—Insectivorous or carnivorous plants—the subject of Dr. Hooker's address as president of a section at the recent meeting of the British Association—have of late attracted no small degree of popular attention in this country, mainly through our two articles in April last, which have been more than once reprinted abroad, as also has the account of Dr. Mellichamp's further discoveries, published in the *Tribune*, and likewise communicated to the American Association at Hartford. Mellichamp's researches were upon pitcher plants, and went to show that the lure or sweet secretion at the orifice is not intoxicating or narcotic, but that the watery secretion below, into which the insects fall, is asphyxiating in the case of *Sarracenia Variolaris*. What is still more curious, Dr. Mellichamp discovered in this species, and at the time of their greatest activity, a narrow line or trail of sweet secretion leading from that within the orifice of the pitcher and along the edge of the wing down nearly to the ground, this serving as an effective lure to ants, the dead bodies of which generally form the larger portion of the contents at the bottom of the pitcher. Mr. Canby continued his contributions to this subject by reading to the Hartford meeting an account of the manner in which the Californian Pitcher-plant (*Darlingtonia*) entraps insects of various kinds, mainly butterflies.

—Dr. Hooker's address at Belfast, which was received with great and well-deserved applause, recapitulated the various facts now familiar here, adding several matters of history, of which the most interesting is a forgotten suggestion by Linnæus, substantially to the effect "that *Sarracenia* was originally aquatic in its habits; that it had nymphœa-like leaves [Linnæus having sagaciously discerned the relationship to water-lilies]; and that when it took to a terrestrial life its leaves became hollowed out, to contain the water in which they could no longer float. In fact, he showed himself to be an evolutionist of the true Darwinian type." Dr. Hooker continued with an exposition of his own researches, principally upon *Nepenthes*, the pitcher-plants of the Asiatic Archipelago and of hot-houses. The main points made out are, that the rim of the cup here also secretes honey; that flying insects, which are obviously the kind of game these high-hung pitchers are intended for, are abundantly caught; that the watery fluid is secreted by innumerable and very minute glands; that this secretion is considerably augmented when insects or other animal matters are dropped in, which is not the case when inorganic matter is used—the increased flow occurring only after the reception of something savory and digestible. Moreover, this liquid, which is always acid, like gastric juice, appears to have its solvent powers as well as its quantity increased upon ingestion of food. For, while the liquid removed from a freshly-opened pitcher hardly acts at all upon bits of meat, white-of-egg, or cartilage, little cubes of these, dropped into the pitcher, had their edges eaten away and their surfaces gelatinized after twenty-four hours' immersion, and pieces of fibrine weighing several grains dissolve and totally disappear in two or three days. From which "it would appear probable that a substance acting as pepsine is given off from the inner wall of the pitcher, but chiefly after placing animal matter in the acid fluid." So goes to the limbo of exploded ideas the last absolute distinction upon which we prided ourselves, that animals alone possess a stomach. Those who never could take kindly to what Charles Lamb called "our poor relations," may perhaps go further without faring worse in their sentiments, join Dr. Hooker in the recognition of "our brother-organisms—plants," and allow the fullest meaning to the poet's line,

"One touch of nature makes the whole world kin."

—The Board of Administration of the Caucasus Mountains is doing a good work in studying the characteristic features of the population of this region, and making a record of them, before they pass from their wild state into civil life under Russia. The relations, or 'Sbornik,' which now number five, extend from 1868–71, and are published in Russian at Tiflis. They treat of the topics usual in such studies, the ethnology of the people, their customs and customary law, religious notions, their history and legends. Daghestan is the principal and most populous province of this region—its inhabitants in 1868 amounting to 478,000 in a total of nearly a million for the whole Caucasus district—and the most of the essays in these collections refer to this province. The observations published are by a number of hands, and some can hardly claim a scientific value. Probably a large number of people, for instance, would look with a good deal of caution at one writer who states as a fact that many Jews who, as he believes, had settled in pre-Christian times in considerable numbers in Transcaucasia, had already accepted the doctrine of Christ as the Messiah in the very year of his crucifixion. The author ought at least to have added the grounds of his conclusions, and to tell us in just what year he understands the historical fact to have occurred which he takes as giving the precise date of this conversion.

—Austria-Hungary is but slowly recovering from the effects of the great crisis of last year, and public attention has been directed with more than usual interest to the prospects of this year's harvest as the only means of a return to better days. Professor F. X. Neumann of Vienna has seized the occasion to enquire somewhat deeply into the influence of good and bad harvests on the prosperity of the empire, and he embodies the result in a pamphlet,

'Die Ernten und der Wohlstand in Oesterreich Ungarn' (Berlin: Carl Habel), which deserves the attention of students of political economy. Guided by carefully gathered statistics, he pronounces it an illusion to look forward either with excessive hopes or excessive fears to the result of this year's harvest. He shows that in the years 1868–1873 the annual revenue derived from cereals was on an average 950 million florins. During that period the extremes were marked by the harvest of 1869, which was valued at 828 millions, and that of 1870, which amounted to 989 millions. Thus the harvest of 1869, which was all but a failure, fell short of the average by 122 millions, while the very good harvest of 1870 exceeded the average only by 39 millions. If, on a very low estimate, the annual value of the total agricultural and industrial labor of the monarchy (*das rohe Volkseinkommen*) is set down at 5,500 million florins, the difference between the proceeds of a good and a bad grain crop represents only about three per cent. of the total income. Besides, a failure of crops is no longer, as it was twenty years ago, identical with high prices of grain. Now, the prices of cereals are regulated not within any particular country, but by the combined production and consumption of all European and American markets. This accounts for the fact that, since 1862, years of bad crops have generally witnessed considerably lower prices than the best years, when grain was plentiful, and there was a surplus for export. It follows that a considerable increase in the national prosperity may be looked for only in those years when, as in 1870, good crops coincide with low prices; while a considerable diminution is only to be feared when, as in 1873, a failure of crops is attended with high prices.

MISS AIKIN'S CORRESPONDENCE.*

MISS AIKIN met Dr. Channing during his short visit to England. In 1826, he sent her a copy of his work on Milton. She acknowledged the present, and thus commenced a correspondence which lasted twenty years, and ended only with Dr. Channing's death. This correspondence has just been published, and is well worth publication; for though the letters of both the writers are undoubtedly often dull, they are also in many respects interesting. The correspondence is, in short, exactly what we might expect from the character of its authors. Neither Miss Aikin nor Dr. Channing was endowed with any of the gifts which make a good letter-writer. They have neither of them the least touch of literary grace. They neither of them have any sense of humor. Of the two, Miss Aikin is the better writer. But even her best letters read like chapters from a work on the religious and political condition of England, and, from an occasional desire to be sprightly, she sometimes falls into a tone of heavy banter from which Dr. Channing's unvarying gravity preserves him. On the other hand, both the correspondents were, it is hardly necessary to say, persons of far more than average ability. When they began to interchange letters they had each attained middle life, and were enabled both from character and position to look with a certain impartial interest on the state both of society and of religion. Both of them were singularly free from that pettiness of mind which confines most persons' interests to the little everyday matters which concern themselves. Miss Aikin no less than Dr. Channing seems to have found the chief pleasure of life in considering and discussing the great questions of the day. The time was a period of great movement and excitement. Newspapers and telegraphs did not then diffuse information with a rapidity which renders the efforts of a private correspondent to supply news absolutely useless. Miss Aikin acted, in fact, as Dr. Channing's "English correspondent." She got up the religious or political information which was likely to interest him, and hence her letters give a good picture both of her own character and of the condition of society in England between thirty and fifty years ago as seen from the point of view of intelligent Unitarians.

The picture of Miss Aikin herself is worth some notice. She is one of those very commendable authors who, without a touch of genius, possess a rare amount of shrewdness, industry, and intelligence. She devoted herself to the study of history at a time when historical studies were far less common than at present, and produced works of some permanent value at a time when a female authoress was something of a rarity. An intelligent reader of her letters feels in fact some surprise that Miss Aikin has not achieved a more permanent fame as a historian than seems likely to fall to her. Dr. Channing had made some remarks on the character of Henry VIII., to which she replies as follows: "Great weight must also be given to the consideration that the memory of the civil wars was still so recent and so bitter that Englishmen were then willing to yield to almost anything for a quiet life. It is also true that the personal character of Henry, by all its qualities, good and bad, was formed to assert a strong ascendancy over the minds of his people, by whom he was at once more admired, esteemed, and dreaded than any other English king." These sentences were written in 1828. They read like a summary of Mr. Froude's estimate of the great Tudor king. They prove convincingly that Miss Aikin had anticipated by nearly thirty years all that is true in his paradoxical eulogies of Henry VIII., and afford a singular proof of Miss Aikin's capacity, not only for getting up, but for understanding history. She displays, in fact, not only in her historical criticisms, but throughout her letters, a remarkable power of thinking for herself and seeing things with her own eyes. On several occasions, she questions the judgment of her correspondent, and almost invariably has, in point of shrewdness and common-sense, the advantage of Dr. Channing. He, for example, appears at 1830 to have been filled with the highest hopes as to the destiny of France. Miss Aikin, partly from the influence of English prejudice, but in great part also from her coolness of judgment, never fairly enters into his sanguine views. She shows a radical distrust of the French character which the events of the last forty years have done much to justify, and that this distrust is not the mere result of English sentiment may be inferred from the fact that if she discerned the weaknesses of France she sagaciously predicts the progress of Italy. At the time when she wrote, the Italians could have been known in England only through a few political exiles, but Miss Aikin noticed the great merits of these exiled Italians, and ventures to predict that a nation which can produce such men will show itself capable of improvement.

Miss Aikin's character is worth study; but, after all, the main interest of her letters is not a personal one. They are worth reading, not so much from the light they throw on the character either of Miss Aikin or of Dr. Channing, as from the insight they give into the condition of England at a period which, though not far distant in point of years, is in several respects very different from the present time. Nothing, for instance, is more strange to persons who live at a time of something like political apathy than the enthusiasm for reform which is expressed by a person so little enthusiastic as Miss Aikin. The following eulogy of William IV. reads now as a grotesque satire on one of the most commonplace of English monarchs: "But the conduct of the king is our grand piece of good luck and a most unexpected one. A patriot king! once in a millennium such a phœnix is seen on earth. Alfred was our last. A levity in the manners of his majesty had caused him to be suspected of an unsound head, but he has under this a plain good sense, and, what is better still, a real love of seeing his people happy, which . . . has led him admirably right." But these sentiments, though they sound oddly enough to a generation who know what a commonplace mortal the patriot king in reality turned out, express not the partiality of an enthusiastic lady, but the sincere feeling of all the Liberals and Reformers of 1831. Moreover, there are passages in this correspondence which explain the fervor with which persons who now would be Conservative Liberals, or not very Liberal Conservatives, supported forty years ago measures of reform which appeared almost revolutionary. "Mr. Whishaw," writes Miss Aikin, "was one of the auditors of public accounts, and you will wonder to be told that he struggled in vain to carry the reform of keeping those accounts in Arabic numerals and in the English language, instead of in Roman numerals and bad Latin; but Lord Granville, then minister, would hear of nothing so revolutionary as writing 'hair-powder duty' instead of '*debitum super pulverem crinalem*'; so much for following the wisdom of our ancestors." The anecdote exactly describes the spirit of English Toryism for the fifty years which preceded the Reform Bill. The nation had become, in 1830, filled with disgust at the so-called wisdom of our ancestors, and the object of the reformers (which it must be added they at last completely attained) was to introduce into every department of Government rules of plain common-sense which might make it impossible to use Roman numerals and bad Latin instead of Arabic numerals and plain English. The mass of small abuses which had been allowed to accumulate in every part of English political institutions, explains both the general enthusiasm for reform and the very practical, so to speak, external form which Liberal reforms took when the overthrow of the Tories enabled the Whigs to carry out their policy.

It is in fact impossible to read a line of Miss Aikin's letters without seeing that she and her friends, in spite of their zealous liberalism, were really inspired by no desire whatever to change fundamentally the state of English society, and believed only in the immense importance of what to enthusiastic politicians would seem small improvements rather than sweeping reforms. This is apparent even in the parts of the letters of the correspondence—and they are, on the whole, its most interesting portion—which refer to religious questions.

A Unitarian and a Liberal writing to a celebrated Unitarian preacher might naturally be expected to express a desire for root-and-branch religious innovations, but nothing is more remarkable than the extreme moderation of Miss Aikin's aspirations. She expects and apparently wishes for the ex-

* 'Correspondence of Wm. Ellery Channing, D.D., and Lucy Aikin from 1826 to 1842. Edited by A. L. Le Breton.' London: Williams & Norgate; Boston: Roberts Bros.

pulsion of the bishops from the House of Lords. She fears evangelical intolerance. She hopes for the gradual spread of Unitarian Christianity, and expects the influence of Whately and of writers of his school to produce a far greater effect than it has in fact exerted on English opinion. But every line of her letters proves that she would be, if now alive, very much astonished and probably not very much pleased at the present freedom of thought and opinion which is the most striking characteristic of modern English society. It is hard to put one's self back in imagination to a period at which Mrs. Hannah More's works exerted a great influence, and young ladies modelled their lives after the precepts contained in 'Cœlebs.' It is still harder for any one who looks at English society as it now exists to realize that not much more than thirty years ago what would now be called very moderate opinions could hardly find free expression. In 1841, Miss Aikin could thus express herself: "Our corn-laws are at the last gasp, and in timber and sugar I believe we are going right, but, alas! what avails all this if free speculation is taxed to prohibition, if religious liberty lies oppressed, stifled, down-trodden, if no man dares to say in the face of the world that all opinions have equal rights, that no one ought to believe himself entitled to put another to silence because his doctrines are not those of the majority, those that the state has endowed?" Let any critic take up the *Pall Mall Gazette*, 'Literature and Dogma,' any number of the *Contemporary Review*, or Professor Tyndall's address to the British Association, and then ask himself whether any sensible person could now re-echo Miss Aikin's complaint that freedom of opinion is taxed to prohibition. But one answer is possible. On all theological topics, greater freedom of discussion is now allowed in England than has been hitherto admitted in any European country. Yet there is no reason whatever to hold that the language used in 1841 was exaggerated. Miss Aikin's letters show, if they show nothing else, that English opinion is passing through a strange revolution. Interest in political reform has declined, but the energy which was expended forty years ago in political agitation is now transferred to the domain of theological controversy. As a sign of this curious change in sentiment, letters far duller than Miss Aikin's would have for intelligent critics a permanent interest.

THE MAGAZINES FOR OCTOBER.

ONE of the most noticeable magazine articles of the month is in *Old and New*, and consists of the address delivered at Detroit a few weeks since by Mr. A. D. White, President of the Cornell University. It was an oration before a convention of teachers and other persons interested in education, and its object was to attack our American system of setting up sectarian colleges, and to urge the propriety of granting State aid and United States aid to the higher institutions of learning, just as it is granted in support of our common schools. In some respects the address is very conclusive. Recollecting what it is that Mr. White attacks, and then what it is that he recommends, we may remind ourselves of the remarks made about the "Tirocinium"—Cowper's assault on the great public schools of England. It was to the effect that, on the one hand, what the poet had to assail was a system whose defects and vices were notorious, and undeniable; and, on the other hand, that what he had to assert by way of remedy was a principle the practical value of which depended entirely on its successful administration. We suppose no one who has given much thought to the matter will say that the interests of the higher education are anything but very ill subserved by our two or three hundred sectarian colleges; Mr. White has as little difficulty in making that appear to be true of the whole class of small colleges as Cowper had in showing that the British public school could be made a nursery of brutality and other kinds of vice. But the cautious reader of enthusiastic speeches feels an inclination to draw back when Mr. White's remedy coming along takes on the shape of thirty-seven noble universities, "true universities," one for each State in the Union, and perhaps ten more for the ten Territories. We may as easily have forty-seven noble, true universities, we suppose, as thirty-seven or thirty-eight; for Mr. White is not averse to seeing one District of Columbia University, which shall be still better than its sisters, and shall have its seat at the national capital, and be supported and of course partly governed by Congress and its committees, just as the State legislatures are partly to govern such colleges as may be subventioned by the various States. We do not criticise in detail Mr. White's remarks about the desirableness of giving public money to the various agricultural colleges, technological schools, and so forth which States may deem it for their pecuniary and other interest to set up and maintain. It seems reasonable, and at all events the scheme is already under experiment in many States, though as yet it is hardly time to say what the general results will be. He may perhaps learn what they are by the time "the noble university at Ann Arbor," as Mr. White calls it, itself assumes that title—a time which we doubt not is at some distance, nobody knowing so well as "true university" makers that making them is a slow process. Other articles in *Old and New* are one of Mr. E. E. Hale's short stories; a short story called "Pilchards," which may be described as a very cool, satisfactory October love-story; and a miscellaneous article entitled "The Record of Progress." This last is largely taken up with an account of some progress made by Massachusetts in so altering its law of "settlement" for paupers as to make it easier for this class of persons to obtain the official assistance of the municipalities in the State. As for Mr. Hale's short story, it is an invention in the Jules Verne manner, but with less in it to amuse than one of Verne's improbabilities. Unless indeed the reader is one to be pleased with the air of verisimilitude given to a story written in Boston by the casual mention of "Mr. Firth at the Albany"—that is to say, Mr. Firth of the Boston and Albany Railroad—as having told Mr. Hale something this morning after breakfast. This is an old trick of Mr. Hale's, and is as good as real dirt in the grave-digging scene in "Hamlet."

Professor Simon Newcomb begins in the October *Harper's* a serial article called "Some Talks of an Astronomer," in which he proposes to explain the facts of astronomical science in so easy a way that the general reader may be able to profit by the conversation. To us Professor Newcomb seems to have gauged the abilities and acquirements of the general reader not altogether accurately, and we should hope that before other talks are mapped out he may come to a better judgment of the extreme scientific incapacity of readers of scientific treatises and hearers of scientific lectures. Pilgrims newly returned from the sea-shore and from old towns and country places will be glad to look at two illustrated papers—one by Mr. T. B. Aldrich, who writes about Portsmouth with that accustomed dreaminess and mild humor which gable-ends more than eighty years old seem to inspire in our authors; and the other by the Rev. J. W. Chadwick, whose theme is the "Isles of Shoals," of which he writes with a zest which bespeaks him a genuine lover of nature, and especially of the sea and the Isles. Indeed, as a writer in the *Atlantic* well points out, nothing is harder to remove from the human composition than the early drop of salt water which gets into the veins of those born by the sea and who pass their early days in its presence, as appears indubitably to have been the case with Mr. Chadwick. For the rest, *Harper's* is as full as usual. Mr. Moncure D. Conway begins a continued article, illustrated, in which he is to treat of "Decorative Art and Architecture in England," with such degree of taste and discernment as shall please the gods, but no doubt with a great deal of knowledge, much of it concerning works of art and artists of contemporaneous repute, though unknown to Mr. Conway's American audience. Señor Emilio Castelar contributes the twelfth of his tedious essays on "The Republican Movement in Europe."

In *Scribner's*, a very elaborate review of "George Eliot, as a Novelist and as a Woman," is attempted by Mr. W. C. Wilkinson, who conceals in a cloud of ambitious verbiage some generally correct though not new conclusions in regard to the moral spirit of George Eliot's works and in regard also to the moral influence which they tend to exercise upon their readers. As for Mr. Wilkinson's remarks on the literary qualities of these works, they are of a miscellaneous character, some being not a little curious. One is worth quoting as an illustration of the sudden and fatal collapse to which the half-taught dissertator is liable when he goes too far. Mr. Wilkinson has had out the analytic machine, and the synthetic machine, and the objective and subjective mirrors, and has been making great play with them, and by-and-by remarks as follows: "But when, ceasing to be dramatic [and she can be 'every whit as dramatic as Shakspere'], she uses the privilege of the novelist to be expressly psychological, her analyses of character and motive become so subtle and searching that mere dramatic exhibition seems almost vulgar in comparison. Hamlet's soliloquy is greatly admired for the depth and subtlety of psychological implication which it contains. But there is many and many a passage of clairvoyant vision and revelation in the sphere of human character and motive to be found in George Eliot's works that makes Hamlet's soliloquy superficial and tame." All this involves a singular misconception. Not to speak irreverently of George Eliot, it is something like saying that there is more subtlety and psychology in the bottom of a fortune-teller's tea-cup than there is in the wide waste of ocean. Nobody but himself has ever told Mr. Wilkinson that the distinguishing mark of Hamlet's speech is expressed or implied subtlety of psychological analysis. That famous soliloquy holds the place in literature which has been awarded it for the reason that it is the full and masterly utterance, not at all of a very subtle, but of a very elemental affair—the problem, namely, in which we may be sure man began to be entangled as long ago as when he had made his departure from Eden, and which demands for its settlement a statement from him as to the value after all of this transitory life. It is a simple and uncomplex question, at least in its terms, but to think

about the answer is to save one's self from the ineptitude of styling its best expression as "tame and superficial." As regards the other parts of Mr. Wilkinson's essay, we have said that the judgments expressed were in the main correct. Credit is given the moralist for the loftiness of her morality, and the spirit of altruistic piety which penetrates her writings is recognized; the tendency of this high and austere creed to break down the average human soul when unsupported by the prop of faith in a personal God is insisted upon (we imagine most of George Eliot's readers capable of being injured by the discovery will never make it, though they will "feel" that she is repellent); the uneasiness of the novelist's own spirit while inculcating her doctrine is thought to be indicated plainly in the lowering or cold heavens of her habitual world; and, finally, the source of this uneasiness is sought, not where some seek it, in the fact of the less energetic, courageous, and wide-experienced character of the feminine mind, even when informed by talent or genius, but in the fact that George Eliot has not yet had personal knowledge of the power of vital religion.

The *Galaxy* and *Lippincott's* are of light weight this month, but the former goes, in an article entitled "Fig Leaves and French Dresses," rather entertainingly over the old ground of the Englishwoman's dowdiness, or rather her positive achievement of indecorous and almost brutal disregard of the becoming. The latter discourses with sufficient gravity of the British peerage. In both the *Galaxy* and *Lippincott's* we have some of the outpourings of the mind of Mr. Junius Henri Browne. "The Loadstone of Love" is the name of the *Galaxy* essay, and it is a mass of rubbish as creditable and as intelligible as the circulars of a business astrologer or a quack doctor might be. A few random sentences are as follows: "The witch of Endor was a magnet; so were the soceresses of the East, the theosophists of Alexandria, the mystics of the last century"; "The woman who attracts and repels by turns, who alters with the days of the week and the hours of the day, who seems subject to inward, involuntary revolutions is polarized"; "Christina of Sweden was completely polarized," and led a life to correspond, as is here set forth; "A true magnet with a remarkable variation was Mary Stuart"; "Hardly any man except John Knox ever approached her without a flush of erotic fever"; "No woman can be so magnetic as to be ensured against magnetism by man—every woman has her master," etc. Mr. Browne has been producing matter of about the speculative and moral value of this that we quote for now a long term of months, and his presence has come to amount to a serious infestation of periodical literature.

The October *Atlantic* is entirely readable, but perhaps it carries to a still higher degree than its contemporaries the proof that our magazines are in very great part written for a female audience. We commend to the attention of our readers a sketch, in pretty strong black and white, we should say, called "Marty's Various Mercies," which gives some very amusing aspects of the negro nature; worth noticing as also of an unusual quality are a poem by Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, and some letters (never designed for publication) from a young Bostonian lady abroad, who wrote home to her friends about her music lessons, about the music that she heard in Berlin and other German seats of harmony, and about the great performers Clara Schumann, Tausig, Rubinstein, and their compeers. What she says is interesting in various ways, and not least for the writer's warm admirations and enthusiasms: "But I wish you *could* hear Joachim, for it is simple ecstasy to listen to him. Oh! he is to me the wonder of the age, and unless I were to *rave* I could never express him." The musical reader will see that letters written in this spirit are not likely to be dull, nor anything but very grateful to the musical palate. Miss Phelps's poem merits the praise of being finely imaginative, and seems to us of higher literary worth than anything which she has hitherto published.

RECENT NOVELS.*

MR. BOYESEN'S 'Gunnar' was first printed in the *Atlantic Monthly*, where, on account of its relative freshness, it appeared to more advantage than now, but the reader will get a decided pleasure from it in its present form. As yet there is to the mind of our public something very agreeable in the novelty and apparent vigor and simplicity of the remote, quiet, and yet sometimes passionate life of the Scandinavian northern region. The face of nature there and that of human existence are alike strange and impressive to us. Moreover, the first introduction of the general public to this new land was a fortunate one, it being effected through a man amply endowed with the kind of genius best suited to display its principal charm. The lyrical, idyllic spirit in which Björnson wrote has been noticed by all critics and readers, and the extreme and delicate beauty of his productions, gratefully acknowledged by all, continually draws us to approach with complacent expectation each new Scandinavian candidate for favor.

Mr. Boyesen's book is not at all on the level of Björnson's, which indeed is a small masterpiece by a natural-born artist; but that it very often recalls the latter is a subject for self-gratulation on the reader's part and not for regret. Exceptions to this statement might be made—one, for example, based on the similarity between the scene where her mother shows Ragnhild the chestful of fine things she is to inherit when she marries, and the really delightful scene, not to be carelessly meddled with or copied after, where Björnson's Eli Boen listens while Arne's old mother, solicitous for her son, tells the girl of the gifts that will belong to her who shall accept Arne as a husband. But although kept by its subject-matter and by the author's Scandinavian birthright up to a good level, 'Gunnar' essentially resembles those New England tales and sketches of years ago in which on a slender twist of plot and narrative were strung accounts of cattle-fairs, militia musters, election trainings, corn-huskings, "evening meetings," meetings of the Dorcas Society, turkey-shoots at Thanksgiving time, and numerous other scenes and humors of life Down East. Similar scenes, but Norwegian instead of American, are the staple of Mr. Boyesen's book. Yet while the underlying structure of 'Gunnar' is such as we have said, Mr. Boyesen brings to the execution of the work more spirit than our old-fashioned writers were accustomed to bring to their donation parties and town-meetings, and he has also the use of a vein of poetry which sometimes does him good service. His string of a love-story is as artlessly planned as the rest of the work, and the reader is from the beginning justly inclined to accept it without making difficulties. For whenever a simple "houseman's" son, who while yet a boy has formed an affection for a "gardman's" (rich man's) daughter, is early found to have a talent for drawing on birch-bark, and to be unfit for executive power about the farm and barn-yard, it is as certain as anything well can be (without prearrangement) that by-and-by the pastor will be pleased with his catechism lessons, will accidentally see some of his drawings, and will use his influence to have the youth sent to the capital, where soon he will carry off the Academy's first prize and come home an eligible suitor for Ragnhild or Eli.

A novel that may be commended to those who are willing to let careful drawing of character outweigh an almost unprecedented absence of plot, is Comte Gobineau's 'Les Pléiades.' It gives us in the beginning three young men—a Frenchman of the present time, who has managed to let himself wither into a sceptical, amiable, but inactive seeker of pleasure; a German artist, who does not stand so much as a representative of the new Germany as of a certain class of minds which excel more in artistic power than in strength of character; and an Englishman, an admirable fellow, full of force, enthusiastic, and honest. These distinctions are not forcibly thrust upon the reader's attention, but are made to appear in the development of the story. The heroines are, respectively, a married lady for whom the Frenchman has a moderate feeling of friendship, which, out of a sense of what becomes his position, he mistakes for love; a Polish countess, a great coquette, who exerts a great deal of influence on the lives of all the men she meets; and a young English girl, who is a most worthy person, and who is capitally drawn. There is no attempt at an artistic weaving of the different threads; the chapters succeed one another at random, but, in spite of that, the thoughtful reader will find much to entertain him. Too much space is devoted to the long conversations of the young men, and the introductions to them are for the most part exceedingly clumsy, but their talk is that of human beings. The women, too, are well portrayed. The Polish countess is set before us as vividly and as attractively as she could have been by any French writer of comedies, and it is a striking proof of the author's breadth that he could also give us to the life a sensible English girl, a model of sincerity and self-sacrifice; the countess, on the other hand, is a very complex character, apparently full of coquetry; but when we are let into her thoughts we see that her striving after some real emotion is not merely the conventional ennui of a jaded flirt, but a genuine want, and there could hardly be a greater surprise for the reader than her end, as far as the story is concerned. It is in spite of his wilful refusal to follow regular models that the author has written so interesting a novel, which is very different from the ordinary French novel we all know so well. At times he contrives to show that if he had chosen he could have equalled his rivals with their own tools, but he has preferred to carry the heavy weight of his independence.

A wide berth is best given to 'Prince Serebrenni,' by Count Tolstoy. It reads like the nightmare one might have after protracted study of some of the darker chapters of Russian history. One may learn from it the origin of the slow patience of the oppressed people of that race, and of their unfailing patriotism, but only by wading very deep in horrors. There is no pause in the terrible scenes it describes.

* 'Gunnar: A Tale of Norse Life. By Hjalmar Hjarth Boyesen.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.

'Les Pléiades. Par le Comte Gobineau.' Paris and Stockholm. 1874.
'Prince Serebrenni. By Count A. Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian by the Princess Galitzine.' London: Chapman & Hall. 1874.

There is disappointment in store for the youthful student of fiction who is attracted by the title, 'The Honeymoon,' of the Count de Medina Pomar's novel. In place of the good, old-fashioned love-making for which he hungers, he will find the equally old-fashioned religious discussion, only this time between a young English nobleman and his Spanish bride. With the brief docility of that period of life, she listens patiently to his theological and philosophical soliloquies and his more profuse than apt quotations from modern poetry. It would seem impossible that the noble author can expect the same consideration from any one else.

Miss Trafton's story relates the adventures, happy and unhappy, of a young lady born in Poplar Street, Boston, twenty years or more ago, in "one of those great wooden mansions in which our forefathers of pre-Revolutionary times delighted," but which "progress and so-called necessity, and above all the restless spirit of Young America," have since swept away. We may observe, in passing, that old, by-gone dwellings of any kind, since replaced by new ones or changed in some form, are naturally enough with romancers and novelists of all sorts what the real-estate brokers call "choice locations," and many novels by eminent hands have borrowed from the old-fashioned, once new-fashioned, structures an interest which the story alone would not yield. It may be doubted, however, whether it would not require the hand of a master to invest with any very romantic associations one of our forefathers' wooden houses in Poplar Street, Boston, at a period so recent as the days of the anti-slavery agitation and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. Of course it would be impossible in these matters to draw any hard and fast line, and, if we did so, no doubt it could be easily shown by example that any rule that might be framed had been successfully violated by writers of fiction; but for Bostonian novelists it would be safe to say that, generally speaking, no additional romance would be lent to a tale by laying the scene in one of the buildings in the wholesale dry-goods district recently visited by the 'Fire Fiend,' and for New York novelists, it would be well to avoid the memory-haunted structures modernized by Tweed's street-widening operations. This however is a small matter, and we have mentioned it merely because it seems to point to a want in Miss Trafton of that sobriety of judgment which is important to great imaginations, and, when the imaginative powers are of no more than ordinary calibre, even more essential still. Miss Trafton's story is that of a young New England girl who falls in love with a mysterious young man, named Dacre Home, who has been implicated in a bank-robbery, and who though, as we understand it, he was innocent of this crime, was apparently guilty of being very ignorant of the condition of his affections, and, though on one or two occasions he gives Miss Earle every reason to suppose she is all in all to him, in the end marries some one else. Miss Earle, however, marries at about the same time Professor Dyce, with whom she has got lost in the woods, and who introduces her at the first house they reach as his wife. This he does, as he says, because as a man of the world he felt it was necessary under the circumstances, but it seems like strange behavior in a professor and leads the reader to suspect that the author is not quite right in her analysis of his character, and that perhaps, if all were known, he knew something about the bank-robbery. This however is a gratuitous piece of injustice, for which there is no warrant in the book.

Mr. James Payn's 'At Her Mercy' opens well with some clever sketches not very far removed from caricature, of English people; but as soon as the action begins, and the evil-disposed young woman, who is malicious and ambitious, and filled with mock humility, is seen weaving her toils around the simple, innocent young woman and her lover, the interest falls off. To be sure, we are treated to a strong suspicion of murder, and matters can only be set right by a violent death and a death-bed confession, but even this rich seasoning palls on the experienced novel-reader. In 'The Best of Husbands,' by the same author, we find a good deal of the same tendency to look on life very much as a hired assassin must when business is brisk. There is Maggie Thorne in love with the scapegrace Richard Milward, and loved by his meritorious brother, John. Richard is guilty of every crime in the calendar, and disappears, and Maggie, who had ceased to love him, consents to marry John. Accidental murder; ingenious attempts at blackmail, made void by equally ingenious devices; a villain; the accomplished police officer, a pure creature of the imagination, so opportune is his arrival and so judicial his mind; and hair turning gray in a single night, are the chief properties of this novel.

Mrs. Craik's 'My Mother and I' is a very sloppy love-story, in the form of an autobiography. It is filled with the gushing love of Miss Elma Picardy, the daughter of an officer who had died young after marrying the humble tradesman's daughter, for her lowly-born mother. Her father's father, General Picardy, takes her to live with him, and Cousin Conrad appears upon the scene. She falls in love with him, and there is more washy sentiment in what follows than in any novel of the size with which we are familiar.

"In sending forth another book," Mrs. Jay says in her preface, "belonging to the class known as religious novels, the author is moved to say a word to the critics who received a former one with so pleasant a mixture of praise and deprecation." One of these gentlemen, it seems, avowed it as his opinion that he and his friends liked a pill "none the better for being sugar-coated." In reply to this, the author says that "persons to whom religion is a pill—a bitter, nauseous compound, to be bolted in sickness and kept out of sight in health—are not the persons for whom the author writes." There is, however, another class of objectors, who "talk solemnly of art and its canons," and wish to know how "a tract in the hands of the Venus de' Medici" would look. These critics, Mrs. Jay replies, and we entirely agree with her, are more ingenious than convincing. They should remember that Venus was not the result of a purely artistic imagination, but was herself a religious conception, and she asks why, if sculpture could ally itself with religion in pagan times, may not literature find a true basis in religion in Christian times? "Why, then, should not the great novel of the world be a religious novel?" Mrs. Jay continues, and why should not she "humbly help to prepare the way" for the great religious novelist of the future? We confess ourselves unable to answer these questions. As to what is to be the precise character of the future novel, or the future architecture, or the future music, or the future poetry, or the future ceramic art, we have always felt the danger of committing ourselves to any "record." But as to this present religious novel, there can be no doubt that it is more interesting than most fictions of the same class. Mrs. Jay is a writer of a great deal of natural power, having quite as much, for instance, as nature gifted Miss Braddon with, and she uses it in a less flamboyant way; but we fear that her power is not, as she supposes it to be, religious. 'Holden with the Cords' is a modern romance, the scene laid principally on and near a Southern plantation, and the person who is "holden with the cords" is one Edmund Roath, otherwise known as Earle Roy or Dr. Remy, and the cords with which he is holden are those of his sins, for he is a nefarious character, an atheist or materialist of the old school, who believes neither in God nor man, virtue nor vice, is always sceptical and hollow, but goes directly to his ends, or indirectly as the case may be, without remorse and with the most frightful depravity. In this volume he murders two men, tries to kill a third, he forges a will, he intercepts letters, and in every way conducts himself like the infidel he is. His schemes are all thwarted and brought to naught, on the other hand, by the good young man from the North, who represents the religious interest, converts one or two of the characters, and in the course of the story shows himself to be the possessor of a noble and courageous heart. Mrs. Jay seems to be a writer of a good deal of originality, and her forte lies in her management of the development of her plot, which she succeeds in keeping interesting with all its intricacy. We have not, as we say, found the religious part of the book so good as the story, but the fault may be with us. There does not appear to be much theology in the religious faith which Mrs. Jay desires to inspire. Her hero, for a young man who "prefers not to use alcoholic stimulants in any form," is a pleasantly robust and manly character.

'Chaste as Ice,' an English novel, gives a rather tedious account of a beautiful Mrs. Grey, deserted by her husband on account of a misunderstanding of her relations with a certain Mr. L'Estrange. Mr. L'Estrange is affected in a peculiar way by the fascination of Mrs. Grey's beauty, and instead of running away with her he kidnaps her child, and then persuades the little girl to accompany him on a sentimental tour in search of the father. It all ends happily in a reconciliation. Meantime, Arthur, the youthful hero, early in the book sees Mrs. Grey, and falls in love with her, and this leads to the breaking off of an engagement with his cousin Adèle, but he recovers from his infatuation and renews his engagement.

The Earth as Modified by Human Action. A new edition of 'Man and Nature.' By George P. Marsh. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.)—Since the first appearance of 'Man and Nature,' about ten years ago, Mr. Marsh has given evidence of his continued interest in the subject, by issuing an Italian edition at Florence in 1870, in which numerous changes and additions were made, in order to keep abreast with the most recent ad-

'The Honeymoon. Remembrances of a Bridal Tour through Scotland. By the Count de Medina Pomar.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

'Katherine Earle. By Miss Adeline Trafton, author of 'An American Girl Abroad,' etc.' Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard; New York: Lee, Shepard & Dillingham. 1874.

'At Her Mercy. A Novel. By James Payn.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

'The Best of Husbands. A Novel. By James Payn.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

'My Mother and I. A Love Story. By the Author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' etc. With Illustrations.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

'Holden with the Cords. By W. M. L. Jay, Author of 'Shiloh,' etc.' New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1874.

'Chaste as Ice, Pure as Snow. A Novel. By Mrs. M. C. Despard.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

vances in knowledge. Not less extensive changes have been made in this the second American edition, which is an improvement upon the Italian; and whether or not it be his design, Mr. Marsh has certainly the advantage of being able to revise his work and clear his note-books every five years by the simple expedient of ten-yearly editions in two languages. We have endeavored to compare the differences between the Florence edition and the present one, but the transpositions alone have been so extensive as to make this no easy undertaking. The foot-notes show a gain sometimes on one side, sometimes on the other. For instance, the note on page 353, Italian ed., is very much condensed on page 369, Am. ed., with the loss of some needless detail, perhaps, but also of some references to authorities. The American edition could better afford this than the Italian, as it has a bibliographical list of works consulted by Mr. Marsh, in which, however, the authorities omitted from the foot-note do not appear. We miss, by the way, from the list, and from the notes (in both editions) on the German forests, so important a work as that of Ebermayer of Aschaffenburg ('Physical Effects of Forest Atmosphere and Soil'). In the Italian edition, again, doubtless owing to Mr. Marsh's own supervision of it, we have a much better index than in the American. Lastly, in point of size, the duodecimo form of the Italian is certainly preferable to the unhandy octavo of the two American editions, besides answering better the popular character and intention of Mr. Marsh's treatise so far as his own countrymen are concerned. To this point we would once more call the attention of his publishers.

The great merits of 'Man and Nature' have long since made it an American classic as well as given it an international reputation. It is, in our opinion, one of the most useful and suggestive works ever published, and to those who have never reflected on the various ways in which mankind consciously or unconsciously disturb the equilibrium of nature, with effects beneficial, indifferent, or disastrous, as the case may be, Mr. Marsh's observations and laboriously collected facts will come with the force of a revelation. The least observant and reflecting will find entertainment in reading him, and all may profit by his teachings. The agriculturist, as being in closest contact with nature, will perhaps derive the most profit from these pages, as an illustration may show. Plenty of reasons have been adduced in favor of planting trees on our Western plains, but the following may never have occurred to the granger who now mourns his devastated crops in Minnesota or Kansas:

"The insects most injurious to the rural industry of the garden and the plough-land," says Mr. Marsh, p. 299, "do not multiply in or near the woods The locust, which ravages the East with its voracious armies, is bred in vast open plains which admit the full heat of the sun to hasten the hatching of the eggs, gather no moisture to destroy them, and harbor no bird to feed upon the larvæ. It is only since the felling of the forests of Asia Minor and Cyrene that the locust has become so fearfully destructive in those countries; and the grasshopper, which now threatens to be almost as great a pest to the agriculture of some North American soils, breeds in seriously injurious numbers only where a wide extent of surface is bare of woods."

And in a foot-note to this passage, citing Rentzsch, it is stated that

"Smela, in the government of Kiev, has for some years not suffered at all from the locusts, which formerly came every year in vast swarms; and the curculio, so injurious to the turnip crops, is less destructive there than in other parts of the province. This improvement is owing partly to the more thorough cultivation of the soil, partly to the groves which are interspersed among the plough-lands. . . . When in the midst of the plains woods shall be planted and filled with insectivorous birds, the locusts will cease to be a plague and a terror to the farmer."

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer to the Secretary of War for the Year 1873 Washington: Government Printing Office. 8vo, pp. 880, with 47 Plates. 1874.

This volume, in its present magnitude, illustrates the rate of growth of a highly important department of the public service, the annual account, during the few years since the work began, having increased year by year in more than geometrical ratio. At present, according to General Myer, chief of the bureau, there are 181 observers, of whom 88 are sergeants and 93 assistants, occupying 78 stations. The service of 11 stations in the Dominion of Canada is, however, to be added to this enumeration. The details of the doings of the Signal Service establishment during the year are much too numerous to permit even a partial review of them here. In addition to the publication in the daily papers of the weather forecasts (so familiar to all our readers), we may, however, call attention to the fact that, for the purpose of imparting the same information to the rural districts, the eastern half of the United States is divided into areas of a hundred miles or more in diameter, with a central station in each, from which printed slips containing these forecasts are mailed daily to all the post-offices within the district. These are posted up in conspicuous places for consultation by all who are interested. Other features of the weather, such as the stage of the water in the principal rivers, the temperature of the water, and sundry special points, also receive attention. A new feature of this report is the record of the weather for long periods continuously at distant places—viz., the Island of St. Paul, off Alaska, and the vessel *Polaris* in the North Polar Expedition. Records are given also from a second mountain, Mount Mitchell, in N. C., which is very little higher than Mount Washington; and a comparison of the reports from these two mountains elicits several noteworthy phenomena—viz., simultaneous changes in the barometer, simultaneous changes in the velocity of the wind, independently of its direction, the direction being utterly dissimilar, but no correspondence in temperature; the temperature at Mount Mitchell averages about 15 degrees warmer than at Mount Washington. It is a blemish that in giving reports from stations part way up these mountains, the bearing from the summit is not always stated (*e.g.*, Station 3 on Mount Washington), for this affects the direction of the wind materially. In collating the daily record of Knoxville (which is inserted for comparison with Mount Mitchell), there appears proof of gross error somewhere, in that the barometer was represented as unchangeable during several days, upon one of which the chart of monthly tracks of areas of low pressure gave a minimum very near Knoxville. Another serious fault in this report, and one which materially mars its usefulness, is the entire absence of anything in the way of a table of contents or alphabetical index. As a scientific document, and one to which frequent reference may be needed by the physicist and meteorologist, its permanent value is greatly lessened by this omission, which we hope will be remedied in succeeding reports.

Forty-third Congress, First Session. Senate. Executive Document, No. 58. Annual Report of the Commissioner of Patents for the year 1873. Quarto, pp. 396. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874.

This volume, in its general appearance, forms a very marked contrast to the Patent Office Reports of former times, which were published annually in three or four bulky octavo volumes, profusely illustrated with cuts, and in editions sometimes exceeding one hundred thousand copies. The present document is a thin quarto, without illustrations, and consists almost entirely of tables (the enumeration of the titles of patents), without any specifications or explanations. In no branch of the Government service has there been a more desirable reform than in the publication of the Patent Office Report. The annual expense used to be enormous, while the number of copies actually utilized bore a very small proportion to that published; and the reports were, after all, of very little service, in view of the very diminutive figures and scanty text. At the present time, as soon as a patent is actually completed it is printed on a folio sheet, with any illustrations accompanying it photolithographed on a large scale. Extra copies of these are always kept on hand, and are sold at a very moderate rate to any applicant; indeed, an arrangement can readily be made, on depositing a certain sum of money, to receive, as they are published, copies of all patents that bear upon any particular subject. This reduces the annual report to a simple volume of enumeration of the patents issued during the year. In the one before us we have, first, an alphabetical list of patentees for the year 1873, followed by a list of patents extended during the same time, and an alphabetical list of inventions and of reissues, extensions, disclaimers, and trade-marks. The total number of applications during the year amounted to 20,414; of patents issued, including reissues and designs, 12,864. The number of trade-marks registered was 492. Of the patentees themselves, 12,371 were citizens of the United States; 341 of Great Britain; 64 of France; and 88 of other foreign Governments—making the aggregate of 12,864 inventors. The total receipts of the office during the year amounted to $703,191; the expenditures to $691,178. The balance in the Treasury to the account of the Patent Office fund is at present $306,124, representing the profits of the office, from its inception, over and above the expenditures. The regular publications of the United States Patent Office, at the present time, in addition to the annual report just mentioned, consist of the *Official Gazette*, published weekly, on Tuesdays, and containing all the patents of the week, up to date, with illustrations. This embraces the Commissioner's decisions; the decisions of the courts; applications for extension; extensions granted; designs patented; trade-marks registered; index of inventions; index of patentees and inventions patented—the specifications, titles, and claims of each patent being published, together with the reduced figures. This forms, annually, two stout octavos, each of about 712 pages of text and 104 of illustrations. Its price is six dollars per annum, or five dollars to clubs of not less than five sent at one time. Formerly a volume was published weekly with the specifications in full. This is now issued monthly, with the drawings complete, on a reduced scale. Each of these monthly volumes contains about 900 pages of letterpress. The monthly volumes are usually about four months behind. An index volume of the year also makes its appearance, containing about 384 pages. All these weekly, monthly, and index

publications are in demi-quarto. In addition to these volumes, as already stated, each specification and claim is published on a separate sheet, with its illustrations, and is furnished to any applicant at twenty-five cents, or at ten cents if twenty are taken at a time. A whole class may be ordered at the rate of five cents per copy, and this opportunity is eagerly embraced by many persons who desire to know whatever appears bearing upon their own business. Most first-class patent agents take the entire series. Considerable progress has been made in reproducing the patents issued prior to the 30th of May, 1871; and, in time, there is no reason to doubt that the entire series, from the opening of the office, will be available to the public. The large scale drawings are all photolithographed by the process of J. W. Osborn & Co., the negatives being taken in the office itself by Mr. Osborn, and transferred to stone for the printing of impressions. But few copies of any of these works are distributed gratuitously, only a certain number being supplied to Government officials requiring them and to certain libraries. The whole enterprise is therefore to a considerable degree self-sustaining, and at the same time meets the wants of the public very much better than heretofore.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

SEPTEMBER 29, 1874.

THE money market remains easy at the rates quoted last week. Call loans range between 2 and 3 per cent., with the bulk of transactions at 2½ per cent. Commercial paper is in good demand, with very little offering; we quote the market as follows: 5 to 5½ for short date, and 5½ to 7 for prime names running three and four months.

The weekly statement of the New York Clearing-House banks on Saturday shows that the banks hold $25,505,100 in lawful money in excess of the amount they are required by law to keep against their deposits and circulation—a small falling off of $41,600 as compared with the amount so held last week. The following shows the changes in the different items going to make up the statement:

	Sept. 19.	Sept. 26.	Differences.
Loans	$280,569,200	$279,539,400	Dec.. $1,029,800
Specie	19,952,100	18,919,900	Dec... 1,032,200
Legal-tenders	64,804,800	65,700,400	Inc.. 895,600
Deposits	236,840,800	236,460,800	Dec.. 380,000
Circulation	25,638,600	25,625,800	Inc.. 12,800

The following shows the relations between the total reserves and the total liabilities:

	Sept. 19.	Sept. 26.	Differences.
Specie	$19,952,100	$18,919,900	Dec.. $1,032,200
Legal-tenders	64,804,800	65,700,400	Inc.. 895,600
Total reserve	$84,756,900	84,620,300	Dec.. $136,600
Reserve required against deposits	59,210,200	59,115,200	Dec.. 95,000
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't	25,546,700	25,505,100	Dec.. 41,600

The stock market was strong and buoyant throughout the week upon the entire list of stocks, and prices advanced from 1 to 5½ per cent., the greatest rise being in Harlem, which sold up to 131 from 125½, Michigan Central, which advanced 4 per cent., and C. C. & I. C., 4¾ per cent. A strong upward movement was shown in Ohio and Mississippi, which sold from 24¼ up to 27¾, with every indication of a further advance in price. Union Pacific reached 37¾, but at that figure there was a halt, the stock becoming less active, and a subsequent reaction carried the price down to 37½ on Saturday, at which it closed.

The market opened to-day with an unsettled feeling. Shortly after the opening prices declined from ¼ to 1 per cent. A false rumor that Commodore Vanderbilt was very ill caused a sharp decline in New York Central, carrying the price down to 100⅛. A better feeling existed later in the day, and the market rallied from ¼ to 1¼ per cent. from the lowest prices of the morning. Ohio and Mississippi advanced to 28⅞ and closed strong at 28⅝ bid. The "Grangers"—Milwaukee and St. Paul—and the Northwestern stocks also showed a considerable improvement, St. Paul closing at 35¾ and Northwestern common at 39⅛. There are indications that other stocks than those which have been most active during the last few weeks will be made to move before long, the same as Ohio and Mississippi has been taken in hand and advanced. The St. Paul and Northwestern stocks seem, for the moment, to have touched bottom, and a further recovery in them of several points is by no means improbable. Rock Island is also likely to make an upward movement.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, September 28, 1874:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	100¼ 101	101⅛ 101⅜	101⅜ 101⅝	101¼ 102	101½ 101⅝	101⅜ 101⅝	29,450
Lake Shore	76 76¾	76⅝ 77⅛	76⅞ 77⅜	76¾ 77⅜	76⅜ 77⅛	78 79¼	240,580
Erie	35⅝ 37	36⅞ 37⅜	36 37⅛	.... 38⅜	37⅜ 37⅞	37⅝ 38	76,250
Wabash	31⅜ 32½	32 32⅜	32⅜ 32⅝	33 34¼	33 33⅝	33 33⅝	65,400
N. W st. Com	36⅜ 37¼	37¼ 38¼	37⅜ 38⅞	38⅜ 39¾	38½ 39¼	38½ 39¼	146,300
Do. pfd	53¾ 54¼	54¼ 55	55½ 56	56 57	 57	....	2,500
St. Paul Com	33⅜ 33¾	33¾ 33¾	33¾ 34¼	34⅜ 35¼	34¼ 34¾	33¾ 34½	51,800
Do. pfd	.... 52¾	 52	52¾ 53½	.... 53¾	 54	53 53½	1,100
W. U. Tel., x	77⅜ 78¾	78⅜ 78¾	78¼ 78¾	78¼ 78¾	78⅜ 79¼	79¼ 79¾	114,500
Pacific Mail	47¾ 48¾	47¾ 48	47¾ 48⅞	48¾ 49⅜	48⅜ 49½	49¼ 50¼	142,600
C. C. & I. C	10¼ 11⅜	11⅜ 13	13 14¼	12 15	11 12½	11⅜ 12⅜	48,800
Rock Island	101⅝ 102	102 102⅜	.... 102⅜	103 103⅜	103 103⅜	103⅜ 103⅜	40,700
N. J. Central	105⅜ 105⅞	.... 105⅞	 106	 106	 106	....	900
D., L. & W	.... 109¼	109¼ 109¾	.... 109¾	.... 109¾	110 110¼	.... 110⅜	5,600
Union Pacific	35¾ 36¾	36½ 37	35⅞ 36¾	36⅛ 36⅝	36¼ 37¼	37¼ 37⅜	173,600
O. & M	24¾ 24⅞	24⅜ 26¾	25⅞ 26⅜	26¾ 27⅛	26⅜ 27	26⅜ 27⅜	64,600
Harlem	.... 125½	125⅝ 131	128 128½	.... 128½	 128	128 128¼	6,800

Government bonds have been dull, the demand being only for the purpose of supplying investors, no speculative enquiry whatever being shown for any of the different issues. The investors of importance consist of banks and other financial institutions who prefer investing in Governments to loaning their money out at current market rates. The following are the latest quotations this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Coupon 6's, 1881	118	118⅛	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1867	117	117⅛
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1862	112½	113	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1868	117	117¼
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1864	115	115¼	Coupon 5's, 10-40's	111¼	111⅝
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, M. & N.	116	116¼	Coupon 5's of 1881	112	112⅛
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, J. & J.	115¾	116	U. S. Currency 6's	117⅜	117⅝

Railroad bonds of the better class have shown considerable activity, with prices strong. The Pacific Railroad first mortgages have been in short demand, especially for those of the Union Pacific, which sold as high as 89⅞. The 7 per cent. consolidated bonds of the N. Y. Central and Hudson River Railroad Company sold in large amounts at 108⅞. Proposals were received at Albany on Friday for $2,000,000 six per cent. registered loan of the State of New York; the total amount bid for was $8,500,000, in gold; the whole loan was taken by the Comptroller for the sinking fund at 103, gold.

Very little interest has been shown in the gold market during the week; the transactions were very small in amount, and mainly confined to the trading brokers at the Exchange. The following shows the course of the market:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Sept. 21	109⅝	109⅝	109⅜	109⅜
Tuesday, Sept. 22	109⅜	109⅝	109⅜	109⅜
Wednesday, Sept. 23	109⅝	109¾	109⅝	109⅝
Thursday, Sept. 24	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝	109⅝
Friday, Sept. 25	109⅝	109⅝	109⅜	109⅜
Saturday, Sept. 26	109⅜	109⅞	109⅜	109¾

The specie shipments for the week amounted to $564,602.

NOTICE TO THE HOLDERS

OF THE

FIRST-MORTGAGE BONDS OF THE OREGON AND CALIFORNIA RAILROAD.

The undersigned Trustees are prepared to purchase, for the Sinking Fund, a certain amount of the First Mortgage Bonds of the Oregon and California Railroad Company, and hereby invite offers of such bonds from holders.

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Communications stating amount and price of bonds, and marked "Offer of Oregon and California Railroad Bonds," may be addressed to the undersigned, care of the London and San Francisco Bank, San Francisco, California.

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WILLIAM MORRIS,
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SAN FRANCISCO, Sept. 1, 1874.

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OF THE

PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH

Meets in New York, October 7, 1874.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted by the last General Convention which met at Baltimore in 1871:

"*Resolved*, That the thanks of this House be tendered to Messrs. M. H. Mallory & Co. for their very accurate report of the daily proceedings of the House, and that they be requested to make arrangements for similar reports of the next session of this body."

In accordance with the request above made, we have engaged Mr. D. F. Murphy, Chief of the Congressional Corps of Reporters, with his assistants, who made the "very accurate" report for 1871, which has proved itself so useful to the Church, to make a

VERBATIM REPORT

of the debates in the House of Deputies this year.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 8, 1874.

The Week.

NEW ORLEANS is now very quiet, a compromise having been effected between the two parties. By the terms of this agreement, the Kellogg party pledges itself to a fair election, and the Conservatives to peace and order, and an "Advisory Committee" of five is appointed, consisting of two Republicans, two Conservatives, and a "jointly-selected" umpire. This committee is to "supervise and carry on the registration throughout the State on behalf of all parties," Kellogg pledging himself to act upon the advice and suggestions of the committee whenever it is legally possible. Besides this, at the expiration of twenty days, if everything goes well, the Returning Board is to be remodelled, two vacancies are to be created by the resignation of Republicans and filled by Conservatives. Mr. Charles O'Conor, of this city, has written a letter to the *Herald*, in which he points out that the notion that Grant is compelled to recognize Kellogg to the end of time, because he has recognized him once, is erroneous. The mere fact that he has on a certain occasion come to the conclusion that a given *de-facto* government shall be sustained in any State, may be conclusive against all the world under the Constitution in certain cases carefully enumerated in that instrument; but this does not preclude him from a reconsideration and reversal of his decision. We fear, however, that neither referring General Grant to Luther *v.* Borden, nor recalling to his recollection even judicial reversals of opinion such as that in the legal-tender cases, will have any effect. Almost official notice has been given that he does not read "what the newspapers say."

Mr. John Kelly has put the Mayor in an uncomfortable position by proving pretty conclusively that his charges for summoning jurors, returning convictions, and carrying convicts to and fro, were all justified by the laws of the State, or, where the meaning of statutes was in doubt, by the established practice, which, however, like most sheriffs' practice, seems in some cases to have been lax. Even in the case of the supposed exorbitant charges for shaving condemned criminals and the expenses attending executions, Mr. Kelly comes off triumphant. The Mayor promised to ruin him, indeed, in a supplementary statement; but we doubt if the document has much effect. The Mayor has succeeded in injuring his own reputation more than he has any of his enemies; and very few people are likely to pay any attention to what he says. The only other event of importance during the week in municipal politics has been the acquittal of the Commissioners of Charities by the Grand Jury, accompanied by a testimonial to their diligent endeavors to execute their duties faithfully, which, however, a minority of the jury declined to agree to. Speaking for ourselves, we must say that we have been unable to find, after a somewhat careful examination of the charges and the Commissioners' reply, any evidence of corruption.

Mr. S. J. Simmons of Boston, said to be the brother of the Collector of the Port, has made some revelations during the past week which looked interesting at first, because the newspapers, making a natural confusion of identity, mistook this Simmons for the other Simmons whose appointment caused so much noise last winter; and it was supposed for twenty-four hours that Butler's chief janissary had turned state's evidence and that some startling facts would indeed be laid before the people. Public excitement, however, has since much abated. What Mr. Simmons reveals is that "Butlerism" and "chicanery, fraud, and corruption" are convertible terms; that he himself has done things for the Butler party which "bring the blush of shame" to his face; that he has used his power as a United States officer to intimidate men in the liquor business; that he has "packed caucuses"; received money from one Usher, United States marshal, and from "Butler's partner," for such purposes; that he is now ready to take the stump and denounce Butler, even at the risk of being considered insane, and being accused of treachery and falsehood; and in conclusion he "throws down his gage." Mr. Simmons has for some time past been a bold, bad man, being not merely in the employ of the Butler faction, but doing some much-needed, earnest, and useful work for them; going about on the eve of conventions or rather caucuses among the vendors of liquors, and enquiring of them in a secretly hostile but ostensibly amicable manner, whether they were provided with licenses, as required by the laws of Massachusetts, and, after a good deal of light and agreeable conversation on other topics, dropping a hint, as he left the premises, that an important political meeting would soon be held in their ward by the Republicans, and that there was no class in the community whose moral support at this reunion would be more welcome than that of unlicensed vendors of intoxicating drinks. This Mr. Simmons now repents as a crime against the purity of the ballot.

We have received from a friend of Mr. D. H. Chamberlain a reply to many of the charges made against him. This reply consists of a denial of most of the accusations; but for two reasons it is not complete. In the first place, the reply is dated Aug. 19, while the only definite charge to which we have given any publicity or attached any weight appeared first in the *Tribune* of September 26, in a letter from a Philadelphia correspondent. In the second place, Mr. Chamberlain and his friends seem to suppose that the *gravamen* of the accusation against him is corrupt use of public funds. It is nothing of the kind. Mr. Chamberlain is accused of the same sort of crime for which Mr. A. Oakey Hall of this city has been once or twice indicted—guilty knowledge of and connivance at thefts from the public treasury. The correspondent of the *Tribune* makes the statement, for instance, that Chamberlain himself drew the acts under which the thieving in South Carolina took place. Mr. Chamberlain, like Hall, will no doubt say that he "did not know what was going on"; but the difficulty with this reply is that the accusation practically contains an additional charge that he took pains not to know what was going on. This is what Mr. Chamberlain and his friends ought to disprove; but, unfortunately for them, they cannot easily get rid of the strong presumption against the innocence of any one who allowed him to become the political partner of such a man as Tweed or such a man as Scott. Ninety-nine people in this city out of a hundred believe Hall guilty to-day though no jury has been able to agree on a verdict in his case; and though he, too, is a man of "education and æsthetic tastes," he would not make a good candidate in New York for Reform Governor. In South Carolina, the principal duty of a Reform magistrate now would be to keep the hands of thieves (who are always on the look-out, and have a great many excellent opportunities) out of the public Treasury; in this work Mr. Chamberlain must himself admit that he lamentably failed while in office. Finally, we may add that the mere fact that a man has not been or even cannot be convicted of felony is not of itself sufficient reason for electing him to office.

Mr. Frelinghuysen of New Jersey, who has always had the reputation of being a respectable and honest man, has made a reply to the charges against him in connection with the "gag-law," so-called, of the last session of Congress. He says that Congress passed no gag-law; that the law which did pass, had no effect on the law of libel whatever; that the law introduced by Mr. Carpenter of Wisconsin relating to service of process on agents of corporations

doing business in Washington (though that, too, would have no effect on the law of libel) did not pass. It seems to us that Mr. Frelinghuysen clears the skirts of his party, as well as his own, of any suspicion of having actually enacted a gag-law, while grave doubts may yet remain in the minds of many people as to the purity of Mr. Carpenter's designs in the introduction of his measure. As to the actual condition of the law, one proof of the truth of Mr. Frelinghuysen's statement is the fact that no paper appears as yet to have been gagged—if we may judge from the editorial columns of those which it is our good fortune to see from week to week. The Democrats make a great mistake in trying to get political capital out of this "gag-law," for a child can see that the newspapers never were freer than at the present moment to say what they pleased; and, besides this, from there being some papers which make a regular business of slandering and lying right and left, and from the fact of these papers never receiving any punishment, a good many quiet people are just now inclined to be rather indifferent as to whether a paper here and there is gagged or not.

Mr. Beecher has obtained indictments against Tilton and Moulton from the Grand Jury of Kings County, and they will be tried in November, in advance of the civil action brought by Tilton. The probabilities are that somebody will be broken down on cross-examination, and this, rather than a verdict of the jury, is what the public has to hope for. In the Proctor case, however, there can be little doubt that the jury will agree. Moulton's position in this is a ludicrously absurd one for "a man of the world." He published a disgusting story about a lady, which he said Beecher told him. It had nothing to do with the Tilton business, and was produced solely for the purpose of disgracing Beecher, and he published a paper in corroboration of it. The lady was at once recognized by the paper, and she had Moulton indicted. When the case is called, Beecher will come forward and swear he never told him such a story; the lady will come forward and swear there is not a word of truth in it, and will prove that the paper produced referred to a totally different transaction, leaving the defendant without a word to say for himself in the presence of an exasperated jury, a pitiless judge, and an impatient sheriff. "Men of the world" in Brooklyn, in fact, seem to be hardly shrewder than old ladies from the country.

There are signs of reconciliation between the city of Chicago and the insurance companies. The Common Council proposes to raise money to improve and enlarge the Fire Department and increase the supply of water, both of which are recommendations of General Shaler of this city, who went out on invitation to inspect. The most difficult task, however, will be to persuade the owners of the wooden shanties within the proposed fire limits to be "fire-policed." These are a class which Chicago has encouraged, and who were her pride before the great fire; they have now become her shame and danger, and yet they are voters, and have their rights—amongst others, that of being burnt out periodically and setting fire to everybody near them. By the bye, if the business of fire insurance had been carried on in immovable property, like railroads or mills, would the Chicago people, under the new Granger philosophy, have allowed the companies to withdraw from the city? Should we not have heard that "corporations were the creatures of the law"; that it was the solemn duty of the State to fix rates so as to save citizens from "grinding monopoly"; that the persons insured knew better than the managers what the premiums on policies ought to be; that the people of Chicago had built up these heartless speculators, and demanded relief. Finally, perhaps Butler would have come on and proposed, as a compromise, to examine the books of the companies, and allow none to withdraw except such as could show that they had lost money in their business during the preceding year. Buckle was clearly in error when he said that no progress was made in morals, that as much was known of it five thousand years ago as now. Moral science has in fact made strides in the West during the last two years which may well put physicists to shame.

The President of the Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad has written an admirable letter to the Governor of Wisconsin, telling him that the decision of the Supreme Court leaves open to the Company only one of two courses—either a severe pecuniary loss or a reduction in the quality of services rendered. This last course, Mr. Mitchell says, would only be taken with great reluctance, and it has therefore been decided to submit to the loss, obey the law, and wait for the legislature of Wisconsin to decide, with the case fully before them, whether the Potter law ought to be repealed or not. The annual report of the Northwestern Road also contains a review of the Granger legislation. Mr. Keep, the President of the road, uses, like Mr. Mitchell, very moderate language; points out that, of all the laws passed on the subject in the West, the Potter law is the most arbitrary and unjust; but adds that, "while the State of Wisconsin has made herself conspicuous by legislation which would utterly subvert the rights of property and deprive the owners of her railroads of their beneficial use, yet it is due to her people to say that throughout the controversy upon this Potter Act, with a very few annoying exceptions, they have evinced the most friendly disposition, and generally concurred in condemning the hasty legislation which has brought so much evil, without just provocation, upon railway property within the State. It cannot be possible that the business community or the farmers of Wisconsin, whose honesty and intelligence are equal to those of the people of any State, can be fairly represented in the passage of this act, and it is confidently believed that, when the present excitement shall subside and calmer views prevail, they will demand the repeal of the obnoxious measure, and prevent the recurrence of so great an injustice."

Professor Bonamy Price was very pleasantly and informally received by the Chamber of Commerce of this city last Thursday. The reception consisted of an address by Mr. Price to the Chamber, followed by a sort of conference between the audience and the lecturer on the subject of the discourse—financial crises. Mr. Price, in spite of his years, is as enthusiastic in manner as many a man just entering on life, and he laid down the law on economical subjects to the merchants gathered about him with such an absolutely impersonal interest in the truth of what he was saying, that the general effect of his remarks was excellent. That peculiar condescension which in a well-known and amusing essay is noticed as one of the "differentiating" marks of the British foreigner in this country, and which he has been accused of showing in several other countries, and even on occasion in his own, is not so noticeable in Mr. Price's manner as is a determination at all hazards to do a little necessary teaching. During his address he asked a few questions of the audience, very much as a professor might ask his class at college for the purpose of testing their knowledge; and being rather surprised at receiving no immediate answer, assured the members of the Chamber with much *naïveté* that half-a-dozen of his Oxford class would have answered at once. This, however, only pleased the audience, some of whom, it must be confessed, may be suspected of being not so well "up" in the 'Wealth of Nations' as they are in the various ways and means practised in this and other countries of adding year by year to that of the individual citizen. We understand that Mr. Price has declined to deliver any public lectures. We are sorry to hear it, for he would, we are confident, not only succeed, but do a great deal of good in popularizing knowledge of a much needed kind.

There is a good deal of disputation still going on as to the meaning of the Maine-et-Loire election, owing to the uncertainty as to what became of the Legitimists. About 50,000 voters staid at home, but there is a great difference of opinion as to who they were. The Monarchist papers maintain that they were Legitimists, as the policy of abstention was preached by the party journals. The matter has, however, lost much of its importance, in view of the elections of the councils-general, which have just taken place in all the Departments, and which apparently show Republican losses and Bonapartist and Conservative gains. The figures show that out of

1,300 elections there are 590 Republicans, 550 Monarchists, and 130 Bonapartists, leaving 30 districts in which there will have to be new elections; that the Republicans are disappointed there seems to be little doubt. Three more elections for the Assembly are to take place in November. In fact, the Assembly is being gradually renewed by the slow process of filling vacancies, but the small amount of change in the relative strength of parties in it produced by the change of men is another proof of the exaggerations of the stories about the rush of the rural population into Republicanism.

England is just now occupied with a fresh "problem," known as "the Indian problem," which has been raised by the late famine, or rather late expectation of famine in Bengal, for, owing to the precautions taken by the Government, the suffering has been very small, and the loss of life hardly perceptible. This is, however, the first time that a famine has been prevented from causing terrible loss of life, and it gives fair grounds for believing that, with the growing increase of means of transportation, no fatal famines will occur again. But now up start a number of social philosophers, who say that the population of India is and always has been utterly improvident; that it lives on one crop—the rice crop—and never stores a supply for the ensuing year, and always, like all races with a low standard of living, breeds up close to the means of subsistence. In old times, however, the increase was checked by tremendous famines in which millions perished, by the pestilence which usually follows famines, and by devastating wars. The British rule has apparently removed these checks, and the increase will go on without any check, moral or physical. How will the Government take care of this vast, growing, and all but helpless multitude? The answer which this question has called out from qualified observers is that the only remedy is the establishment of manufactures, to draw people off from agriculture, diversify employments, and raise the standard of living. The main difficulty in the way of this is the traditional discouragement of white adventurers by the Indian Government. The old Company wanted no whites in Hindostan but its own officers, and snubbed, frowned upon, and treated as "interlopers" such Englishmen as went out to engage in trade or planting. The reason of this has long passed away, but the tradition has survived in the manners. Englishmen not specially connected with the Government are not made comfortable or encouraged, and the result is that until very lately English capital and enterprise have not flowed into India as they might have done. There has been a good deal of indigo-planting, some Scotchmen have begun the raising of jute, and the tea-plant is extensively cultivated in the hills, and now there is a call for cotton-mills. The agitation will probably work a change, but the regeneration of Indian society is still a long way off.

The English Railroad Commission, which was appointed last year, has made its first annual report, which is very interesting reading. The English Act "regulating railroad and canal traffic" was passed in 1853, and its execution was left to the ordinary law courts, which were, however, found inadequate to the task. Last year, therefore, a board of three Commissioners was created to hear all complaints against railroads, and determine all disputes between them under the Act. The work reported by them for the past year will give a good idea of the nature and extent of their duties and of the efficiency of their performance of them. The first case brought before them was a complaint of the town of Dover that the London, Chatham and Dover Railroad had given undue advantages to other places in the way of cheapness of fares and frequency of trains, so as to injure its prosperity. The company demurred as to the jurisdiction of the Commission, and, this being overruled, pleaded that they were at liberty to charge what they pleased within the legal maximum. This, too, was decided against them, and before the merits of the case were reached they surrendered, and the complaint was withdrawn. Two carriers or expressmen complained that a company had discriminated against them by delivering goods entrusted to the company itself in the first place at lower rates than the expressmen could deliver them after paying the company's charges. Here again the company came down and settled, discrimination in their own favor as well as between customers being forbidden. Two coal-dealers complained that a company had ceased to deliver coal to them at a certain station, though they still delivered it at that station to the corporation of Manchester for the city gas-works. The company pleaded a change of station, and an exception in favor of the city on the ground of public interest. The Commission ruled that their change of the station was "reasonable," and also their exception in favor of the city. The Commission is also empowered to arbitrate between different railways, and between railroads and the Board of Trade and the Post-Office—as for instance in a "postal-car controversy." One of the Commission's duties is the inspection of all contracts between companies, such as leases, for instance, none of which are valid without their approval.

The Conference at Bonn to which Dr. Döllinger lately invited the Old Catholics and their friends and sympathizers in the Protestant and Greek Churches, met on Monday the 14th of September, as appointed, and some account of the proceedings appear in the papers received by the last mail. It must be admitted that they have not a very hopeful sound. In the first place, hardly anybody present understood anybody else's language, and Dr. Döllinger had to interpret a large number of the speeches himself, which must have been a very blind mode of discussing such very delicate matters as the definition of doctrines. In the next place, the members of the Congress were not really delegates but volunteers, and representing nobody in particular, or only very small bodies of persons. The platforms they drew up cannot of course bind the great body of Christians. The attempts made to bring the churches together by changes in the mode of expressing beliefs, can hardly be considered very effective. The Anglican doctrine that we are saved "by faith only" is something for which the Old Catholics are not prepared; so a compromise was effected by declaring "that we are saved by faith working by love, and not faith without love, as the means and condition of man's justification." This may do for theologians, but it is by far too nice for the perception of the common run of Christians. Another phrase in the Anglican Articles—"the finite merit of men's good works," was changed, in order to accommodate the Old Catholics, into "the finite good of man's works," though what this means it would puzzle most people to say. The Eucharist was decided to be not a sacrifice, but the memorial of a sacrifice and also a holy feast. The treatment in fact of nearly every doctrine consisted in an elaborate attempt to conceal real differences under a new and somewhat cloudy form of words, under which any number of men may take totally different views of the same thing. The one great fact of the affair is that the Old Catholics have really broken with the Pope—but we knew this before. How they stand towards the Greeks or Anglicans we make bold to assert nobody knows.

There are "disquieting rumors," as the stockbrokers say, about the Carlists. The inability of Don Carlos to leave the mountains and push into the plains, and bring on a crisis of any kind, is apparently wearing out the patience of his followers, and stories of insubordination and desertion have been very rife for the past month, crowned now by one which makes Don Carlos receive a mortal wound at the hands of a mutineer. Should there be any truth in this, and it seems to be authentic, it will probably bring the war to an end for the present, no other Legitimist chief being ready to raise the standard. The Pretender has lately had the satisfaction of receiving sympathizing letters from the Czar and the Count de Chambord. The Czar cannot understand what has got into the Spaniards to make them so hostile to their king. Carlos has tried hard to get an "endorsement" from the Pope, but his Holiness is not to be caught in that way. He does not commit himself readily in writing, and by no means displays that fondness for the weak or losing side in which the Church was once not afraid to indulge.

THE "THIRD TERM."

THE "third term" discussion does not seem to make much headway. Nothing that has been said in it, as yet, has made any perceptible impression on the public mind. Indeed, it would be difficult to meet anybody not an official, outside of a newspaper office, who thinks there is anything in it. That General Grant himself looks forward to a third term, we do not in the least believe. We have no doubt that when the proper time comes he will announce his intention of retiring into private life, and will carry it out if he is left to himself. He has many faults, but he certainly never has shown the slightest trace of morbid ambition. The quality which just now seems growing on him—love of ease—is not one that leads to prolonged success in political life, and it has certainly not been due to any political exertions of his own that he has filled the Presidential chair so long. His own inertia, the growing dissatisfaction with his use of the civil service, the strong repugnance, to use a very mild term, of the people to anything like a departure from established political usage in the direction of greater concentration or fixity of power, combined with the natural longings of the leading politicians for a change, will probably put an end to all talk of a third term before the convention meets, unless some catastrophe should occur at the South in the meantime calling for a renewed exertion of military strength on the part of the North.

This talk is, however, none the less a very unpleasant phenomenon. It may be mere raving, but then raving is not a healthy symptom. "Wandering," we know, is often the first sign of prolonged illness. The talk has undoubtedly a certain gravity, not because it is likely to result in anything, but because it is one of, and is due to, a number of conditions of the body politic just now which may fairly be called very morbid. There can be little doubt, for instance, that it would hardly have been raised were it not for the prevailing public apathy about all political questions. There has been for several years profound discontent among the best portion of the voting population with the manner in which politicians are "running" the Government, but all attempts at reform have met with very indifferent success. The Cincinnati movement took the public at a very favorable moment, when its disappointment with General Grant's Administration was in its first flush, but the result was so pitiful that it produced a distrust of all organized opposition which has as yet by no means passed away, nor has there been any revival of confidence in the Republican management. The chiefs evidently try to believe that the so-called "reforms" of the last year or two have reconciled people to the existing régime; but everybody who knows anything of the feeling outside Custom-house circles, knows that this is a mistake. The reforms in question have all been mere removals of abuses which the party itself had created. To suppose that it can in this way renew its hold on the popular confidence, is very like supposing that a readiness to pay on detection for the crockery he smashes, or to restore the spoons he has stolen, will convince people that a man is a useful and upright citizen. There is, on the contrary, deep disgust with the party management, great sorrow and astonishment over the morals and manners of its leading men, but there is at the same time a deep-seated unwillingness to take any active steps to overthrow them and put anybody else in their place, and it is the appearance of stolid indifference which this unwillingness assumes that has led some of the lighter heads of the organization and some of the quidnuncs of the press to begin talking about an indefinite extension of General Grant's Presidency—for a third term would of course mean indefinite extension. If we have to make any man President for twelve years, there will be no good reason for turning him out as long as his faculties are sound.

Now, this unwillingness to make any change, which no intelligent man can under the circumstances help considering a very unwholesome sign, is in truth simply due to the growing doubt and hesitation of the North over the experiment of Reconstruction at the South. That experiment, which was one of the noblest as well as most difficult any people ever undertook—the raising of four millions of slaves into the citizens of a free state—was unfortunately undertaken with instruments which everybody now acknowledges were entirely inadequate. The machinery which works well at the North in industrious, homogeneous communities has been tried at the South, and found very defective. The negroes have not displayed any capacity for self-government, and the whites, so far from helping them out, witness their failure with a sort of glee; and the result is, that from one-half of the Union not only does there not come any support for free and orderly administration, but there do come constant solicitations and temptations to arbitrary and violent processes. In other words, to one-half of the States of the Union the President appears simply as a military commander; and the officer who once was his legal adviser, the Attorney-General, has been converted into a kind of Adjutant-General. The negroes in many of the States are constantly calling for armed guards to supersede the sheriff, and the whites openly declare that, so far from dreading military rule, they desire it. Anybody who reflects upon the exceeding delicacy and subtlety of the influences on which constitutional government rests, and must rest—on the curious and inscrutable combination of affection, habit, tradition, and forethought in political matters, among all classes and conditions of persons, in all parts of the country, which is necessary to make such a government work—must see that this state of things at the South is a source of enormous danger. A single discontented province puts the institutions of a free state in peril. Moreover, it is not only the defection of the South which is dangerous. The influence of that defection on the temper of the North is also dangerous. No thoughtful man can avoid anxiety about the future when he sees the way in which the news of Southern disturbances is received at the North—the rage for violent measures, the disregard of American traditions and of the vital conditions of American government, and for the most solemn and impressive lessons of history, which they produce among many. When we heard of the recent rising in Louisiana, excusable as it was in many of its features, there was on the part of large numbers of the very best of us an outburst of the true despotic temper—that is, a choleric readiness to put the worst possible construction on the motives of the actors, and to take the darkest possible view of the consequences of any display of forbearance towards them—a fierce irritation over their insolence in resisting the arrangements their conquerors had made for them—and, worst of all, a portentous eagerness to send down infantry, cavalry, and artillery as the best mode of dealing with such wretches. In one highly respectable illustrated publication, a picture of the affair represented the President of the United States charging a battery in the streets of New Orleans on horseback, in uniform, as if this was the true way for the chief civil officer of the United States to deal with political discontent. It carried one back to Vienna or Berlin in 1849, and made one ask whether this was the view of the character and functions of that office which we wished to impress on the minds of the rising generation; and whether the American people were really forgetting the great political lessons they were the first to teach the world, and particularly that greatest of all, that malcontents are hardly ever sheer devils who rebel from love of disorder, that behind all violence on the part of large bodies of men there is pretty sure to be ignorance or prejudice or solid grievance, and that it is not wise or just to try grape-shot on them until all other remedies have failed.

We have all along held that the worst sufferers from the state of things we have allowed to grow up in several of the States lately in rebellion were the negroes. Nothing more debauching could possibly happen an ignorant people, without even the smallest social training, than to fall at their very entrance into free civilized life into the hands of the class of white and colored men who poured down to take charge of their politics after Reconstruction. It is, therefore, in their interest, even more than in that of the whites, that the Northern people are bound to take this Southern problem into their own hands and put an end to the delusion which is furnishing to the small party of designing and selfish men who manage the

Republican party their sole capital, and their chief excuse for neglecting totally every other measure of reform. We are far from defending the policy or conduct of the Southern whites during the last ten years, but we are deeply sensible of their difficulties and temptations, as every thinking man must be, and hold that nobody has any right to condemn them, much less legislate for them or bombard them, without having honestly tried to put himself in their place. Nobody who has done so can help feeling a good deal of human sympathy with men who—belonging, in spite of their unhappy history and surroundings, to the foremost civilization of the world, and ranking among the very highest in capacity for all the arts—find their social organization, with all its delicate machinery of credit, industry, justice, finance, and taxation, suddenly taken possession of by a large body of people sunk in barbarism, and managed by the dregs of Northern society, and administered solely for purposes of spoliation. It is not the unrest of the whites under this régime that inspires us with alarm. On the contrary, it makes us hopeful. If the whites of South Carolina and of Louisiana accepted their fate with silent melancholy, we should see no better future for them than Guatemala or Costa Rica.

The theory on which most Northern men refuse them their sympathy, and on which the Conklings and Mortons use the Southern disturbances as capital for the Republican party, and as reasons why, whatever it does or leaves undone, it should be kept in office, is that the whites of the South will not let the negroes alone, but keep murdering and harassing them, and, if it were not for the interference of the Federal troops, would reduce them to "practical slavery." Now, if this theory were correct, the negroes ought to be worst off in the States in which the whites are most numerous and powerful and happiest, and most secure in those States in which they are themselves the largest proportion of the population. We have been for some time, however, struck by the fact that the complaints of turbulence, and the call for infantry, cavalry, and artillery, and the thanks to God that we "had a soldier in the White House," come from those States in which there are most negroes, or, in other words, in which the whites ought to be most cowed and submissive. Impelled by this suggestion, we examined the census of 1870, in connection with as honest reports as we can get, both public and private, of the condition of the various Southern States. Those we have used here are, however, those of the Republican press most eager to magnify Southern disorders.

	Population. White.	Colored.	Political Condition.
Alabama	521,384	475,510	"Reign of terror"; "Midnight assassins"; "No safety for the colored men"; "Thousands begging to be taken back into slavery."
Georgia	638,926	545,142	Perfect peace and great material prosperity.
Louisiana	362,065	364,210	Great oppression of the colored men; constant attempts to rob and murder him; "Reign of terror."
North Carolina	678,470	391,650	Tolerably and increasingly peaceful.
Virginia	712,089	512 841	Peaceful and prosperous.
Mississippi	382,896	444,201	No safety for the blacks; "need of more troops."
Maryland	605,497	175,391	No talk of colored wrongs whatever.
Florida	96,057	91,689	Peaceful, but white men very designing and dangerous. Need great vigilance from the colored man's friends. Population very sparse.
Missouri	1,603,146	118,071	Great prosperity; more or less brigandage, but white men the objects of it. No colored oppression whatever.
Tennessee	936,119	322,331	More or less disorder, but colored men not specially the victims of it.
Kentucky	1,098,692	222,210	A great deal of impartial brigandage; no colored problem whatever.
Arkansas	362,115	122,169	No oppression of the colored man whatever; no disturbances between races.
South Carolina	289,667	415,814	Terrible oppression of the colored man; "Masked robbers and assassins." Need of troops everywhere. Whites untamable and bloodthirsty.

Now, the conclusion we draw from the foregoing is that in those States in which the whites, in virtue of their numbers, take and hold the State government beyond all peradventure, there is as much order and security for blacks as for whites, and there is financial purity and considerable prosperity; while in those States in which the blacks have the majority, or the two races are nearly equal in numbers, there is constant disorder and violence and great material depression. The meaning of this is that the whites are restive under the rule of poor ignorant negroes led by Northern thieves, defaulters, and adventurers, and try in wild and lawless ways to get rid of their oppressors. It furnishes a complete answer to those who say the negroes cannot trust the whites to govern them. Where they are forced to trust them, all goes well.

POTTER AND HIS LAW.

THIS Wisconsin law has been discussed so much in our columns o late that we shall refrain from saying a great many things which Mr. Adams's letter in another column suggests, and are quite content to accept his history of the "Potter law" as accurate. There are a few observations on it which, however, we feel bound to make:

1. He defends the Farmer's honesty at the expense of his knowledge and common-sense. This is not reassuring to investors in Wisconsin, seeing that the farmers there at least hold the balance of power. It matters little to me, for practical purposes, whether I place my property in the power of a designing knave or of a passionate fool. If the accounts which have been sent on to the New York *Tribune* by its correspondent, speaking for the Grangers, and which Mr. Adams gives us of Granger notions of rights and duties, be correct, we repeat that it is not safe to hold any immovable property at their mercy. A man who considers bonds to be "devices by which certain people called bondholders get railroad-construction gangs to double honest farmers' taxes," may be a good fellow, and may mean well, but if he gets absolute control of the government of a civilized state, people with money to invest will do well to give him a wide berth.

2. "The people of the West who are struggling to get the railroads, as a whole, to submit to be governed by law," appear to forget that on the two points on which they are most excited—"unreasonable rates" and "unjust discrimination"—the railroads are already governed by law, or might be. They are and always have been common carriers, which have been from time immemorial forbidden by the common law to charge unreasonable rates or to discriminate between forwarders of freight. What was wanted, therefore, was not a new law, but better machinery for enforcing the old one. There was needed also, however, owing to the novelty of railroads and the complexity of their management and of their operating expenses, and of their relations to the community, a new definition of reasonableness and of discrimination. Anybody could have told in Coke's day what was reasonable for a carrier to charge for conveying goods in his wagon. Every man who owned a horse was an expert on that point, and competition was open and easy. But the elements which enter into railroad charges are so varied, so obscure, and burdened with such a variety of considerations, that the fixing of them has become one of the most difficult of modern occupations. If the law is to undertake the creation of any standard, it ought to be drawn, after the most careful enquiry, by disinterested and skilled men, and not by a politician from a county "which does not possess a railroad of any kind, and who is said to be without experience in railroad matters."

3. The railroad is, however, not only a common carrier—it is a public highway of a novel and peculiar kind. The great function it discharges toward modern society, and the one which has produced the most striking social and industrial results, is the equalization of distances from the great markets. That is to say, the most valuable and important thing it has done for the world is the putting of producers who live far away on an equality with those who live near by. It is this which has created the wonderful industrial activity which we are now everywhere witnessing. It has absolutely

called the West into existence, by enabling the Illinois and Wisconsin farmer to sell in New York and Liverpool at as low rates as the Pennsylvania or English farmer. Now, this result has been and is achieved solely by "discrimination," which seems on the surface to the enraged and ill-informed farmer to be unjust, but which is in reality both wise and just, and ought to be encouraged as a matter of public policy. The evidence given on this point before the English Railroad Commission, three or four years ago, showed that, without discrimination in favor of localities far from London, vast manufactories in the interior would be destroyed, and thousands of operatives thrown out of employment through inability to compete with producers near the market and on the seaboard. Illustrations vastly more forcible than this might be adduced from the history of our own railroads. There ought, therefore, to be discrimination, and it will be found that, on the whole, the interests of railroads on this point coincide with those of the public. That is, whatever discrimination the managers make with the view of swelling the volume of their own business, will probably be that which will most promote the general welfare. When, therefore, the farmer demands that the railroad shall charge at the same rate for carrying goods from St. Paul to Milwaukee that it charges for conveying them from St. Paul to New York, even if the rate of cost were actually the same, which it is not, he ought not to be listened to any more than the good-for-nothing bricklayer who asks that no bricklayer shall be allowed to lay more bricks in a day than weak and lazy bricklayers find convenient. We are now, of course, talking of honest discrimination on business principles. Discrimination in favor of individuals or firms, or vindictive discrimination against particular places, we would treat as criminal and punish by heavy penalties; and this is where legislators eager for work might find a field for thoughtful activity.

4. The clamor about the amount of stock and bonds with which railroads are saddled, and on which "the farmer has to pay interest," we hold to be in the main senseless, and an illustration of the part words often play in darkening counsel. Railroads have been for the last forty years constructed in the United States on the only theory on which they could have been constructed, viz., that they were an extremely hazardous speculation, particularly in the sparsely settled frontier regions. There, a large portion of them were constructed, not to meet the wants of busy communities like New York and Philadelphia, or Liverpool and Manchester, but to open the way through a wilderness for a possible population. To have offered such undertakings to practical business men, therefore, as an ordinary investment, would have been preposterous, and have excited laughter. They were therefore offered as enterprises containing enormous risks, but at the same time holding out some prospects of very high profits. They in fact bore in their commercial aspects a close resemblance to blockade-running. In most cases, however, the prospect of profit was not sufficiently strong to induce moneyed men to touch them at all without aid in the shape of land-grants or money, which were offered and accepted as business transactions. The rate at which the bonds were sold, and the amount of bonus given in stock to purchasers, were all controlled by the same great fact: the unwillingness of prudent people to buy them at all, or, in other words, the commercial rule that you must sell very low what but few persons want. So that, after brushing away all the rant about "loads of indebtedness," "watered stock," "greedy speculators," "impoverished farmers," "grinding taxation," we get at the naked truth of the whole matter, which is, that money used in Western railroad-building had, owing to the risky nature of the enterprise, to be borrowed from people of a speculative turn, at a very heavy discount. Business men have this experience every day; but when, after having got the money, and used it on the terms offered by themselves, they are called on to pay, they do not begin to weep and call names.

5. Not only, however, had the Western railroads to be constructed as hazardous undertakings, but they had to be constructed on the theory that they were and would remain *private property*. This was the theory of the American law, and the theory which best accorded with American manners. There was really no place in either our jurisprudence or our politics for great works of this kind owned by the State. The New York canals were an experiment of a very novel kind in the European direction, which met with success at the outset, but which have not on the whole worked well, of which no rational man would now advise the repetition. Moreover, it was a necessary theory, and no money would have been got for railroads on the understanding that the people living along the line were to have a voice in the management of them, and that the mode of working them was to be settled every election at the polls. The private-property theory was therefore part of the contract between the projectors and the community, and was fortified by our judicial rules and political usages. The theory that the railroads are somehow the property of the people who use them is a new theory, which may be a wise one, but which, if enforced against the present proprietors without compensation, would have all the signs and consequences of a swindle, particularly as the original wicked projectors have now for the most part passed away, and the property lies in the hands of that class of which the law is so careful—"innocent third parties without notice." The discoveries of that eminent legist and moralist, Mr. Matt. Carpenter, and of many other Western demagogues, on this subject, are painful reading for honest and patriotic men.

6. But what if the community is dissatisfied now with this theory, and feels that it is prejudicial to morals and industry, and that it needs modification, and that justice and public policy require that the "unearned increment" in the value of railroad property, created by the growth of population and trade, should go to the public in the shape of lower charges or better accommodation, and not to the stockholders in the shape of increased dividends or watered stock? Is not this a reasonable view? Perfectly reasonable. The arguments for and against would have, it seems to us, to be drawn altogether from considerations of expediency. When we come to examine the mode in which the state should reach this consummation, we find it in a position strikingly analogous to that of a government which has borrowed money in a time of war at a heavy rate of interest, and wishes, in more prosperous days, to reduce this rate. To lower it by force is universally acknowledged to be robbery. What honest governments do under such circumstances is to give the creditor the option of taking new bonds at the reduced rate or being paid off. And what the state which wishes to change the theory on which the railroads are administered should do, is to draw up its railroad code, and tell any stockholder who does not like to invest his money under it that if he is dissatisfied he can have the full value of his stock under the theory of railroad property which was held when he bought it. If the code was found likely to be well administered, and the rate of profit allowed reasonable, few regular investors would withdraw, and railroad stock would become what Government bonds are—the refuge of trustees, widows, and prudent people generally.

7. As regards the work which the state might and ought properly to do for the regulation of railroads under any theory of railroad property, we may mention the following, as at least, some of the duties which plainly devolve on it: (*a*) The provision of a regular system of railroad book-keeping, to which all railroads should be compelled to adhere, departure from which should be treated as criminal fraud, and with which the public could make itself familiar, so as to prevent the concealment of the real condition of the road by peculiar modes of crediting and charging, which are now a fertile source of deception; (*b*) compelling the publication of the accounts thus kept at stated intervals, with the working expenses and net receipts stated under oath; (*c*) the registry of all railroad contracts in books accessible to the public, and the prohibition as criminal of all interest of directors in such contracts; (*d*) the prohibition of all discrimination in favor of individuals or firms, and the granting of free passes; (*e*) the examination of discrimination in charges by competent persons, for the purpose of ascertaining whether it is justifiable on business grounds, without regard, however,

to its aspect in the light of "eternal justice"; (*f*) the provision of increased protection for the minority, by making the votes of a larger number of shares than a bare majority necessary for the authorization of certain designated acts; and the curtailment of the arbitrary power of the president.

Of course, if the state undertook to fix a maximum of profits, it would have to see, by some system of inspection, that the surplus was really applied to lowering rates and improving accommodation. We do not pretend that there is anything very original or complete in the above suggestions. We throw them out simply as illustrations of the kind of work there is for statesmen to do in this "transportation problem," and as reasons why gentlemen "who live in counties which do not possess a railroad, and who are said to be without experience in railroad matters," like the eminent Potter of Wisconsin, should, to use a bit of political slang, "take a back seat in the rear car."

NEWSPAPER ETHICS.

A POINT of a good deal of interest, both to newspapers and their readers, will probably before long be submitted to the United States Court in this District, in the shape of an application by the trustee in bankruptcy of the estate of Jay Cooke & Co. to set aside a contract made by that firm with Mr. Henry C. Bowen, the publisher and proprietor of the *Independent*, and to recover the consideration on which it was based. The contract provided that Mr. Bowen was to lend the use of his editorial columns and otherwise exert himself to promote the sale of the bonds of the Northern Pacific Railroad, in return for which he was to receive in bonds and stock a percentage on the amount of bonds sold through whatever channel, and he did actually thus receive $50,000 in bonds and $460,000 in stock, face value of course. The trustee now repudiates this contract as *contra bonos mores*, and asks that the bonds and stock be surrendered to the estate. It is possible that as between Jay Cooke and Mr. Bowen the contract would stand under the rule known to the lawyers as "*in pari delicto, potior est conditio defendentis*," which may be freely translated by saying, that where there is rascality on both sides, the defendant may keep what he has got. The Court will, therefore, probably have to decide whether the trustee stands morally in Cooke's shoes, and, if not, whether the contract is immoral. If it decides the latter point in the affirmative, of course the bonds would have to be restored to the estate, for distribution among the creditors.

Mr. Bowen has, we believe, done a great deal of business of this sort, and we are bound to presume that, being a Christian man who is engaged, as we learn from statements of his own in the *Independent*, in "saving wicked men" and "overthrowing the power of the devil," he does not believe it to be wrong. Whether it is wrong or not is a matter which has had, and has still, a good deal of practical as well as of theoretical importance. During the period of railroad construction which closed with the panic of 1873, when the promoters were constantly offering bonds to an enormous amount to the investing public, every possible means had of course to be resorted to in order to dispose of them. On its face, one railroad bond looks as good as another, if it bears the same rate of interest. It is equally well engraved, and makes equally fine promises. Whether these promises are likely to be kept, ninety-nine investors out of a hundred have no means of learning except through consultation with better-informed friends. In other words, they have to take somebody's word for a bond's having any value whatever. How to get round this very awkward fact was of course, therefore, the great problem of bond-selling. The best mode of solving it was to secure the recommendation of persons whose position and character inspired confidence. Thus Mr. Jay Cooke did an enormous business in the sale of five-twenties during the war by employing the cashiers of country banks as agents. Each of these gentlemen is listened to with attention by a considerable number of thrifty persons who are apt to have a little money to invest, and to believe that the man in charge of their bank knows a "good thing" when he sees it. But, then, the number of irreproachable men whose advice about money matters people are likely to take is on the whole small. It is not every "truly good man" who knows how to take care either of his own money or other people's, and it is not every shrewd man whose recommendations about money matters one is willing to trust. It would be hard, indeed, to find any class as well situated for persuading investors as country bankers. It was, therefore, not unnatural for gentlemen who had bonds to sell to turn for aid to the religious press. A religious paper circulates among an excellent class of the community—the saving, sober, industrious, God-fearing, law-abiding, home-loving, field-ploughing, store-tending class, whose members have probably, in a large majority of cases, a hereditary respect for religion and religious teaching, and look for their paper every week as a source not only of entertainment but of edification. They probably would not mind what the editor said about investments. He is usually a scholar and divine, who can give good advice about religion and morality, but knows nothing about Wall Street. But they do mind what the publisher with whom such an editor is willing to work says. They think, and not unreasonably, that anybody who takes charge of the secular side of such an enterprise as a flourishing paper must be a good business man, and that, if the paper is religious, he must be an upright, trustworthy man. If, therefore, he undertakes to give financial advice, he is pretty sure to be listened to by thousands of honest, simple folk scattered all over the country, who are making provision out of hard earnings for children, for widows, for sickness, and for old age. The man who deliberately misled such a class in the investment of its money would be a more than usually worthless impostor, and it is, therefore, the duty of anybody who undertakes to advise it to make peculiarly sure of his ground. He takes upon himself, whoever he may be, a terrible load of responsibility.

And yet this class was misled most grievously. Millions of railroad bonds were sold during the last few years to farmers, and ministers, and country lawyers, and doctors, and storekeepers, through the exertions of religious papers, and of these bonds it is safe to say a majority have made default in the payment of their interest and will not pay it for a good while to come, and a considerable minority will never pay it at all. The suffering and anxiety that have been caused in this way have been terrible, though, as people usually keep the sorrows of bad investments to themselves, only a very small proportion of the calamity which the late panic has caused has been visible to human eyes. Now, we are very far from saying that the motives of all those who have been of late engaged in selling or promoting the sale of railroad bonds were bad. We have no doubt whatever, for instance, that Messrs. Fisk & Hatch honestly believed in the wisdom of buying Chesapeake and Ohio bonds, and we are ready to make the same admission in the case of Messrs. Jay Cooke & Co. and the Northern Pacific bonds. Both of these firms backed their opinions with their fortunes. Even if they had not risked anything in the undertakings they were promoting themselves, they were saved from moral responsibility to investors as long as they did not make false representations about matters of fact, by their being openly and notoriously brokers—that is, persons who made a business of selling securities for a commission. This put them in a perfectly sound and proper relation to the community. The public heard what they had to say about their wares, with their interest in them present to everybody's mind. Any person who bought of them made the same allowance for the effect of this interest on their assertions and recommendations that he would make in buying dry-goods from a jobber or real estate from an agent.

But a newspaper, and especially a religious newspaper, stands in a very different relation to its readers from that of a broker to his customers—so different that the mere comparison is enough to make one smile. The periodical press—even the secular press—has undertaken to discharge functions toward the community which are to all intents and purposes judicial. It professes to be a thoroughly independent spectator of men and things, and to comment on them and describe them for the sole purpose of instructing and enlightening its readers. Its pretensions in this direction have, in fact, been growing so rapidly of late years that it is, in the opinion of many people, taking the place both of the pulpit, the legislature, and the more permanent forms of literature. It oversees the government, the bench, the bar, the army, the navy, and public and private morals, with a searching and impartial eye. Its reputation for honesty is in fact a large part of its capital. When any one wishes to say something peculiarly severe of it he calls it "venal," meaning that its praises or censures can be bought—just as he would, if he wished to stigmatize the judges, say that they were "corrupt," meaning that their decisions could be bought. If a newspaper were to announce that it would sell the use of its editorial columns at so much a line, or would editorially commend any man or scheme or measure for a sum of money, it would be utterly ruined. We doubt if there has ever been an editor bold enough to make any such announcement. The most degraded man who has ever followed the calling—and he must have been a very bad fellow—has always pretended at least that he was incorruptible. He *had* to pretend it in order to make his corruptibility pay. Nor has an editor ever ventured to defend his selling his columns by the plea that he only sold them to good men for good purposes. The public would no more listen to such an excuse than it would listen to a judge's saying that he only took bribes from the right side. Bacon's gratuities from suitors were mostly received after the causes were decided, but that did not save him, for men even then thought that no man's virtue was proof against the temptation which came of taking gratuities at any time. All

this is of the more importance because the power of the press over men's fortunes and reputation is daily increasing. It can already lift charlatans into places of honor, and cover heroes and philosophers with shame and tribulation. The way in which this enormous power is sometimes abused is one of the "burning questions" of the day. Everybody has more or less occasion to ponder it, and thus far no better solution has been found than the exaction by the public from every newspaper of at least pecuniary integrity. Freedom from envy, hatred, and malice it would, perhaps, in the present state of human nature, be unreasonable to look for; and even pecuniary integrity we do not always find, but most assuredly, any suspicion of the want of it brings some punishment, and every reader who detects the want of it owes it to the country to do his part in making it disgraceful and unprofitable.

The application of the foregoing to the aid given by religious newspapers to the sale of railroad bonds is obvious enough. We do not say that a religious newspaper may not lawfully recommend people to invest their money in a particular way. If the editor or publisher believes that he is rendering them a service by calling their attention to a particular security, undoubtedly he has a right to do so without being accused of dishonesty, although he takes upon himself a very heavy responsibility. We do not know also that we can make any moral objection to his selling bonds on commission, provided he practises no concealment as to the part he plays in the transaction, although we think something ought to be said against it on the score of incongruity, at least. The greater portion of the paper is given up to fervid religious and moral exhortation. Its mission is, as Mr. Bowen says, to "save wicked men," and when people's attention has been secured for admonitions touching their souls' health, it is hardly becoming to seize the opportunity, on the last page or two, to begin peddling stocks and bonds. It resembles, in a very unpleasant way, the use of a pulpit as an auction-block. What should we say to a minister who at the close of his sermon should announce that after the benediction he could offer for sale to the highest bidder a lot of first-class securities, which he could confidently recommend as a safe and desirable investment? But whatever may be said in defence of open brokerage under such circumstances, it must be admitted that concealed brokerage—that is, the recommendation to simple people, by persons who have secured their confidence as religious teachers, of investments in goods which these teachers are secretly paid for puffing—is a practice which can hardly be too severely reprobated. It is one to which those who value religion as a means of social regeneration cannot pay too much attention. If the courts can be got to stamp it with judicial condemnation, it will be a solid gain for the cause of morality. There is a great deal said just now of the influence of science in destroying spiritual-mindedness, and promoting short and material views of life and its ends. We wonder if those who are making these observations ever consider seriously whether the rapid decline of faith is not due in a far larger degree to the open connection of religion with trade, and to the extent to which the religious world connives at the use of religious phraseology to give a sort of theatrical decency to base and vulgar lives.

JEFFRIES WYMAN,

Died 4th September, 1874.

THE wisest man could ask no more of Fate
Than to be simple, modest, manly, true,
Safe from the Many, honored by the Few;
Nothing to court in World, or Church, or State,
But inwardly in secret to be great;
To feel mysterious Nature ever new,
To touch, if not to grasp, her endless clew,
And learn by each discovery how to wait;
To widen knowledge and escape the praise;
Wisely to teach, because more wise to learn;
To toil for Science, not to draw men's gaze,
But for her lore of self-denial stern;
That such a man could spring from our decays
Fans the soul's nobler faith until it burn. J. R. L.

Correspondence.

THE GRANGER MORALITY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your comments on my letter in regard to the railroad question in Wisconsin (*Nation*, No. 477) suggest to me that there is still a side of that question which, in simple justice to the Wisconsin "Reformers," ought to be laid before your readers. The *Nation* appears to have reasoned itself *a priori* into the conviction that there is a reckless communistic spirit at the West, which just now is manifesting itself in an attempt to plunder the railroads, but which is liable at any time to extend its attacks to capital in other forms. Those familiar with society here know that the *Nation* is mistaken, but to its Eastern readers I wish to show how it may be that unjust legislation, even if approved by the people, does not always indicate dishonest public sentiment, or ignorance, or perversity, such as to endanger invested capital. And I would respectfully represent, both to the *Nation* and its readers, that while the class of innocent investors for whom it expresses so much sympathy are certainly entitled to every protection consistent with the rights of others, yet, if the legal representatives of their interests, with or without their consent, continue to violate laws, outrage public sentiment, and "carry on" generally in the way the *Nation* says they do, it will be impossible for the community, in trying to protect itself, to discriminate between the wicked managers and the innocent shareholders. If a supposed merchantman turns pirate, and tries to take my ship, I must be excused for defending myself, even if I maim or kill the pirate's innocent passengers. Besides, who ever heard of a shareholder, whether innocent or otherwise, complaining of the management of a road that paid him good dividends? The people of the West are now struggling to bring the railroads as a whole to submit to be governed by law, and they appear to meet with pretty unanimous resistance from everybody connected with them, without regard to age, sex, or previous condition. When the roads can be brought to the point of submitting to law at all, there will be time and knowledge, which are wanting now, to make sure that all interests are properly protected.

The "true story" of the passage of the "Potter law" is very instructive, and is not generally known. It is abused as the "Granger law," when in fact it was passed in opposition to the judgment and the wishes of all the best men in the Reform party, although it was accepted by them, and ratified by public sentiment in the State, as the best thing attainable under the circumstances. The account as here given I have heard everywhere, and believe to be correct; but, as it will serve my argument just as well, I will call it the "Reformers'" side of the story, and say that I had it as such from a gentleman whose name the editor of the *Nation* will recognize as that of one as well qualified as anybody in Wisconsin to speak in behalf of the "Reform" party.

The "Reformers" who carried last fall's elections were pledged to attempt, among other things, the solution of the railroad problem. All the abuses, so well described by the *Nation*, were as apparent here as in any other State in the West. No means known to railroad operators by which the fruits of the industry of many are unjustly diverted to the advantage of a few, had here been left untried. During the preceding winter the time of the legislature had been taken, and the whole State kept in a turmoil for three months, in deciding which of two rival corporations should receive a land-grant then at the disposal of the State. It was finally awarded to one of them on terms proposed by itself, but when, after the adjournment of the legislature, the vigilant governor refused to take any steps towards securing the patent until, as required by law, he had received *good* security for the building of the promised road, the grant was deliberately *refused*, thus showing that this company had in bad faith offered more than the grant was worth, in the hope either of getting possession of the land on inadequate security, or, failing that, of preventing the building of a road which might benefit a rival corporation.

This high-handed insult to the whole State aroused an indignation that was deep and hot, and doubtless unreasoning. How could it be otherwise? Even the *Nation*, with all its opportunities and ability, seems unable to understand both sides of the question; how shall the "farmer," with his limited knowledge and slight experience, be expected to be wiser than the *Nation*? The people of the State have done their full duty by the railroads. They have procured for them valuable land-grants, and exempted them from taxation for long periods. They have incurred town, county, and city indebtedness in their behalf, in some cases entirely beyond their ability to pay. Along some lines they have made heavy private subscriptions, which have been collected to the utter ruin of many of the subscribers. A people thus situated has a view of the genesis of railroads very different from that taken by the *Nation*. The *Nation* sees trusting capitalists cautiously advancing funds on the earnest representations of Western communities. The Western "farmer" sees wealthy and crafty men inducing him to mortgage his farm and burden himself with taxation by promises of plentiful cash dividends, in addition to the advantage and comfort of the railroad. If there have been rascally go-betweens, alternately personating, alternately deceiving, and continually cheating both these parties, I could wish to see the *Nation's* influence employed to bring about an understanding between the victims, rather than in calling either hard names or embittering the strife between them.

That the "Farmer," if left to himself, would raise the devil with the railroads until experience taught him wisdom, is very likely, but he would do

it ignorantly, and not dishonestly. His notion of railroad reform is doubtless crude. The *Nation* expresses it exactly. It is "to get himself and his baggage carried cheap." That is *his* side of the question. What else could it be? They have got his money, and left him burdened with taxation;* and he is told that he cannot get back his money or escape his taxes, so he very naturally turns his attention to the tariff, and insists that "he and his baggage shall be carried cheap." And as the "farmer" looks at it, who shall blame him? How is he to distinguish between swindling directors and swindled shareholders? They are all "railroad men" to him. Investments by "widows and orphans" in railroad stocks he dreams not of. All the money he can save he lends on bond and mortgage at ten per cent., and he supposes that everybody else does the same. "Rings," "combinations," "pools," "stock-jobbing," he has heard of, and understands to be mysterious and wicked practices, for which those engaged in them will be punished in another world. "Bonds" are more familiar to him. He knows them as devices by which certain people, called "bondholders," get railroad-construction gangs to double honest farmers' taxes; and as to these particular transgressors he has his theory, and is inclined to attend to their cases himself if he can get at them. It all looks simple to him. He hears of railroad men rolling in wealth, and he thinks they have stolen it from him, and his indignation is hot and blind, just as under the circumstances it must be; but there is nothing dishonest about it. He only wants what he thinks he is entitled to; and, with all the feeling against railroads, there is not a county in Wisconsin in which they need fear to submit any question concerning themselves to a vote, if they were first sure that all the facts were understood, and if they were content to receive a just decision.

The wrath of the rural communities, however, hot though it might be, could cause the railroad managers little trouble, unless backed by the more intelligent indignation of the cities and villages. This the course of the railroads in various matters had been gradually rousing, until the grand contest of the winter of 1872 drew the attention of everybody upon them, and convinced honest men of all parties that there could never be good times in Wisconsin until the railroads had learned that the people were stronger than they, and that valid laws of the State must be obeyed by them whether they liked them or not. So the "Reformers" carried the State, and the legislature met, pledged not to any particular course towards the railroads, but to pass such laws as seemed wise and just, and to *make the railroads obey them.*

Early in the session of the legislature the subject was entrusted to the care of a joint committee of the two houses, who wrestled with it till towards the close of the session, and then reported a bill which, whether wise or unwise, was much more favorable to the railroads than the bill finally passed.

During the preparation of this bill the railroads were represented at Madison, not by their responsible managers, whose suggestions were much desired and would have been gladly received in perfecting a bill which should be just to all concerned, but by certain ancient and unsavory parties, who had for years manipulated all the dirty legislative work required in behalf of the companies. These persons, so far as they did anything, opposed the passage of any railroad bill whatever, plainly intimating that the companies would contest the validity of any act, whether good, bad, or indifferent, which in any way interfered with their freedom in regulating tariffs.

The "Reformers," in assuming the responsibility of legislation, felt their ignorance of the subject and the necessity of proceeding with the greatest caution. The bill reported by the committee was a mild measure, not undertaking to establish a schedule of rates, but only to provide against "discriminations"; it was amended and made still milder by the Assembly, passed, and sent to the Senate. This was a Republican body, left so by the holding over of half its members, and containing a much larger proportion than the Assembly of those whose instincts and interests placed them in sympathy with the railroads. The bill, as sent to the Senate, was popular in the State, and was expected to become a law. The Republican "managers," however, were unwilling to see the success of a measure of this kind originated by the Reform party; and a new bill was prepared, it was never known by whom, and introduced by a Mr. Potter, a gentleman whom I do not know, but who is from a county which does not possess a railroad of any kind, and who is said to be without experience in railroad matters.

It is openly charged by the "Reformers" that this bill was prepared and managed in the combined interests of the Republican party and the railroads —in the interest of the Republican party, in being made to bear more heavily on the railroads, and thus fully to equal and perhaps lead the popular demand; in the interest of the railroads, in being purposely made so harsh that it probably could not pass at all.

When the committee bill was reported to the Senate simultaneously with its appearance in the Assembly, that body struck out all after the enacting clause, inserted the "Potter bill," and sent it to the Assembly. Now, what were the "Reformers" to understand? Here were two bills before a body in which the railroad interest, although not strong enough in the existing state of public feeling to prevent action altogether, was yet *unquestionably* strong enough to shape that legislation almost as it might deisre. The mild bill supported by the "Reformers" would have tested the power of the legislature with trifling inconvenience to the companies, and with little danger to vested interests of any kind. The "Potter bill," whether just or unjust, was certainly too strong a measure to be passed with the information then available. But the railroad men, when they could certainly have had their choice, allowed the "Potter bill" to pass. In a short time the joint committee bill again came before the Senate on the question of concurring with the Assembly, which had already passed it. They again struck out all after the enacting clause, inserted the "Potter bill," and returned it to the Assembly.

I am satisfied in my own mind that most of the leaders of the Reform party at that time were honest men, who desired to discharge their duty by passing the wisest bill they could learn how to frame. They felt that the Potter bill was not such as they wished to assume responsibility for, and yet they believed that it was pressed in the railroad interest, in the expectation of preventing all legislation by the disagreement of the two houses. They therefore caused another bill to be prepared, like the "Potter bill" in that it fixed rates of charges, but much milder in its operation and its penalties. This bill was called the "West bill," and was prepared by a gentleman as competent as could be found outside of railroad circles for that purpose. It was passed in the Assembly by almost a strict party vote, all those persons known to be in the railroad interest voting *against* it. By this time the session was drawing to a close. The action of all the interests concerned had convinced the "Reformers" that they must either pass the "Potter bill" or adjourn, leaving the victory to the railroads, and spend the summer in quarrelling as to whether it was a "Reform" or a "Republican" *fiasco.* In those circumstances, what ought the Assembly to have done? I do not assume to judge whether the promoters of the "Potter bill" were actuated by the motives I have indicated or not; but I know—for I was in Madison at the time—that they were almost universally *credited* with those motives, both by "Reformers" and by intelligent people outside of politics; and if the suspicions were correct—and perhaps if they were *not* correct—I am inclined to believe that the wise course was to pass the bill as they did, and go home. The railroads' revenues have not been injured, for the law has not been obeyed. All the judicial questions involved are in the way of a speedy decision by the highest tribunal, and the summer's experience has probably shown railroad managers that they must submit to the valid laws of the State. The legislature will meet in the winter, and I can assure the *Nation* that if the railroads will lend their aid to perfecting *good* legislation, instead of exerting themselves to oppose *any* legislation, there need be no injustice done to anybody.

In this connection, however, it is believed by many, and with much more reason than the *Nation* could ever have had for believing the masses at the Northwest to be impregnated with dishonesty, that this whole quarrel was precipitated and is kept alive by astute railroad "operators" for the purpose of depreciating shares to a point where they may be profitably bought in. Although many circumstances seem to point to this theory, it may be without any foundation. I am sure I know nothing about it, but I mention it because many believe it, and to show the *Nation* that it is just as easy and as reasonable to impugn the motives of the railroad men as to call the "Farmers" dishonest.

I have said so much, not in defence of the "Potter law," which I presume is unwise and unjust, but to show that it does not necessarily indicate an *animus* of which honest investors could complain. I have no doubt that the real interests of minorities of shareholders are so nearly identical with the public interests that such shareholders will be soon found working in hearty co-operation with the leaders in all honest political reforms, if they are not kept separate by a mutual misunderstanding of the other's motives. And the first step toward the securing of mutual confidence is for investors to understand that our great Western communities are not reckless or dishonest, and that their present action on railroad questions, although perhaps unwise, has still much to be said in its favor, and may perhaps hereafter be seen to be the best course possible under the circumstances.

As to the expressed intention of the *Nation* to discourage investments, public or private, in Wisconsin, all I have to say is that it will be very unjust to all parties if it carries it out. I have the opportunity each year, in the business of a single firm, to see how several hundred thousand dollars of indebtedness, public and private, is met; and we invariably find the collections in Wisconsin as prompt as those in any other State in the West, and far more prompt than in most of them. As to small investors, however, the

* They have increased the value of his farm fivefold.—Ed. Nation.

Nation cannot too strongly advise them not only to lend no more money to build railroads in Wisconsin, but not to invest their funds in any shares whatever of a nature such that a controlling interest in the enterprise is likely to fall into the hands of persons whom they do not know.

If the *Nation* really wishes to assist thoughtful men at the West to see what is right in this matter, it will dismiss the notion that a majority of us are rogues or fools, and candidly discuss for us such questions as these:

How can the State ensure equitable railroad charges with the least restriction of the freedom of trade? How can it ensure the economical administration of railroad revenues in the interest of shareholders? Shall the State allow charges to be high enough, if possible, to pay interest on funds misapplied by the directors? If so, shall such interest be paid only to Eastern and foreign investors who are the present owners of the roads, or shall some way be found to recompense the persons and communities along the roads who have usually constructed the road-bed, and lost their legal claim when it was sold for the benefit of the mortgagees who furnished the iron? If interest is to be paid only on capital properly invested, what methods shall be followed, and what principles shall guide in determining what has been stolen or squandered, and what has been properly applied?

On these and similar questions nobody can give us more light than the *Nation*—if it will.

EDWARD F. ADAMS.

CHICAGO, September 19.

Notes.

THE Cincinnati May Musical Festival for 1875 promises to be of much interest. From an official circular, we learn that seven performances will be given during the second week in May, under the direction of Theodore Thomas. The programme of the evening performances embraces the names of Beethoven, Liszt, Mendelssohn, Bach, Schubert, and Wagner. In arranging the concerts, Mr. Thomas has wisely avoided crowding the programmes, three numbers being the utmost given on any evening. Singing societies are invited to join the chorus, which is to be larger than that of 1873.——The publishers of the *International* announce that their "November–December" number will appear on the 25th of October, and will contain several "vastly important articles, practically treated by thoroughly informed writers." Among these will be one on "The Domestic Commerce of the United States," by the Hon. S. Shellabarger of Ohio; one on "Our Iron Resources and Manufactures," by Prof. Newberry of Columbia College; one on "International Communication by Language," by Philip Gilbert Hamerton of England; and one on "Tyndall," by Dr. McCosh.——G. W. Carleton & Co. announce two new novels, 'West Lawn,' by Mary J. Holmes, and 'Ten Old Maids' (with a sub-title which the publishers very justly call "odd"), by Julie P. Smith; as well as a Spiritualistic work, 'The Identity of Primitive Christianity and Modern Spiritualism,' by Eugene Crowell, M.D.——An article in the *Literary World* for October 1, called "A Critic Criticised," is a review of an article on Auerbach in the *Atlantic* for the same month by Mr. T. S. Perry, the American correspondent of the *Academy*. With the *Literary World's* criticism of Mr. Perry's English we have nothing to do, but the article contains one passage which we are compelled to notice. "Mr. T. S. Perry," the *Literary World* says, "has recently become somewhat famous as a writer and critic. He is or has been a tutor in Harvard College; was, for some time, acting editor of the *North American Review;* and is the chief literary critic of the *Nation*, in whose columns, sitting on an empyrean throne, he disdainfully reviews the throng of authors passing below him. It is natural and reasonable to assume that the occupant of the three positions above-mentioned must be a man of thorough education, a vigorous and logical thinker, and the master of a forcible and elegant style"—and then, of course, proceeds to show that the unfortunate man is neither one nor the other. We beg the *Literary World* to take notice that, so far as this statement concerns us, it is not correct. Mr. Perry is not and never has been "the chief literary critic of the *Nation*," and hence the statement that he sits on an empyrean throne in our columns, disdainfully reviewing the throng of authors passing below him, is erroneous, and the reference to him in another part of the article as the "avowed and trusted representative" of the *Nation* is a mistake, and indeed a gratuitous piece of impertinence. The passion for inventing authors for articles published anonymously, which seems to beset some of our contemporaries, and which frequently leads them into speculations on the motives and character of the imaginary author, deduced from his imaginary birth, parentage, early life, college training, and political connections, is unsafe, and the practice of publishing the results of these imaginations is indecent, and often calumnious.——William F. Gill & Co. have in press a new story by Wilkie Collins, 'The Frozen Deep,' which they will publish October 10. The story is a development of the play of the same name, in which Charles Dickens and Mr. Collins appeared together some years since, and which had a good run, if we remember right, in this country.

—The *Republic*, the new daily newspaper, made its appearance on Monday, and, as its price is one cent less than any other morning paper, has carried consternation among existing editors and proprietors wherever it has found its way. The treasonable secret history of the new enterprise has been made public by the intelligent and enterprising correspondents of the country papers, and is familiar to everybody. Some time since General Grant, plotting, as ever, the destruction of the Government of the United States and the overthrow of all our liberties, began to cast about him for means by which to accomplish his wicked designs. At first it was supposed that the *Times*, from its well-known sympathies for any *de facto* government, no matter what its origin, might be relied upon to persuade the people that what the country needed was a third term. But the wild and reckless behavior of that newspaper as a party organ caused the abandonment of this plan, and, after several conferences held at Long Branch, it was decided that the next best thing would be to establish a new daily paper in New York, and by making it cheaper than the others gradually undermine the opposition press and in this way the free institutions of the country. For this purpose large sums of money were subscribed by the President, all the members of the Cabinet, the governors of many of the States; but it was felt to be prudent to put the nominal capital at a moderate figure. The exact amounts of money subscribed by Grant and Murphy are well known. To some of our readers it may seem strange that a newspaper which is to be a Republican organ should have its headquarters in a building in Ann Street said to be connected in some way with the *Herald;* but the explanation of this is simple enough. The *Times's* attitude toward the *Herald* has for a long time been one not calculated to encourage journalistic amenities between the two, it having at different times used expressions of a certain sort with regard to the *Herald*, such as accusing it of not being fond of quoting the commandment, "Thou shalt not steal"; making a dark and mysterious reference to a connection supposed to exist between it and Mr. Oakey Hall; speaking of it as "mischievous and unprincipled," and as supporting many writers who are "foolish"; making allusions to the *Herald* as an "enlightened organ of public opinion," obviously sarcastic, and suggesting that the Pope should send over a fool's cap for the benefit of its intellectual department; and though we have not observed any evidence of unchristian spirit on the part of the *Herald* in return, such expressions must always tend to the cooling of friendship between public teachers. Therefore, when we are given to understand that the new paper has entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the *Herald;* that a new press association—a rival of the Associated Press—is to be formed by the *Herald*, the *Republic*, and one or two other journals which do not now receive their news from that grinding monopoly, we can understand more easily the interest which the *Herald* takes in welcoming the new paper to the field of journalism with such wise words of advice as are contained in its issue of Sunday—suggesting to the editors that it will be well for them to "be courteous"; that they should recollect that to assume that because a man is a Democrat he must be damned is a *non sequitur;* that they would be wise not to "discuss questions of emigration and the English Church to the exclusion of American themes"; and that, if it is necessary to be independent, they can always abuse Butler and Havemeyer.

—The Second International Orientalist Congress, held this year at London, was opened by Dr. Samuel Birch of the British Museum with an interesting inaugural address. In speaking of the extensive recent discoveries throughout the East, Dr. Birch noticed the curious fact that the prosecution of Oriental discovery depends for its success and even for its existence as a branch of active enquiry on continuous excavation, for "without fresh materials these studies languish, and the interest in their pursuit diminishes," and he therefore urges the importance of the Congress's encouraging excavation. Another interesting point touched upon is the "transliteration of Oriental texts into European characters." Great progress in this direction has been made of late years, and many schemes have been proposed. Dr. Birch considers that if some mutual agreement can be arrived at on this subject, it would be of the highest importance, as it would "in many instances supersede the necessity of printing in various characters and different Oriental types—an expensive and difficult process. It would not, indeed, effect this for languages written with syllabic characters, but for those only which have an alphabetic one, and the same mode of transliteration would be an invaluable aid to the simplification and rendering of words in these languages

and making them universally intelligible." This is not the same question as that of a universal alphabet—such a one as should, for the Orientals themselves, supersede the necessity of writing in their own different characters the different languages of the East—though could such an alphabet as this be invented, it would be a great advantage in the acquisition of these languages for the West, "months, and perhaps years, being now spent in mastering alphabets and syllabaries of complete kinds." Among the Polynesian Islanders, it is true, the European script has been successfully introduced and adopted; but this was because they never had a written language of any kind before their intercourse with Europeans, and there was no national *amour propre* to contend with; no script already in use to supersede. In the East this is of course not so. "But it is evident that, clothed in an European alphabet, there would be no greater difficulty in mastering many of the Aryan and Semitic languages by the Western scholars than in acquiring the different languages spoken in Europe—a task much facilitated by their having one common mode of printing and writing the same sounds. It may be considered the first step to writing among the European nations, this adoption of a common alphabet, when entirely carried out, and nothing would more powerfully connect the East and the West than the removal of these barriers, which prevent an easy acquisition of those keys of thought necessary for the mutual understanding and happiness of mankind."

—Passing from this subject to that of pasigraphy, or the art of writing by ciphers, Dr. Birch discusses the system of communication at sea already in use, by means of numbers, and says that this device contains the elements of a universal language, limited, indeed, to a few stereotyped sentences, such as are generally wanted in maritime intercourse. He mentions the fact that a modification of this system has been adopted for telegraphic use, to supersede the necessity for long and continuous messages; and it is now proposed to adopt another modification, consisting principally in the substitution of numbers for words, the same number answering to the same equivalent word in all languages. "It is evident that when dictionaries on this principle shall have been compiled, it will be possible for a limited communication to be held in writing with Orientals, of whose language the European is ignorant, in the same manner as by maritime signals. It is a step towards universal language, and, although a feeble one, probably the only step which will ever be made." Dr. Birch notices the fact that the chronology of the Jews and the Assyrians, as they at present stand, do not harmonize—there is a want of synchronism. "It is not possible at present to decide where the error lies, but nothing but an act of violence, such as the alteration of text, or the forced hypothesis of an omission of years in the Assyrian canons, can at present reduce them to a common level." With reference to the antiquity of the Egyptian civilization, he says that evidence is still required to determine whether Babylonia is any older, and it is interesting to observe that the progress of discovery strengthens the value of all Egyptian remains:

"The arts of Egypt exercised an all-powerful influence on the ancient world—the Phœnicians copied their types, and Greece adopted the early Oriental style of architecture, for the Doric style came from Egypt, the Ionic from Assyria, the later Corinthian came from Egypt. If Phœnicia conferred an alphabet on Greece, Egypt suggested the use of such characters to Phœnicia. Already, in the seventh century before Christ, the hieroglyphs represented a dead form of the Egyptian language, one which had ceased to be spoken, and Egyptian traders used a conventional mode of writing, simpler than the older forms, and better adapted for the purposes of vernacular idiom. Greek philosophy—the transmigration doctrine of Pythagoras—that of the immortality of the soul of Plato, pervaded the Hellenic mind from the colleges of Thebes. . . . The Elysian fields, the stream of Styx, burning Phlegethon, the judges of the dead, are Egyptian conceptions; the sun-worship is Egyptian; medicine and astronomy, geometry, truthful history, and romantic fictions are found in an extensive literature. Many dogmas and practices of an Egyptian origin have descended to the present day, and exercise more influence than is generally supposed on modern religious thought."

These sentences state facts, most of which to-day are common enough learning, but which not many years ago were only obscurely guessed at, and which are, perhaps, insignificant in importance as compared with the discoveries yet to be made. In conclusion, Dr. Birch specially directs attention to the necessity of enquiry into the extensive forgeries of Oriental inscriptions and other objects, perpetrated of late years in Jerusalem and in Arabia, the number of imitations of gems or engraved stones being greater than that of the really ancient remains of the same kind in existence, and some requiring for detection considerable practical knowledge.

—That the problem of pasigraphy is susceptible of solution to a certain degree is demonstrated by the many ideographic signs of Egyptian, Chinese, and Mexican writing; but a solution that would satisfy the requirements of our advanced civilization and thought has not yet been attained, and the gravest doubts have been entertained as to its practicability. Leibnitz and Wilkins, the Orientalist, one of the earliest promoters of the study of Sanskrit, made some attempts at it. In our day, several societies have been organized in Germany for the purpose of inventing a pasigraphic system and promoting its introduction. At a meeting of the central section, held in Munich August 26, the chairman, A. Bachmeier, gave notice that during the present year pasigraphic societies had been organized in Vienna and in London, the latter under the auspices of Dr. Birch himself. Both societies are composed of members belonging to a great variety of nationalities, many of whom have pledged themselves to prepare grammars and dictionaries by transcribing their own idioms into pasigraphy. The Vienna society is said to have been very proficient in perfecting the system, and to have been active also in interesting foreign princes and governments in the introduction of pasigraphy into general use. Transcription into pasigraphic signs has already been commenced for the Japanese, Arabic, Turkish, Persian, Czech or Bohemian, Magyar, Polish, and Serbian languages. The chairman also stated that the Centralverein would exhibit at the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia numerous specimens of the art, and try every appropriate means for its furtherance and dissemination; that he was hopeful of introducing it into general use through the support of the governments of civilized countries; and that he was going himself to London to arouse the English public in behalf of the great work he has in view.

—The *American Garden*, after returning thanks for our appreciative notice, and being "aware that literary gentlemen in their extensive reading often find incidentally scraps of information at variance with accepted facts," desires to know our reasons for doubting that the "Jerusalem artichoke" came from Brazil, and for thinking it probable that it went to Europe from Louisiana. We will give them, just to show, if nothing more, that "literary gentlemen" in the *Nation* do not make random statements. But first let us strengthen the *Garden's* case. Not one of the many authorities it cites as affirming a Brazilian origin dates very far back, and they have all copied from one another or from a common source. It is better to go back to Linnæus, who, in his earliest work in which the plant is mentioned, attributes it to Canada, in all the later ones to Brazil. His authority for the Canadian origin was probably Parkinson, who, about the middle of the XVIIth century, called it *Battatas Canadensis:* his warrant for the Brazilian origin was probably Bauhin's equally early name of *Chrysanthemum Brazilianum.* Some recent writer, to us unknown, has probably put the two together in the statement, relied on by the *Garden,* that it came from Brazil by way of Canada. Now, on the other hand: 1. There is no historical evidence that it was ever brought from Brazil. 2. It is not known to occur there. Von Martius never met with it, nor did Humboldt find it in cultivation in any part of South America. 3. It is much too hardy a plant to be a native of Brazil, and its whole behavior indicates a temperate climate. 4. It has no brethren in Brazil, but nearly all its near kin are natives of Mexico and the United States, chiefly of the latter. Finally, our surmise that this "artichoke" reached Europe by way of Louisiana, directly or indirectly, was founded upon our knowledge that a species of sunflower very much like the *Helianthus tuberosus* abounds in the valley of the Mississippi, and bears tubers sufficiently resembling "artichokes" to suggest that they may be their wild original; and a cultivation of them for about fifteen years well-nigh confirms this opinion. To this view, however, an apparently fatal objection may be made—namely, that "Jerusalem artichokes" were known in Europe before La Salle's discovery of the mouth of the Mississippi. Yet they might have reached France by way of Canada, or, more likely, Spain by way of Florida. In that case, they must have been employed as an article of food by our Indians of the Mississippi Valley; and one object of this note is to enquire whether there is any record of their having such an article.

DOROTHY WORDSWORTH'S RECOLLECTIONS.*

IN bringing forward for the first time the long-known but little-known 'Recollections of a Tour in Scotland,' Principal Shairp remarks that the work may expect its warmest welcome from avowed Wordsworthians who already have had glimpses of it and have learned to wish for a full view. This no doubt is true; but it is probable—the 'Tour' has so much of a quiet charm—that no reader at all gentle who is now to begin his acquaintance with Miss Wordsworth and her book will refuse to either a welcome as cordial as any Wordsworthian need wish. Apart from the interest and liking which Miss Wordsworth herself inspires, and which alone would win the reader's kindness, he will find himself helped forward to a full enjoyment of the work by a judicious device of the editor's—not a great matter seemingly, but important. Wherever in the 'Tour' we find the original suggestion out of which grew one of the poet's Scottish poems, we find in an appendix or in the text the poem itself given at full length, so that the poet and the traveller mutually

* 'Recollections of a Tour made in Scotland, A.D. 1803. By Dorothy Wordsworth. Edited by J. C. Shairp, LL.D., etc.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874.

illustrate each other, and the reader of "The Solitary Reaper," for example, or "Yarrow Unvisited," or "Stepping Westward," may here read those productions with such a new knowledge of them as shall give him a new pleasure. As this is one of the marked features of the work, we will illustrate it, and do so in the instance of the poem 'Stepping Westward.' Probably, to every one at the first hearing the words of this title have a certain largeness of reach and scope—the same vague dignity which they persisted in having in the ear of the poet years afterwards, when he made a poem out of the occasion on which he first heard them. We give the incident in the prose of his sister—if, indeed, the brother's poetic rendering is more poetic than the sister's unmetred version:

"The sun had been set for some time, when, being within a quarter of a mile of the ferryman's hut, our path having led us close to the shore of the calm lake, we met two neatly-dressed women, without hats, who had probably been taking their Sunday evening's walk. One of them said to us in a friendly, soft tone of voice, 'What! you are stepping westward?' I cannot describe how affecting this simple expression was in that remote place, with the western sky in front yet glowing with the departed sun."

The civil words were evidently a wayside greeting, as "Good evening" might have been, or "A pleasant road to you," or what not; but ours were no common travellers to accost:

"'What! you are stepping westward?' Yea,
'Twould be a wildish destiny
If we, who thus together roam
In a strange land and far from home,
Were in this place the guests of chance:
Yet who would stop, or fear to advance,
Though home or shelter he had none,
With such a sky to lead him on?

"The dewy ground was dark and cold,
Behind all gloomy to behold,
And stepping westward seemed to be
A kind of heavenly destiny;
I liked the greeting, 'twas a sound
Of something without place or bound;
And seemed to give me spiritual right
To travel through that region bright.

"The voice was soft; and she who spake
Was walking by her native Lake;
The salutation was to me
The very sound of courtesy;
Its power was felt, and while my eye
Was fixed upon the glowing sky,
The echo of the voice enwrought
A human sweetness with the thought
Of travelling through the world that lay
Before me in my endless way."

No one will say that the journal and the poet's works are not here reciprocally indebted to each other; nor, to speak of the editor's rather bold method, to which we owe this explicatory juxtaposition, will any one say that it is not justified by the results.

Among the points of literary interest in the 'Tour,' the one which comes next after or next before the throwing of light upon the poems, and the poet's way of working, is Miss Wordsworth's very remarkable exhibition of her powers as a painter. Her range is very wide. Walking over a Highland moor, the travellers suddenly come upon a little hamlet where they see a potato field in blossom: "We passed by one patch of potatoes that a florist might have been proud of; no carnation-bed ever looked more gay than this square plot of ground on the waste common. The flowers were in very large bunches and of an extraordinary size, and of every conceivable shade of coloring, from snow-white to deep purple. It was pleasing in that place, where perhaps was never yet a flower cultivated by man for his own pleasure, to see these blossoms grow more gladly than elsewhere." Compare with this the melancholy impressiveness of this landscape with its one solitary figure beneath the cold sky: "But we soon came in sight of a spot that impressed us very much. At the lower end of this new reach of the vale was a decayed tree, beside a decayed cottage, the vale spreading out into a level area, which was one large field, without fence and without division, of a dull yellow color; the vale seemed to partake of the desolation of the cottage, and to participate in its decay. And yet the spot was in its nature so dreary that one would rather have wondered how it ever came to be tenanted by man than lament that it was left to waste and solitude. . . . We went on, looking before us, the place losing nothing of its hold upon our minds, when we discovered a woman sitting right in the middle of the field, alone, wrapped up in a gray cloak or plaid. She sat motionless all the time we looked at her, which might be nearly half an hour. We could not conceive why she sat there, for there were neither sheep nor cattle in the field; her appearance was very melancholy." Of a kind between these two sketches is this one which we happen upon a page later than the passage just quoted: "As we were passing along we saw an old man, the first we had seen in a Highland bonnet, walking with a staff at a very slow pace by the edge of one of the moorland corn-fields; he wore a gray plaid, and a dog was by his side. There was a Scriptural solemnity in this man's figure, a sober simplicity, which was most impressive." We have mentioned that this description occurs only a page later than the one just previously quoted; but in this instance specially remarkable points are a little more thick-coming than is usual with Miss Wordsworth. Yet in this as in all other instances the noticeable thing is set quietly amid the ordinary details of travel—the behavior of the horse, the goodness of the road, the chances of getting a good night's lodging.

Indeed, as the editor points out, not a small part of the pleasure which these 'Recollections' give the reader is that, being jotted down in the most unaffected manner for perusal by members of the family circle who did not make the journey, the passages of striking description almost always come upon the reader with an effect of surprise, which increases their power to please. And an agreeable lowness of tone is preserved by a complete disregard, perhaps ignorance, of the fine-writing art, though Miss Wordsworth can be entirely enthusiastic, and, when she is so, so writes. Witness her delight in the islands of Loch Lomond as seen upon a day of shifting mists and rain. More generally, however, we find in close connection with what the common run of writers on these subjects would regard as "effects" of which the utmost should be made, some such statement as we omitted in quoting the scene of desolation. After describing the dreariness of the valley and the hut before getting to the old woman sitting alone in the open field, she says to her home readers: "It was as much of a field as Mr. King's best pasture, scattered over with his fattest cattle."

We might take from this volume dozens more of specimens of Miss Wordsworth's gift for seeing nature not only with the clear eye which marks every object, but with the poetic vision also, and for describing what has appeared to her with a peculiar power. We prefer, however, to take a passage which shows that she not only had this natural gift and its complementary power of expression, but that her eye was the organ of a trained as well as a gifted mind. She seems to be combatting the notion of various tourists that Inverary, the seat of the Duke of Argyll, the McCallum More of song and story, looks too modern, and is not mediæval, unkempt, and shaggy enough. She, on the contrary, thinks of the Argyll of the close of the eighteenth century, with his town-house in Grosvenor Square, and finds a harmony and fitness in the spacious and smiling castle, the clear bay, the town standing white on its shore, the sweep of the smooth hills:

"There is in the natural endowment of Inverary something akin to every feature of the general character of the country; yet even the very mountains and the lake itself have a kind of princely festivity in their appearance. I do not know how to communicate the feeling, but it seems as if it were no insult to the hills to look on them as the shield and enclosure of the ducal domain, to which the water might delight in bearing its tribute. The hills near the lake are smooth, so smooth that they might have been shaven or swept; the shores, too, had somewhat of the same effect, being bare and having no roughness, no woody points; yet, the whole circuit being very large and the hills so extensive, the scene was not the less cheerful and festive, rejoicing in the light of heaven."

We ourselves, fond of itineraries with their record of small adventures, have been pleased with a portion of Miss Wordsworth's work which may, we fear, prove tedious to some, and even may drive some others to drop the book, for we are bound to say that this same portion constitutes by far the greater part of its contents. There is much concerning our wayfarers' cart, which is described as "a Hibernian" one, but does not seem to have been a jaunting-car; concerning the horse who, while in Wordsworth's guardianship, appears to have been neither a perfectly well-understood nor a perfectly well-engineered beast, and who does more or less jibing, backing towards torrents, and fighting at ferries; also concerning one after another, and then one after another again, of the poor Highland cottages, huts, and inns, where abounding smoke and filth made still less palatable the fare, almost always scanty. There is much also concerning the brighter side of the travellers' daily round, but this may be as little pleasing to some readers as the chronicle of the soakings in the rain, the wanderings from the road, and the disputes with the barefooted landladies of the mud-floored cabins. To others again there is an almost personal sense of sharing in the adventure and sharing in the recompense when the tourist tells in his journal of the opportuneness of the back-country tavern, with its log fires and a pair of dry stockings to be lent. But apart from all this indubitable but confessedly rather unturbulent pleasure, the fulness of detail with which Miss Wordsworth wrote for her family may be gladly enjoyed by the reader, both for the sense of acquaintance with her personally which it gives, and for a certain amount of knowledge of the Scotland of 1803 which it half insensibly conveys—the Scotland, be it remembered, when Sir Walter Scott had not yet "invented Scotland" for the outside world, and when few but native eyes had ever looked upon the Trosachs. A simple, pious, industrious, poor, intelligent, rather sombre people, worthy of respect as respecting themselves and others, seems to be what the poet and his sister found, for they were not superficial observers, or capable of being unjust because they found much of which to disapprove and much that repelled them.

TYSON'S ARCTIC EXPERIENCES.*

THE work whose title is given below was based on communications from Mr. Tyson, the assistant-navigator of the late *Polaris* expedition, and composed by Mrs. E. Vale Blake. That the lady has entered on her task with enthusiasm and with a high admiration of the hero of her Odyssey, is evident from her preface. Nevertheless, the responsibility for the observations recorded falls entirely upon Mr. Tyson, and our remarks will have reference to him as the real author, the more justly inasmuch as there are copious extracts from what purports to be his journal, and which would to a casual reader appear to have been written at the time indicated by the dates. We learn, however, that the real journal was lost after the disaster of the *Polaris*, and our hero freely confesses that he wrote what is now given as the journal subsequently. It is much to be feared that in the interval between the observations recorded in the diary and the time of writing them out the author's memory has frequently failed. For instance, one passage runs thus: "December 24, 1871. The ship continues to rise and fall with the tide, her stem resting on the foot of the iceberg. At neap-tide the leak might be repaired—gradually, if not all at once—by working a few hours at a time as the tide permits; but no orders are given to attempt it." Now, on the 24th of December, 1871, when this entry purports to have been made, the ship was sound and whole, as the combined evidence of both her officers and men, given before the Secretary of the Navy, proves. From that document we learn that the *Polaris* was in good condition until the spring of 1872, when she was discovered to be damaged and making water.

Any book designed to be a valuable contribution to the literature of travel and exploration must, at the present period, comprise something more than the personal experiences of the traveller. Costly expeditions sent out at the expense of the nation, for purposes almost purely scientific, may be reasonably expected to yield some other return than a mere book of adventure. A careful perusal of Mr. Tyson's narrative has deeply disappointed us. We hoped to find in it a good and intelligible summary of the work done by the different members of the exploring party and the actual discoveries made—at the very least, some discussion of the geographical problems and the additions to our knowledge of those remote regions. The objects of the expedition and the phenomena to be investigated were duly set forth in Capt. Hall's instructions and in the memoranda prepared by the board of which Prof. Joseph Henry was chairman. The expedition was preeminently a scientific one, and its success or failure can be judged only by the scientific results.

But it is quite obvious that Mr. Tyson, although he was the assistant navigator, was totally unable to comprehend the proper work of the expedition, or the means of accomplishing it. His book is merely a narrative of his personal experiences, in which he duly parades his own courage, wisdom, sagacity, and reliance upon Divine Providence, at the expense of a majority of his companions. At the beginning of the journey he gives a miserable picture of discord, insubordination, and want of enthusiasm in the members and crew, and every forward movement has its prelude of foreboding. We find him the advocate and promoter of every successful achievement, and a warning counsellor before every disaster. In addition to all this, we are told in the preface:

"In regard to the personal experiences of Captain Tyson, the natural reticence and modesty of that officer have compelled the editor to underestimate and suppress much that is fairly due to him; and the reader is reminded that far more emphasis might fairly be given to his share in whatever of success was achieved by the *Polaris* expedition but for this peculiarity of the assistant navigator,

'Who, like a statue solid set,
And moulded in colossal calm,'

appears quite unaware that he has done anything extraordinary, or more than what any right-minded, honest man would have done under the same circumstances."

The introductory chapter, occupying 75 pages, is useful as epitomizing the well-known facts recited more fully and in a better style by Barrow Richardson, Peschel, Markham, and others, and serves very well to refresh the memory of the ordinary reader of Arctic travel. The second chapter, on "Captain Tyson's Early Arctic Experiences," will probably prove more interesting to himself than to the public at large. About one hundred pages are devoted to the cruise of the *Polaris* and the winter quarters at Polaris Bay, bringing us to the calamitous separation of Tyson's party from the vessel, and the beginning of the memorable and perilous journey upon the ice-floe. During the winter and spring it is customary, in all Arctic expeditions, to make journeys with sledges, and to establish an observatory for recording physical phenomena. These receive very brief mention from Mr. Tyson, whose mind and diary appear to be filled with matters like the following:

"Dec. 18–24.—Nothing occurring that is pleasant or profitable to record I wish I could blot out of my memory some things which I see and hear. Capt. Hall did not always act with the clearest judgment, but *it was heaven to this.*

"Jan. 1, 1872 . . Considering the heterogeneous elements of which this expedition is composed, it is something to be thankful for that we all commence the year in good health, and without any open and acknowledged disagreement, which considering, too, some circumstances, I think remarkable. . . . Well, all I can do is to keep silent; my position does not warrant interference.

"June 9.—Chester's party have all returned, having had the misfortune to lose their boat and nearly their lives. . . . I called the cape, near which they lost the boat, Cape Disaster, and the bay they were on, beyond Cape Lupton, Folly Bay, which I believe was rather displeasing to Mr. Chester."

Passages like the foregoing may readily serve to explain the difficulty experienced by Captain Buddington in enforcing discipline, and exonerate him from the gross charges brought against him upon the landing of the Tyson party.

The voyage upon the ice-floe is one of the most remarkable in the whole category of adventures. The fearful uncertainty, the utter helplessness of the castaways, their constant bordering on starvation, and the certainty of an ultimate dissolution of the strange craft which floated them, are well depicted by the writer, but even here, where harmony and mutual forbearance in the presence of awful dangers were most essential to the well-being of the party, Mr. Tyson has nothing but complaints to offer with regard to his fellow-sufferers, particularly Mr. Meyer. Not only does he reject the latter's opinions with contempt, but he implies that Meyer spread disaffection and mutiny among the seamen, and secretly counselled them to abandon Tyson and the Esquimaux and seek their own safety. He even insinuates, ultimately, that his life was in danger from his desperate and greedy companions. Suggestions of this character, which can never be proved nor even rendered plausible, should not have been written: they are far more damaging to the author than to those against whom they are aimed. It is perfectly clear that Mr. Tyson committed a grievous error in accompanying this expedition. He found in the other officers (Capt. Hall excepted) nothing but matter for complaint, sneering, and dark insinuations. According to his own showing, he was the only hero, and the only man possessed of common intelligence.

The Life of Benjamin Franklin. Written by Himself. Now first Edited from Original MSS., and from his Printed Correspondence and Other Writings, by John Bigelow. 3 vols. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. London: Trübner & Co.)—Of the two Americans—the only two who by the general voice of the civilized world have been placed among the immortals—Washington has faded to a grand, statuesque, but somewhat chilling figure; while Franklin is still full of life and color. For if Franklin was as wise as Socrates, he was also as picturesque, and his shrewd, homely sayings, many of which have become proverbs, and his charming Memoirs, help to explain the freshness and durability of his fame. There are other well-read autobiographies —Gibbon's, Rousseau's, Béranger's suggest themselves at once—but there is none like Franklin's. It is as interesting to a boy as Robinson Crusoe. If we turn to it later in life, we are delighted with his kindly wisdom, the delicacy of his humor, and the simple felicity of his style. Yet "one of the half-dozen most widely popular books ever printed" had a fault. It was incomplete. Franklin brought his Memoirs down to the year 1757, and never found time to finish them. The next twenty-eight years were among the most important of his life. With the exception of two short visits to America, he passed them in London as Agent for the Colonies and in Paris as Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States. Fortunately, he left a nearly complete record of these years in his correspondence, which was collected and edited by Sparks. It was a happy conception of Mr. Bigelow to complete the autobiography by extracts from these letters and others in his possession, arranged in their natural order, "thus making Franklin himself tell the story of the remainder of his life." The date and the address of every letter used is noted in the margin, so that any one who desires it may easily refer to the originals. In three volumes of convenient size, we have everything Franklin "left behind him that any one not pursuing special investigations now cares to read about." As the Sparks collection is in ten large volumes, and has become so rare and expensive as to be beyond the reach of ordinary book-buyers, the present edition supplies a real want. This is not the only good service Mr. Bigelow has done for the admirers of Franklin. It is probably known to many readers of the *Nation* that in 1867 Mr. Bigelow succeeded in procuring two unique memorials of Franklin: the pastel portrait by Duplessis, done in 1783, and presented by Franklin to M. Le Veillard, mayor of Passy; and the autograph MSS. of the famous Memoirs, which he had written mainly at the earnest request of the same dear

* 'Arctic Experiences: Containing Capt. George E. Tyson's Wonderful Drift on the Ice-floe. A History of the *Polaris* Expedition. Edited by E. Vale Blake.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

friend. Le Veillard was guillotined in 1794. From his widow the MSS. passed to her daughter, at whose death, in 1834, it was inherited by her cousin, M. de Sinarmont, whose grandson sold it to the present owner. Dr. Franklin bequeathed his papers to his grandson, William Temple Franklin, who withheld them from publication until 1817 for reasons which have never been fully explained. The edition of 1817 has been reprinted ever since. When Mr. Bigelow came to collate his MSS. with this edition, he found that the last eight pages of the MSS., "which are second in value to no other eight pages of the work, were omitted entirely," and that more than twelve hundred changes had been made in the text. Most of them are not material. It seems as if William Temple Franklin had tried to improve his grandfather's style by adapting it to the rhetorical fashions of his day. Mr. Bigelow, thinking that Franklin wrote as good English as any author of the eighteenth century, and that a book which seems to have the gift of perpetual youth should be read as it came from the hands of its maker, published in 1868 an edition of the Memoirs from the Le Veillard MSS., with a preliminary sketch of its history. The same text has, of course, been adopted in the first volume of the present work. He has added a few notes, a catalogue of the works written "by and about Franklin," and a copious index. It is always pleasant to have an excuse for reading once more an old favorite. A new edition would attract us if it came in a questionable shape. In this instance the shape is in all respects worthy of the celebrated printer, and the editor has done his share of the work thoroughly. It is fortunate that the original MSS. should have fallen into the keeping of a man so well fitted for the trust. Himself an able journalist, he has had the rare distinction of filling successfully the position in France first held by Franklin, at a time, too, when the future of our nation was as uncertain as it seemed to be in the year 1777.

Franklin's friends—Le Veillard, Vaughan, and James—urged him to write the story of his life, to teach young men the advantages of industry, frugality, and self-control. It has, no doubt, been of great service, especially to the men of the last generation. If few were found able to become proficient in the "art of virtue," many learned to imitate some of his admirable qualities. Possibly the public spirit and the readiness to give liberally for public purposes which have been so marked a feature in the character of the better class of Americans, may be a result of his example. But the great secret of Franklin not even his teaching can impart. Owing to "some exquisite conjunction and balance of qualities," he seems never to have been led astray by his reason, his feelings, or his wants. He had none or nearly none of the weaknesses and errors of his time. Every American is familiar with Franklin's noble head—cheap plaster casts and shabby lithographs cannot disfigure it. He has heard Poor Richard's maxims, knows the story of the kite and the key, and has a picture in his mind of the old philosopher in his Quaker costume playing chess with princes and peers; but we suspect that the average American does not know that Franklin was "the most eminent journalist, philosopher, diplomatist, and statesman of his time," and that he did such great things that even Turgot's melodramatic *Eripuit fulmen cœlo, sceptrumque tyrannis,* is hardly an exaggeration.

We agree with Mr. Bigelow that Franklin's "influence was never more needed than at this moment," when grave doubts have arisen in so many acquisitive minds of the truth of one of his favorite maxims: "Honesty is the best policy." Whether the application of a new edition of his life, excellent as this one is, can cure this deep-seated consumption of the conscience is uncertain; but it may alleviate some of the symptoms. We do not hesitate to recommend it. If it should not prove a complete remedy at least no one will regret having taken it.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

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THE week closing on Saturday was marked by increased activity in all the different markets in Wall Street. Government bonds were in demand in large amounts; gold was stronger; stocks were active, with a good demand for both speculation and investment purposes; and the business in railroad bonds increased considerably. One or two failures were reported, but as they were not unexpected, they had very little effect upon business affairs in the Street.

Money remains easy at 2½ per cent. on call as the ruling rate; the extreme range of rates has been between 2 and 3 per cent., excepting for a short time on Friday, when 5 per cent. was paid, the market having been "bid up" by the brokers engaged in loaning money for the large banking-houses. Commercial paper is quoted 5½ to 7 per cent. for prime names running three to four months, and 8 per cent. for lower grades running the same length of time.

The statement of the Clearing-House banks for the week ending Saturday, October 3, was unfavorable, and indicates an increasing demand for money, which is shown by an increase of $1,737,600 on the item of loans. The surplus reserve is down to $2,396,275 below what it was last week. The following shows the changes in the averages for the past two weeks:

	Sept. 26.	Oct. 3.	Differences.
Loans	$279,539,400	$281,277,000	Inc... $1,737,600
Specie	18,919,900	18,374,200	Dec... 545,700
Legal-tenders	65,700,400	63,966,100	Dec.. 1,734,300
Deposits	236,460,800	236,925,900	Inc... 465,100
Circulation	25,625,800	25,419,600	Dec.. 206,200

The following shows the relations between the total reserves and the total liabilities:

	Sept. 26.	Oct. 3.	Differences.
Specie	$18,919,900	$18,374,200	Dec.. $545,700
Legal-tenders	65,700,400	63,966,100	Dec.. 1,734,300
Total reserve	$84,620,300	82,340,300	Dec.. $2,280,000
Reserve required against deposits	59,115,200	59,231,475	.....
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	25,505,100	23,108,825	Dec.. 2,396,275

The stock market has shown increased activity and buoyancy. The leading feature of the market was Lake Shore, which, owing to the favorable closing out of the remaining $3,000,000 second mortgage bonds, and the uncovered short interest in the stock, advanced with little or no opposition from 78 to 83¾, with a subsequent reaction to 82¾, at which figure it closed on Saturday. Next in importance to Lake Shore was Western Union Telegraph, which fluctuated between 78¾ and 81½, with a large amount of transactions. Pacific Mail advanced from 50 to 51½, but fell off on Saturday to 49½. Central and Hudson was strong throughout the week, and sold at the highest price of the season, 102⅞. Northwestern Common was strong, and advanced nearly 3 per cent.

Government bonds were moderately active. An enquiry was reported for large lots, which developed a scarcity of supply. Another call was issued October 1 by the Secretary of the Treasury for $10,000,000 5-20s, upon which interest will cease January 1, 1875.

Railroad bonds have been strong and active, the principal demand being for the bonds of the older roads in good credit. New York Central and Hudson River firsts rose to 110⅜, but afterwards fell off to 110. The Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad Company have succeeded in placing the unsold balance of their second mortgage bonds—$3,000,000—at a price which nets the Company about $2,700,000, an amount sufficient to pay off the existing floating debt of about $1,300,000, and leave $1,400,000 in the treasury.

The sale of $2,384,000 New York City stock was a prominent feature of the week. Bids were invited for the whole or any part of the above amount—the stock to be either 6 per cent. gold or 7 per cent. currency. The entire amount was taken by one firm, in 6 per cent. gold stock, at 104.27½.

The gold market has shown considerable strength for the first time in several weeks, the price advancing to 110⅜ from 109½, the lowest quotation of the week. The rise in gold is due to the increased firmness in foreign exchange and the prospect of gold shipments to meet the European balance against us. The rise was further encouraged by the short interest, which was considerable, as indicated by the small premium which was paid at times for the use of cash gold. The specie shipments for the week were unimportant in amount—$220,459, chiefly in silver bars.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1874.

The Week.

SOME short time since, Mr. Charles Hays, an Alabama Congressman, wrote a terrible letter to General Hawley, in which he gave, with great circumstantiality and minuteness, a list of the outrages perpetrated by the Democrats in that State. In this letter he undertook to give only "well-authenticated facts," among which were that a hotel-keeper named Allen, having asserted that one Billings had been murdered "on account of his politics," was set upon by a gang of ruffians, who "beat him unmercifully with their pistols," and threatened to kill him "if he didn't keep his mouth shut about that d—d Yankee, Billings"; another was that, on or about August 24, five negroes were shot for no known cause in North Sumter, and Mr. Hays quoted a correspondent of the Meridian *Mercury* as his authority; another was that in Pickens County such terror existed that "no white man ever cast a Republican vote and lived through the year"; that in Hale County "a negro benevolent society was ordered by white men, on the night of August 26, to hold no more meetings; that masked men, on the same night, visited the house of a negro, James Bliss, who, seeing them, had left, and that he has fled the country; and that Major James G. Stokes, who made a Republican speech in Greensboro, 'was warned (after his room in the hotel had been entered at one o'clock at night) by a band of pistolled and armed ruffians that he must not visit the county again or make Radical speeches'"; that in Choctaw County ten negroes had been killed and thirteen wounded, about August 1, by a party of whites; and finally, that Mr. W. A. Lipscomb, an "earnest Republican," was "found dead on the public road in Marengo County," shot to death. These statements of Mr. Hays were quoted in every direction, and, no doubt, did more to persuade people that the "war of races" was going on actively in the South than any other evidence adduced.

The *Tribune* has very judiciously had this matter investigated on the spot by a correspondent, with this result: first, Allen says that he was assaulted by a solitary gentleman, apparently armed only with the weapons of nature, who scratched his face; the letter in the Meridian *Mercury*, instead of saying that the five negroes were killed without any known reason, shows that three of them were killed by negroes, one in a fracas, and one by accident, while one case was a wife-murder; the other two were shot by parties unknown while stealing corn; as to Pickens County, it seems that there are not only Republican voters, but Republican office-holders there, while in Hale County the correspondent saw the affidavits of the officers of both the negro benevolent societies in Greensboro denying that they had ever been disturbed in their meetings, or warned to discontinue them; the affidavit of Dr. T. R. Ward, of Hale County, in whose employ the negro Bliss formerly was, embracing a statement by Bliss himself, denying that he had been run out of the county, and explaining that he did not return for want of money, and had therefore gone to work to obtain it; also the affidavits of the hotel-keeper at Greensboro, and of the Judge of Probate, the Mayor, the Postmaster, the United States Commissioner, and others, both Republicans and Democrats, denying the truth of the whole story about the warning of Major Stokes. The Choctaw massacre is denied by the massacred negroes, the leader of whom swears that he assured Hays himself that no one had been injured. Finally, Mr. Lipscomb has written a letter saying that he is alive and well, and, far from being murdered, has never been even assaulted, or had an unkind word spoken to him. In fact, Hays's story turns out to be a complete tissue of lies from beginning to end. It will be worth while, by the way, for such Republicans as believe in the existence of the "war of races" to observe what becomes of the Republican party in Alabama in the coming elections, and how much it is helped by Hays's stories. The State is now in the hands of the Republicans, but it is pretty evenly divided between whites and blacks, and, owing to the agitation about the Civil-Rights Bill, is very likely to go Democratic at the next election. The Republicans are even now, at the very time they are busy inventing Ku-klux, forced to go about denouncing the attempt to "enforce social equality" for the sake of catching white votes.

The leading colored men of New Orleans issued an address on the 8th inst., signed by a committee of fifteen, among whom are Pinchback, the late Lieutenant-Governor, Brown, the Superintendent of Education, and Deslonde, the Secretary of State, which is in many ways very remarkable and hopeful. They declare that the Republican party in the State has been managed and controlled since the reconstruction by men in all respects as bad as "the most rampant White-Leaguer"; that they have so used their patronage as to shut out the colored wealth and intelligence from prominence, and to put in office "illiterate and unworthy colored men"; that the representative men of the colored population are totally ignored by the Republican party; for which they especially denounce Kellogg, of whose election, however, they entertain no doubt, and they thank the Administration for supporting him. They say that while any overtures for peace and conciliation on their part between the two races might have been heretofore taken as a sign of fear, the present state of affairs removes all difficulty on that score, and that "they are depressed and sickened" by the prevailing disorder, and "are ready to adopt any honorable adjustment tending to harmonize the races, and they authorize an executive committee to confer with any body of citizens in furtherance of united action for law and order and a higher standard of administration of public offices." It is singular, but true, that the documents issuing from both parties in New Orleans during the present troubles—this one included—are markedly superior in both tone and expression, and especially in expression, to the platforms and addresses got up by political bodies at the North. The increasing turgidity and vapidness of the latter is one of the bad signs of the times. An average Northern platform now reads for all the world like an old patched-up Papal Encyclical badly translated. The only improvement we have of late noticed in it is the omission of that comic demand for the prompt payment of the pensions of the soldiers and sailors; but we must except from this criticism the last Republican platform in Connecticut and the last Democratic one in this State.

The debt of the State of Virginia was contracted for internal improvements, the chief among them being the James River and Kanawha Canals. Interest on it was paid down to the end of the Rebellion, but it cannot any longer be raised. The default is set down to these causes: First, the destruction of a large part of the State's basis of credit by emancipation and the war. Second, the division of the State and the creation of West Virginia out of one-third of the territory of Virginia, and the inability of the two States to agree upon the proportion of the debt each should assume. Third, mismanagement of the State's assets, which, if properly used, might have been made to reduce the principal so as to have rendered it practicable to pay the interest. Fourth, the passing of the "Funding Bill," the compounding of long overdue interest, and the issuing of bonds having self-collectable coupons attached. Fifth, the depreciation of the value of lands, by a succession of bad crops, and the absence of buyers, while thousands of acres were being forced into the market by judgments of the courts on private indebtedness contracted anterior to secession. Sixth, the reduction of the State assessments, in part consequent upon the decrease of the value of lands, and in part consequent upon every county desiring to bear as little as possible of the public burden. According to the Balti-

more *American*, the first of these is undoubtedly the principal difficulty, and it applies, of course, to most other Southern States as well. The annual deficit is about $650,000, and the State now proposes to declare itself insolvent, and to try to make some arrangement with its creditors. This seems the only thing that is practicable under the circumstances, and with the settled government the State now enjoys, and her vast resources, there can be little doubt that the creditors in the end will not lose anything.

The *Tribune* is working away very hard, and we dare say usefully, in keeping the public mind alive to the possible dangers of a third term. We are quite certain that no harm can be done by this as long as it is mere speculation. One of its correspondents, signing himself "Jefferson," declares that "every Republican outside of politics denounces the idea, while the office-holders are dumb as statues," and he predicts that unless we all now act in the belief that the managers will put Grant in for a third term in spite of the clever incapables, like himself, his brothers, and the editor of the *Nation*, who do not go to ward meetings, a third term there will surely be; and he relates his own experience at the Philadelphia Convention in 1872, where, though the best portion of the body did not want Grant, the sly chiefs renominated him by acclamation. His conclusion is, therefore, that if we vote for Dix on the Utica platform, we shall prepare the way inevitably for four years more of Grant. We feel sure that we saw this gentleman and his "brothers" at the Cincinnati Convention, and nothing then could exceed his delight over the way the practical, knowing men had "euchred" the poor visionaries, who evolved politics in their libraries instead of going to caucuses, by nominating Horace Greeley and coalescing with the Democrats. The thing was sure to be a success, because Greeley was to draw off half the Republicans, and then the whole of the Democrats were to come over to him; and what was then to become of poor Grant and his office-holders at Philadelphia? We need not recount what followed. We now wish to warn the practical "workers" who are trying to make the "third term" bogey a reason for voting the Democratic ticket, that if they are in any degree successful they will bring about exactly the same result they brought about in 1872—that is, they will flop into a wet ditch of their own digging. If they set the Democratic beggar on horseback, he will surely, as before, ride to the devil. That is, the chiefs will cut such capers and excite such hopes among the malcontents at the South, that by the time the Republican Convention meets in 1876 we shall have the whole North in a state of wild alarm, and all thought of calm, rational reform, of which we now see signs, will have been thrown aside, and there will be once more an outcry for "a soldier in the White House," to save the Union with cavalry, infantry, and artillery, instead of a statesman to save it by conciliation, moderation, purity, and respect for law.

General Butler has secured his renomination to Congress without much difficulty. We should be inclined to hope that there might be a bolt, but any anti-Butler campaign is so sure to be thoroughly mismanaged, that it seems perhaps hardly worth while. There never has been a time since the end of the war when there was a better chance of defeating General Butler in his own district than during this autumn. The General's shocking exposure of himself last winter at Washington, his advocacy of inflation, and the revelations of his scandalous connection with Jayne and Sanborn, really made him for the time being unpopular, even in Massachusetts, and the Simmons affair did not tend to strengthen him with the general public. Under these circumstances, if his opponents had made use of their opportunities, they might easily have prevented his going back to Congress. But instead of doing so, they gave a sigh of relief that the winter's work was over, and solemnly assured one another that Butler was annihilated. The next thing that took place was the circulation of stories that Butler was disgusted with politics; that he thought of going abroad; that he was worried and tired with what in Brooklyn they call "strife." The anti-Butlerites took this as renewed proof that the General's fortunes were on the wane; and to convince the public of their confidence in the strength of their own position, they managed to secure two candidates to run against him, one of whom apparently believed that the other was a Butler man in disguise. The result is that Butler is triumphantly vindicated. The difference between Butler and his opponents seems to be—looking at the matter from a purely practical point of view—that he works with money, friends, and the party machine; his opponents expected to beat him by means of gusts of popular indignation.

The Hon. John McKeon's exposure of Mr. Tilden shows that the Democratic candidate for governor is engaged in conspiracies against the liberties of the people which are worse even than the third-term plot. The fact that small railroads are frequently swallowed up by big ones has been long known, and the voracity of the larger corporations has been frequently protested against without much effect. As a general thing, however, the vices of railroad consolidation have been supposed to come from the greedy disposition of Tom Scott or Commodore Vanderbilt. It seems, however, that Tilden has really been at the bottom of the whole thing; that he has now for years made it his business "to investigate and make a proper diagnosis of moribund roads, to ascertain their condition, and particularly the number and value of the mortgages, to learn the rights of the stockholders, bondholders, and all parties interested in insolvent and struggling corporations"—not, however, for the purpose of aiding these stock and bond holders, or of assisting these insolvent and struggling corporations to extricate themselves from their embarrassments, as a Christian would have done, but "to foreclose the bonds, and generally to conclude by a scheme of consolidation of several small roads into one grand colossal line." Over the once flourishing States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan, Mr. Tilden has reached forth his arm; poor Scott and Vanderbilt are only his tools. And this is the man, Mr. McKeon says, who is nominated on an anti-monopoly platform. It is strange, indeed; and the only way that we can explain it is that the people are tired of bombshells, and don't read them. The "campaign of principle" which we were promised this year has consisted mainly of charges of fraud and lying brought against Dix, counterbalanced by these charges of corruption against Tilden; and of charges of fraud against Kelly (who is not a candidate for any office), counterbalanced by pretty conclusive proof that the mayor (for whom neither party is responsible) is a foolish old man.

The last Legislature of this State passed an act at the instance of the Chamber of Commerce of this city, providing for an experiment of a novel and interesting kind, by creating a court of arbitration for the use of members of the Chamber, and all other inhabitants of the city who may wish to resort to it. The court consists of a judge, who is a lawyer, appointed by the Governor, and such assessors as the parties in each case may choose. Any member may cite another before it by summons, and, if the defendant does not file an objection to the jurisdiction, the trial goes on, and the judgment has all the force of that of a full court of law. Parties other than members of the Chamber may obtain decisions by joint submission. The Governor has appointed a highly qualified lawyer, Judge Fancher, to the judgeship, and the sittings of the court have begun. The gain to merchants of having mercantile disputes settled by an immediate hearing before experts will undoubtedly be very great, and the possibility is that the calendar of this court, like that of the courts of law, will before long be overloaded with cases. The experiment is in fact an attempt to escape, not only from the ordinary delays of the law, but from the ignorance and stupidity of the average jury—the employment of which in complicated civil cases is simply a piece of barbarism.

The *Law Review* for October contains an article on the Wisconsin railroad legislation, which points out that the Potter law, intended to prevent unjust discrimination, is in reality a discriminating measure of the most monstrous kind. It not only fixes absolute

rates, but it classifies all the Wisconsin roads into three classes, and then "requires that Class A should do for three cents exactly the same work for which it permits Class B to charge three and one-half cents, and Class C to charge four cents. It also imposes thereby unequal burdens upon all travellers, and severely discriminates against all residents on the lines of Classes B and C. The owner of a farm on any railroad in Class C is thus forced to pay one-third more for moving his wheat to Milwaukee than the farmers on Class A, and, in undertaking to prevent the railroads from regulating their own charges, the legislature itself has adopted a system which, if persisted in, would render it impossible for towns and farms on Class B, and still more on Class C, to compete with those on Class A; and would inevitably result in the depreciation of homesteads and farms, and gradual diminution of business, on Classes B and C; while it would prevent new settlements on those lines, and stimulate them on the lines of the favored Class A." "Manifestly, the legislature has in reality instituted, on a larger scale than any railroad could possibly do, the very system of discriminating rates it undertook to destroy."

A "Workman's League" has been founded at Geneva by seceders from the International, who declare with much show of reason that the International made a mistake when it undertook to "overthrow modern society" and substitute for it a new political and economical organization. They also denounce it for introducing into a cosmopolitan society the political troubles of particular countries; of putting at the head of it political philosophers and revolutionists who were not workingmen, and could not fully understand or sympathize with them. The aim of the new society is simply the gradual emancipation of the working-classes from dependence on their employers under the régime of wages, and to affect this they propose to agitate for universal suffrage in those countries in which it does not exist, and use it to promote legislation in favor of "liberty and equality" and the general welfare, and to form unions of the various bodies, headed by a federal body, so as to enable workmen to negotiate on equal terms with their employers. All this would be very sensible and practical if "liberty and equality" were not such vague terms. "Fraternity" seems to be dropping out of the radical programme on the continent of Europe, and, considering the part that a tremendous war against the "privileged classes" has always played in it, it is wonderful that the pretence of brotherly feeling was kept up so long. "Be my brother, or I'll kill you," is a bit of satire which it called forth a generation ago.

Bismarck has been giving a fresh illustration of that quality of his which his enemies call cynical contempt for justice and right, and his friends call practical force and sagacity, by his treatment of the complaints of the Danes of Northern Schleswig. When Prussia and Austria seized the Duchies of Schleswig-Holstein in 1864, they half acknowledged in the London Conference which that affair called forth that in taking Northern Schleswig, which contains a population of 200,000 Danes, they took more than fairly belonged to Germany; but no advantage was taken of this admission, and the district remained under their joint occupation until the war broke out in 1866, the Danish Schleswigers all the time protesting and petitioning and maintaining that the argument of tongue and race, which justified Prussia in seizing the rest of Schleswig, entitled them to reannexation to Denmark. After the war of 1866, Austria, in surrendering all her rights in Germany, being apparently ashamed of her share in the Schleswig-Holstein transaction, stipulated in the Treaty of Prague that "the people of the Northern District of Schleswig, if by free vote they express a wish to be united to Denmark, shall be ceded to Denmark accordingly." No attempt has, however, been made to carry out this article. Germany retains the Northern District as well as the others, and when the inhabitants murmur and Denmark remonstrates, Bismarck replies that as to the Treaty of Prague, as they were not parties to it, they have no right to claim the execution of it; that for plébiscites, as a French device, he has a thorough contempt, and thinks conquest a good enough foundation for authority; and that if the Schleswig Danes do not like German rule, their children will; and he is said to have informed Denmark that the best thing for her to do was to join the German Confederation. The communication of this suggestion by the Danish Government to the Czar is said to have led the latter to write his sympathetic letter to Don Carlos.

The recent journey of the Emperor of Austria to Bohemia has once more brought into relief the contending aspirations of the German or constitutional and Czech or national parties. Unlike the reception which the Emperor met with in 1868, when in the rigid abstinence of the Czechs from all festivities a national demonstration was intended, the greeting extended to Francis Joseph on his recent tour was apparently a most cordial one. In view of the decided discountenance hitherto given by the present ministry to the pretensions of the Czechs, their loyal fervor on the occasion of the Emperor's journey was rather surprising, and the suspicions of the constitutional party as to the sincerity of these ovations were not unnatural. And it is a striking illustration of the pessimism still prevailing in Austria, that a short delay in the departure of Prince Auersperg, the President of the Ministry, for the Bohemian capital, and the failure of Count Andrássy to visit it at all, sufficed to excite uneasiness in the ranks of the Liberals, and even to give currency to a rumor that important concessions to the Czechs were to be the result of the Emperor's journey. Thus far, however, the hopes of the Czechs, as well as the apprehensions of the Liberals, seem to have been alike unfounded. While the Emperor's answer to an address by Cardinal Schwarzenberg, in which the former, as the faithful son of the Holy Church, pledged himself to its protection, "as far as circumstances would permit," is being construed in the interest of the clergy, the constitutional party may claim a more substantial advantage recently gained by it. The opening of the Bohemian Diet on the 15th of September witnessed the re-entrance of seven representatives of the moderate or *Jungczechisch* faction of the Czechs, who for a number of years had practised the "policy of abstinence," and left the Bohemian Diet as well as the Reichsrath virtually without a representative of their nationality. These deputies justify their action in a manifesto, in which, while upholding the states-right doctrine, they profess their conviction that a harmonious co-operation of all liberals, irrespective of nationality, is essential to the true welfare of the monarchy. The stand taken by the *Jungczechen* causes great consternation among the *Altczechen*, headed by Rieger, but is hailed with evident satisfaction by the constitutional party, which considers this split in the camp of the Czechs a heavy if not fatal blow to the pretensions of the ultras.

The recent attempts of Turkey to bring something like order into her financial chaos, which led to Sadyk Pacha's well-known mission to the money-markets of Europe, have finally resulted in the negotiation of a new loan of $200,000,000 and the establishment of an Ottoman National Bank. The loan met with considerable outward success, the applications, according to the *Economist*, exceeding the amount at present allotted ($79,500,000). But it may be doubted whether this loan, or indeed any financial measure, will materially improve the desperate condition of the Turkish finances. Her national debt amounts to more than $700,000,000, the interest on which is $50,000,000, or more than half of her last year's revenue. Although the budget for the current year shows a deficit of $1,460,000 only, the actual sum will doubtless be largely in excess of this estimate, as in the budget the expenses were arbitrarily reduced from the figures of the previous year by nearly five millions, while the revenue was in like manner increased by nearly seventeen millions. In view of the famine in Asia Minor and other districts, the really collectable taxes will hardly be increased by one-fourth the amount anticipated. The new national bank will be pretty sure to yield a handsome profit to its founders; but its usefulness in any other sphere may be questioned.

THE BULLS AND BEARS.

THERE is always, in every time of public trial, calamity, or distress, a division of the community into two classes—the hopeful and despondent. During the late war, for instance, the line between them was very marked, and, indeed, they may be said to have formed two opposing political parties. Everybody at the North wished the Union to be preserved, but the Despondent (the Democrats) said that the thing could not be done, and that there was no use in trying; while the Hopeful (the Republicans) maintained that all was sure to come out right in the end, and that our reverses were mere flea-bites. The distinction between them seems on the surface to have had only theoretical importance; but it had in reality great practical importance. The value of a man's contribution in aid of the conduct of the war depended very greatly on the nature of his opinion as to its probable result. Those who doubted its success not only hung back themselves but discouraged those around them, and diffused languor through the whole sphere of their influence, when what was most necessary to victory was ardent and confident exertion. And this is true not only of war but of all other forms of concerted social activity. In every work in which men engage together, whether a battle, a Polar expedition, a march over the Plains, or a great commercial venture, the state of their spirits is of the utmost importance, because hopefulness is in reality a source of power, and despondency of weakness. This state, which is now commonly called "morale," receives more attention in the army than elsewhere, because the demands of military life on the nerves are more severe than those of civil life, but it deserves serious attention in both. What the prevalence of hopefulness among classes and conditions of men in the United States has done for the country, both politically and materially, is simply incalculable. In fact, it is not rash to say that it has prevented, and still prevents, and will doubtless continue to prevent, certain vices of legislation and administration from being fatal. A community endowed with less confidence in the future could not bear up under the burdens which are imposed on the country through some of the working of our political machinery. Indeed, so exuberant is this quality that it forms one great difficulty in the way of political reform, for men are so full of political exhilaration that they cannot be got to attach the necessary gravity to political abuses.

The condition of things since the late panic, as after every panic, gives these considerations more than usual weight. After every monetary convulsion there occurs the usual division between the cheerful and the gloomy. There is the class which thinks the state of affairs very terrible, and the depression sure to last a long time; and there is the other class, which thinks that it is not at all so bad as it seems and sure to pass over quickly. Now, if a financial crisis consisted simply and solely in the regret caused by the loss or destruction of a certain amount of property, it would make comparatively little difference how long this regret lasted. If robbed of his fortune, one may feel very disconsolate over it, but if he is still young and vigorous he knows well that the only thing to be done is to go to work and try and make another, and in the meantime to live frugally. The fact that it was a large fortune, or that he greatly enjoyed it, or that he was swindled out of it, would in no way blind him as to the course he ought to pursue, and would in no way diminish his energy or activity. But a financial or commercial crisis is not merely a physical phenomenon. It does not consist merely in the loss of so much capital. It is in large part a moral phenomenon, or, in other words, is, as the name "panic" indicates, a complex state of mind, composed in a small degree of regret, but in the larger degree of distrust. That is, it not only makes people sorry, but despondent. They not only mourn over their losses, but for a good while they doubt whether they can ever make them up. In fact, it may be illustrated by comparing it to the mental condition into which a man travelling with a party over the Plains would be thrown by losing his watch at night, and at the same time finding reason to believe that his companions were all robbers. Under these circumstances, the loss of the watch would seem a trifling matter, while his doubts about the character of his fellows would fill his life with terrible anxiety. Something of this sort happens in every panic. A number of people suddenly discover that they are much poorer than they supposed, that a great deal of capital of which they thought themselves possessed has been buried in unproductive enterprises, and that they cannot pay their debts. Now, this is an unpleasant and may be a very dangerous state of things, but it is only a very small portion of a panic; the rest of it is made up of widely diffused doubt whether *anybody* can pay his debts or is to be trusted, and whether *any* investment of capital is safe. The sorrow and anxiety caused by the discovery of the loss produce the wild excitement and confusion of the first week or two; but this soon passes away. An active community is not prostrated by the mere loss of a certain amount of money. The war hopelessly destroyed a far larger amount of property than has been unprofitably sunk in Western railroads, and the Chicago and Boston fires fully as much, and yet none of these events produced a panic. It is the doubt and misgiving about one's neighbors which follow this first excitement, which constitute the grave stage of the malady, and this lasts for an indefinite period; and it is only when this has been checked that recovery begins.

About the proper mode of checking it there can hardly be two opinions. For moral diseases there must be moral remedies. When an army is defeated and running away in mad confusion, probably not one man in a thousand has been hurt, or even exposed to fire at all. His imagination has been simply overpowered by seeing other men killed or wounded or running; so he runs, too, and the sound of even distant guns makes him tremble and run all the harder. Now, the way to stop him, as all good officers know, is to appeal to his understanding and pride, to impede his flight, point out the folly and disgrace of his fear, to show him that his comrades are halting and going to make a stand, that the defeat is not so bad as it seems, and that success is still possible, and to make it clear that you yourself are not afraid or discouraged. On the other hand, no reprobation would be considered too severe for an officer who should, wherever he saw a flying mass, ride up to it and inform the men that they could not run too fast or too far, that the defeat was horrible, and that those who were asking them to stand fast were hypocrites and deceivers, and that the only chance of safety lay in a good pair of legs and good wind.

The condition of the commercial public after a panic is not unlike that of an army which has been routed, and the process of rallying it has to be somewhat similar. The reason why business does not revive is not that people have lost a good deal of money—that by itself is a reason why it should revive promptly; but that each person doubts everybody else's solvency or capacity, and refuses to engage in any enterprise needing other people's co-operation. Now this is a distinctly hypochondriacal condition; and the fault to be found with "bears" or "croakers" at such times as these is that they help to protract it by maintaining that it is a healthy condition, which it is safe to cultivate. At this moment there are loud praises of the economies people are practising, and there is no doubt that after a panic economy is eminently wise; but it is folly to suppose or preach that economy alone will set the commercial world on its feet. What people are saving in food or clothing or luxuries, would at the end of the year be a trifling portion of the amount of our losses, and would not in years make them up, and it must be remembered, too, that economy on a great scale aggravates a crisis by paralyzing numerous branches of industry. What is needed to cure a panic is the combination of economy and industry—in other words, to fill our empty purses and pay our debts we must go to work again and begin to produce. A state of things in which nobody is buying anything he can avoid, and men are letting their money lie at two per cent. per annum in United States bonds sooner than engage in any productive industry, is essentially sickly, and can bring neither man nor nation out of a financial slough. What we need now is to have people begin to

buy as usual, and sell as usual, and make as usual, and trust each other as usual. Of course, the delicate machinery of credit once deranged cannot be readjusted in a day, but the process of readjustment can be greatly hastened by getting people to understand that, as usual after panics, they are more frightened than hurt; and the way to do this is not to look about every day for fresh omens and predict fresh disasters, but to present the good side of the situation as far as truth will allow.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR BOTH NORTH AND SOUTH.

WE hope the white people of the South are paying attention to the use which the Republican politicians are making of "outrages" in the present canvass. If they will look at the proceedings of the New York State Republican Convention, which were managed by Mr. Conkling, now the most influential man of the party, they will see that "outrages" at the South formed the principal topic both of the speeches and the platform. They will see that both of them evaded nearly all the other important topics of the day. They will see that there is not a single other question of prominence on which the party is agreed. It is divided on the currency question, has no policy at all on the transportation question, nor on the tariff question, nor on the civil-service question, nor on the third-term question; and with regard to everything except the necessity for coercive measures towards the South, and for its own retention of power for the purpose of carrying them out, its utterances are vague, uncertain, and declamatory. They will see, too, that it has not in its last ten years of rule brought forward a single statesman in the higher sense of the term; that not one of its chiefs is associated in the public mind with any principle or policy of the smallest practical importance, or has any weight or authority on any subject of public interest. There is not amongst them a great lawyer, a great economist, a great financier, a great moralist, or a man great in any of the higher matters of human concern. The financier whom it put up at the close of the war has taken refuge in the Senate from the obloquy excited by the mischief worked by his schemes, and his successor was driven out of office by positive public indignation over his incompetency, if not worse. The one department in which it has achieved some success since the peace, that of State, is presided over by a gentleman who has but little, if any, influence in the party councils. So that if one asked any of the managers to-day why he and his followers ought to be kept in power, he would reply promptly: In order that the army and navy might be used effectively in repressing "outrages." Southern men will do well, too, to look at this circular sent by the Indiana Republican Committee to the Republican editors of that State:

"ROOMS OF THE REPUBLICAN STATE CENTRAL COMMITTEE, INDIANAPOLIS, Sept. 3, 1874.

"EDITOR OF UNION, RENSSELAER, IND.:

"DEAR SIR: I desire to call your attention to the horrible scenes of violence and bloodshed transpiring throughout the South, and suggest that you give them as great prominence as possible in your paper from this time until after the election.

"THOMAS J. BRADY, *Chairman.*"

They will thus see how large a part "the horrible scenes of violence and blood" are now playing in Northern politics, and they will have no difficulty in concluding that, when the party editors are thus stimulated to parade them, there will be no lack of slaughter for the next two months.

The moral of all this is plain enough. If the Southern whites do not wish to supply ammunition to their worst enemies, and to make the reign of their oppressors perpetual, and to paralyze the exertions of all those at the North who are trying to establish a better régime, they will do what they can to discountenance and prevent all attempts to procure redress or revenge by force. That armed assaults on political enemies are barbarous we do not need to point out. What we wish to impress on the Southern mind is that they are senseless, because fruitless. Killing people, or maiming or threatening people, for the mere purpose of gratifying one's hate, is worthy only of savages, and this is the only purpose that Southern tumults can now serve. Behind the negro, the carpet-bagger, and the scalawag there stands the United States Government, with which it is hopeless to contend, and behind the United States Government there stands the Northern people, ready to listen and ready to see that right is done, if it gets full time for consideration and information, but sure to become hard-hearted and deaf before anything which looks like armed resistance to the results of the war. We say this, though we have no doubt whatever that half the stories of "outrages" are pure fiction, the poetry of the canvass, and the other half exaggerations. In a sparsely peopled region, in which habits of lawlessness and violence have always been prevalent, and in which two different races now stand face to face with a hundred reasons for mutual distrust and dislike, there are sure to be many chance quarrels and frays, which in ordinary times would be attributed to a low stage of civilization, but which, now that the party in power has become dependent on them for existence, are sure to be worked up by a thousand pens and tongues and pencils into "new rebellions," "great outbreaks of rebel hate," and so on, and cause a thousand oaths to be taken by weeping politicians to stand by "the wards of the nation" and "make United States citizenship respected everywhere." Of course they would only hold this prominence, as the Indiana circular says, "until after the election," but we would warn Southerners, that however transparent the humbug of the matter may be, they are wretchedly mistaken if they suppose there is the least prospect that any Republican mistakes or frauds will bring about the accession of the Democrats. If this expectation prevails at the South, it is a mischievous delusion. No class of Republicans, however discontented, turns to the Democrats, for several reasons, of which the principal are that the Democrats are no more agreed on the great questions of the day than the Republicans; that they have a strong leaning towards some form of repudiation of the public debt; and that any attempts they might make towards the redressal of Southern grievances would probably result in a nullification of the Constitutional Amendments, and in complete impunity for attempts to overthrow the existing order of things at the South by violence. There is also a deep-seated feeling at the North, that however respectable the man might be whom the Democrats would put in the Presidential chair, his followers and surroundings would be such as to threaten the country with worse evils in the shape of corruption and maladministration than anything which has been witnessed under General Grant.

There is, therefore, no hope for the South in this direction. Its only chance of deliverance lies in persuading the best men of the Republican as well as of the Democratic party of the sincerity of its desire for peaceful reform, and of its resignation to the legislative results of the war. This can only be done by the patient use of the political machinery now at its disposal, no matter how certain defeat at the polls may be, and by temperate appeals to Northern opinion, such as the New Orleans Committee have been making. These tell, and they will tell more and more as time goes on. The conscience of the North is sure to be offended by the condition of the Southern States as long as its passions are not roused. Moreover, its people are not so blind as to allow the use the Attorney-General is now making of the Force Bill, to assume the whole police duty of the State governments, to be made a permanent practice of the Administration. The dangers of this become obvious the minute people have no "midnight murders" to discuss. Is it possible that sensible Southerners cannot see this? Is it possible that men, proud of their superiority in civilization, do not perceive that casual "risings" and sporadic assassinations are resorts only worthy of African or South American politics?

There is one thing, however, in which the treatment of the Southern problem by a large proportion of the Republican press is without excuse, and that is the amount of attention they bestow on the consideration of "what might have been" at the South at the close of the war. Whenever you call the attention of a large class of writers to the evils of negro rule, they tell you that it is the fault of the white men, who ought at the close of the war to have taken the negroes at once into their confidence and have bestowed equal rights on them, instead of passing black codes. There is no doubt they

ought; but if they had, it would have been an act of almost superhuman wisdom. To expect anything of the kind from a society like that of the Southern whites at the close of the war, with their training, habits, education, experience, and mental and moral condition, was ridiculous; and it was doubly ridiculous on the part of those who had been most active in depicting the evil influences of slavery. What the Southern whites tried to do with the emancipated blacks, was the logical and natural result of their situation, character, and antecedents. They acted as slaveholders beaten in battle ought to act. We got angry with them because they did not act as the members of the Anti-Slavery Societies would have acted, and we have treated them ever since as we might treat Wendell Phillips if we had caught him trading in negroes. In other words, we are furious with the South because the obvious and inevitable facts of the situation are not such as we should have liked. It is, however, with the real South—the South as slavery and the war left it—that we have to deal, and not with the South as philanthropic imaginations at the North dream of it.

Nor have the Southern whites received justice at our hands in the matter of working with negroes in politics. We talk as if all that they had to do to get the blacks to join them against the carpet-baggers was to shake hands with them and ask them for their votes. But the evidence is overwhelming that, however friendly the negroes may be with their old masters in all social relations, they profoundly distrust them politically. They will do anything for them but vote their ticket. This, too, is natural and logical, and was to have been expected. The negro would have been more than human if he had acted otherwise. We, however, have inveighed against the white man as if the negro fear of him was the result of a little misunderstanding which a few words could remove. In fact, we have made no allowance for the influence of slavery and the war on the blacks any more than on the whites, and are altogether angry that the problems given us to solve are not made up by Providence as we should like them.

There would be much to say, if we had space left us to-day, on the inherent difficulty of making up a working majority in a free State, composed of two races, in which the more gifted and highly-trained is inferior in numbers. It is a difficulty which has not as yet been overcome. We have absorbed negro minorities in our political organizations at the North, and States in which the whites are in a large majority are now successfully administered at the South; but the successful absorption of a white minority by a political organization mainly negro, will be something unprecedented. Those whites here who call for it so glibly, and look for it so confidently, would do well to consider the relations of the Irish Catholics at the North to the Republican party, from the bulk of whose members they are separated by a much fainter line of race, opinion, and traditions than that which at the South divides white and black. Thousands of Republican orators and writers have labored with them for twenty years, and have used every influence on them that eloquence, and kindness, and flattery can supply. How many converts have they made? How many Irish vote the Republican ticket? How many New England philanthropists, who are so angry over Southern failures, have a following of devoted and grateful Irishmen whom they lead to the polls, and who come to them for light on the dark questions of the day?

GUIZOT.

PARIS, September 26, 1874.

M. GUIZOT was born in Nismes, on the 4th of October, 1787. He was the son of a Protestant lawyer; and if there is a city in the world where the religious passions, even to this day, are very ardent, it is Nismes. The Protestants, till the end of the reign of Louis XVI., had no civil rights; a hideous legislation treated them like pariahs. Guizot was still a boy when the tide of reform began to swell; the Protestants recovered their civil rights, lost at the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. But the spirit of reform soon became the spirit of revolution. When Guizot was seven years old, his father, who, though he was a zealous Huguenot, was a royalist and a conservative, ascended the scaffold at Nismes three days after the victory of Robespierre over Danton. The whole life of the man who was to take such an important part in the affairs of his country received, so to speak, its color from these early memories. The same events which made him a man, a free man, a citizen, made him an orphan. He was born to be the representative of a constitutional monarchy, which had to find a new way between the traditions of the old régime and the necessities of a democratic time. A Protestant by birth, he could not but favor the cause of religious and civil liberty; but he had in him the proud and indomitable spirit of a Calvin, and was not disposed to abandon the guidance of human affairs to the turbulent passions of the multitude. If he had been born in England, he would easily have become the leader of the Tory party; his instincts were not illiberal, but they were eminently conservative. He seemed born for power; his noble attitude, his admirable eloquence, nervous and solid, the austerity of his life, marked him for the leadership of men.

His favorite study was history. He was educated in Geneva, under the eyes of a stern mother. How often have I admired the portrait of the poor widow, who had found an asylum in Switzerland during the close of the Revolution. This portrait was the principal ornament of M. Guizot's drawing-room; it had the place of honor; and the only pictures besides were a portrait of M. Guizot himself, by Delaroche, and a small Murillo which Queen Christine had presented to him after the Spanish marriages. She offered him a Spanish dukedom, which M. Guizot refused, and on his refusal sent him this charming little picture, representing an infant Christ. (Unhappily, at the beginning of the present year this small picture was no longer to be seen in M. Guizot's room; he was obliged to sell it at public auction; and a friend of his, Count Henri de Greffulhe, bought it for the generous price of 120,000 francs.) Madame Guizot bore a great likeness to her son, and he always confessed the great debt of gratitude which he owed to her; she formed his youthful soul, gave him grave and sedate habits, and inspired him with noble ambitions. She sent him to Paris to finish his studies. The young student was very poor, and spent most of his time in the public libraries; he entered as tutor the house of M. Stapfer, who was at the time Minister of Switzerland. In the house of M. Suard, a member of the French Academy, he made the acquaintance of Mademoiselle Pauline de Meulan, who was the editor of a literary newspaper called the *Publiciste*. Mademoiselle de Meulan fell ill, and, as she supported her family, became very uneasy, when she received an anonymous letter from a gentleman who offered to edit the paper during her illness, and gratuitously. This gentleman was M. Guizot, and Mlle. de Meulan some time afterwards became his wife.

He had left the house of M. Stapfer, and for a little while he had no other means of subsistence than his literary work. He published a 'Dictionary of Synonyms,' now well-nigh forgotten, 'Lives of the French Poets,' and various translations, among which was one of the works of Gibbon. M. de Fontanes, then grand-master of the French University, named him in 1812 professor of history at the Sorbonne. The Revolution had, so to speak, broken in two the history of France; all that belonged to the past was forgotten; the Jacobins had wiped away with a bloody sponge the work of centuries. This Revolution had not yet borne all its fruits, and the old national instincts were stifled for a while. The time had not yet come when a Tocqueville could show the secret relations of the ancient régime and of the society issued from the Revolution. M. Guizot's historical work was of a different sort; he abandoned completely the field of modern history; France was unwilling to look at herself in the glass of the eighteenth, of the seventeenth, even of the sixteenth century. M. Guizot plunged into the most distant periods; he studied an epoch in which the passions of men were completely different. The Legitimists as well as the Jacobins could take some interest in the history of the Gallo-Roman period, of the invasions of the Germans into France. This was quite a new field of research, as during the monarchical period the historians were chiefly occupied with the praise of the Capetians. The long labors of M. Guizot are concentrated in his admirable 'History of Civilization in France' and in his 'Essays on the History of France,' works equal in erudition, in exactitude, to the best books of the German school, and written with a majesty and a force which often remind the reader of Bossuet and of Montesquieu.

But a man of M. Guizot's stamp could not shut himself up completely in the past; he was not a mere book-worm. He took an interest in the present, and chose his party. He enrolled himself among the men whom Napoleon called the *idéologues*, recognized Royer-Collard for his chief, became an admirer of English institutions and of constitutional monarchy. The *idéologues*, whom Napoleon consigned to the land of dreams, became the moral leaders of the country after the fall of the Empire. They had found in Louis XVIII. a man who could play the part of a constitutional king; they were distrusted and somewhat despised by the old *émigrés*, the fathers of our modern *chevaux-légers*; but they had the knowledge, the talent, which is necessary to all parliamentary leaders. It is certainly to the

credit of Louis XVIII. that he made no objection to the appointment in 1814 of a Protestant professor of history to the under-secretaryship of the Home Office; his chief was the Abbé de Montesquieu. When Napoleon came suddenly back from the island of Elba, Guizot showed his gratitude and his political honesty in following Louis XVIII. to Ghent; with this fact he was often reproached by the orators and writers of the French Republican party. But M. Guizot was anxious to resist at Ghent the influence of the ultra-Legitimists, who tried to persuade the king that he must revoke the *Charte* and govern despotically. In the Chamber of 1815, M. Guizot enrolled himself in the ranks of the constitutional and liberal minority. He was for a little while under-secretary of Justice, but he left the cabinet at the same time as the Duc Decazes, when the murder of the Duc de Berry gave the signal for a violent reaction. During this period he published a book on 'Representative Government and the State of France,' another on 'Capital Punishment for Political Crimes,' a treatise on 'The Means of Opposition in the Actual State of France.' He never wrote newspaper articles, as all his leisure hours were spent on historical works. He edited the large 'Collection of Memoirs on the English Revolution' and his books on French history.

When Charles X. made the famous *ordonnances*, M. Guizot wrote the protest of the deputies against the violation of the *Charte*. He still hoped to avert a revolution; his address was firm and defiant. The struggle, however, ended in the streets of Paris; Charles X. lost his crown, and Louis Philippe was elected king. M. Guizot was a member of his first cabinet, but this cabinet was very short-lived, and the more advanced Liberals came to power under the administration of Laffitte. From that period the life of M. Guizot may be said to belong to history. If I have dwelt somewhat on the first and obscurer part of his career, it is because I am convinced that M. Guizot's character was really formed during that period. His was not an elastic nature; he was in 1847 what he had been at the beginning of the Restoration: a theoretical lover and admirer of the English Constitution and of monarchy; a Puritan, strongly imbued with the doctrine of the perversity of man, and little inclined to flatter the popular passions; an adversary of the Empire more than an enemy, having lived in the days of Waterloo, but having also seen the splendor of the Imperial era, and well knowing what the claims of genius and of glory are on an impulsive and imaginative people. M. Guizot almost courted unpopularity; he must have been almost happy when, amid the clamors of the men who reproached him with his journey to Ghent—at bay, as it were, before a mob of deputies in the Chamber, who threatened him on all sides—he answered them all in these haughty words: "Your insults will never reach the level of my contempt." He spoke harsh, stern truths, which were unpalatable to everybody; how much was he not reproached for these simple words: *Le travail est un frein*" (Work is a brake). He meant that labor is not only a necessity for man, but that it has a good influence in restraining his bad passions. To those who protested against the electoral census, he said that everybody was free to become an elector: "*Enrichissez-vous*" (Get richer), and this truism was denounced as the coarse expression of his political system. When he was taunted with the reproach of corruption constantly addressed to his government, he asked his electors, "*Vous sentez-vous corrompus?*" (Do you feel corrupted?) and this phrase also became almost proverbial. It seems very strange at a distance to remember that the deputies of Guizot's majority were called *les corrompus* by the people.

Guizot was so poor when he fell from power that when he fled to England he had absolutely no resources, and he was obliged to use for a while a credit which a friend opened for him in the London Bank. From the revolution of 1848 to the day of his death his labor was incessant; he would not re-enter, like M. Thiers, the political arena. He had been for ten years the first minister of a constitutional monarchy; with that monarchy he had fallen; it was not for him to mix in the small intrigues of the Chambers of 1849 and 1850, in the conspiracies which prepared the Empire, or to accept some reward from Napoleon III. He led the quiet and dignified life of an academician. "Laboremus" became his motto; he did not declare war against the Empire; he stood aloof, and on some occasions he condescended to give advice to M. de Morny, to M. Thouvenel, to M. Drouyn de Lhuys, who had once been under his orders in the diplomatic service, or under his leadership in the Chamber. He had no antipathy for the Emperor himself. He considered him a dreamer, a man led by a wrong conception of his own destiny. He had been for many years himself the champion of peace in Europe, and had sacrificed his popularity to what he considered the interests of France. He well knew what were the dispositions of Prussia and of Russia towards France, and he was perhaps too openly and too candidly the advocate of the English alliance. He had nothing to say when Lord Palmerston, who had been so embittered against Louis Philippe by the Spanish marriages, contracted a close alliance with Louis Napoleon, not in the interests of peace, but for warlike purposes. Guizot remained a silent and quiet witness of the momentous events which took place under the Second Empire. He foresaw that the war-system, which was a necessity for the new Government, could not always bring fresh victories to France. He was almost astonished to find that his unpopularity had changed into popularity; the students of the Latin Quarter bowed to him when they saw the venerable old man walking towards the Institute; young children asked their mothers who was this M. Guizot who wrote the history of France for his grandchildren, and were anxious to see this remarkable professor, who had once lectured to assemblies, kings, and ministers. There is so much egotism in the world that everybody in the end was forced to love a man who was no longer working for himself; his ambition, once so proud, was like a tree which has been uprooted, and can no longer bear flowers and fruits. His affections had been sadly wounded; he had lived long enough to see France bereft of her finest province, her glory humbled, the capitulation of Paris, the horrors of the Commune; he had a right to ask those who had made the revolution of 1848: "Where have you brought France?" He said nothing; he felt even deeper wounds: he lost a beloved daughter a few months ago, one who had been his constant companion, his secretary, his assistant. Still he remained strong and firm, and the last time I saw him there was as much fire in his eyes as in the days when he faced his enemies, and poured forth his eloquent sarcasms. "An emperor must die erect." Guizot died like that Roman emperor, and he fell like a verdant tree struck by an axe.

Correspondence.

CENTRALIZATION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your issue of September 17, after commenting upon the manifest unconstitutionality of the proposed "Civil Rights Bill," you add in connection the following remarks:

"In other words, if the bill is constitutional, there is nothing that we can see to prevent Congress, on the ground of *protecting* the 'privileges and immunities' of citizens against invasion by the States, from passing a law bringing all common-law rights within the scope of a single statute and declaring that any one, white, black, or yellow, who suffers any wrong anywhere at the hands of any other person, white, black, or yellow, may treat it as a criminal offence against the United States, and have the offender fined and sent to jail for it."

You will note that I italicize the word "protecting" in the foregoing. Now, what I wish to call attention to here is that this proposition—which in ante-war days needed but to be stated to prove its absurdity—is not only comprehended in the proposed "civil-rights" legislation, as you have justly stated, but is also boldly advanced by the leaders of the Republican party as to-day constituted, and I believe is seriously maintained by a large proportion of the intelligent opinion in that party as a correct statement of the relations of the States to the National Government since the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment.

To my mind, the enactment of the "Ku-klux" law and its enforcement since abundantly prove this. But the most significant expression of opinion on this subject of late is to be seen in the remarks of Speaker Blaine on the 24th ult. at Cleveland, in response to a serenade. He said:

"I beg to say that in all the disturbed and distracted Southern States there would be peace to-day if the Democratic party willed it so. Why, the Democratic party of the State of New York has just announced a *new creed* . . . and the very central figure, the Alpha and Omega, of that creed is announced in that article which claims, as they term it, home-rule—'hands off' . . . Upon that doctrine, here and now and everywhere, the *Republican party takes issue, and declares* that a citizen of the United States, of high or low degree, rich or poor, black or white, native or adopted, must be *protected by the Government of the United States* wherever and whenever the local authority is *incompetent* or unwilling *to protect* him. . . . Gentlemen, it goes to the very root and marrow of the rights of citizenship, and unless *you and I* are able to *protect* the meanest, the poorest, and the lowest citizen of the United States, your safety and mine are not guaranteed."

He proceeds further to enforce his argument by the analogy of the duty and right of the General Government to enforce the rights of its citizens abroad, thus ignoring any distinction between the relation which Americans sustain to the National Government when resident within the States and when in foreign countries.

If a more complete destruction of the original theory of our governmental system could be framed than is found in the quotation above, I should be much surprised. It only shows how utterly changed are the conceptions of the men who control public affairs in the present generation, concerning the nature and functions of our National Government, from those which obtained from the establishment of the Constitution to the days of "reconstruction."

Further comment is unnecessary, but who shall say that "Cæsarism" is but a fool's cry when the *empire* is already crystallizing around him?

A. R. C. S.

New York, October 7, 1874.

Notes.

WE are desired to state that the specially imported edition of the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám, to which we alluded the other day, has been placed on sale with Noyes, Holmes & Co., Boston, and with C. W. Sever, Cambridge. It is the third edition (1872), and not the second (1868), as we erroneously reported it. The price at either of the above bookstores is $1 60; by mail, $1 70.——It is generally supposed that the last thing has been said on Horace, or, at any rate, that the manuscripts have been so thoroughly looked up and collated that little more can be done except in the way of interpretation or emendation. But we learn by private source from Germany that Professor Otto Keller, of the University of Freiburg, well known from his critical edition of Horace ('Opera,' recensuerunt O. Keller et A. Holder, Leipzig, 1864 and 1869), has been so fortunate lately as to discover in the Vatican a very important manuscript, of which he has made a careful collation. Since the publication of his text Professor Keller has collected a great deal of material on this author, particularly for the Odes and Epodes. It is to be hoped that he may soon publish the results of his investigations in the form of a dissertation, or, what would be better still and more accessible to American readers, in a new edition of his valuable work.——D. Appleton & Co.'s fall announcements embrace a 'History of the Conflict between Religion and Science,' by Dr. John William Draper; 'The Native Races of the Pacific States of North America,' in five volumes by H. H. Bancroft, whose unequalled library has been collected with special reference to this work; a 'School History of Germany,' by Bayard Taylor; and (published by subscription) a 'Life of Samuel F. B. Morse,' by S. Irenæus Prime, and 'Personal Reminiscences, Anecdotes, and Letters of General Robert E. Lee,' by Rev. J. Wm. Jones, D.D. The same house will reprint from foreign originals Marey's 'Animal Mechanism'; Quatrefages' 'Natural History of Man,' translated by Miss Youmans; Ribot's 'Heredity'; Paul Lacroix's 'Military and Religious Life in the Middle Ages'; Franz Keller's 'Amazon and Madeira Rivers'; 'The Theology of the English Poets,' by Rev. Stopford A. Brooke; and the 'Life and Unpublished Works of Samuel Lover,' by Boyle Bernard.——'The Stately Homes of England,' by Llewellyn Jewitt and S. C. Hall, is announced by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia.——Macmillan & Co.'s list includes, besides many others, the following works of interest: Baron Hübner's 'Ramble Round the World,' of which the American portion has been found so amusing; 'The *Challenger* Expedition, 1873–4,' by C. Wyville Thomson; 'Russia and the Central Asian Question,' by Ashton Dilke; 'History of the English People,' by Rev. J. R. Green; 'Scandinavian History,' by Elise Otté; Michelet's 'History of the Nineteenth Century,' brought down to the present time; 'History of Greece,' connecting the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, by W. Watkyss Lloyd; 'Social Greece,' by P. J. Mahaffy; 'History of the Drama,' by Prof. A. W. Ward, of Owens College, Manchester; 'Catholic Reform,' by Father Hyacinthe, translated by his wife; 'Tales in Political Economy,' by Mrs. Fawcett; 'Chatterton, and Other Essays,' and 'The Three Devils, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Masson; 'Michael Angelo,' by C. C. Black, with illustrations; and a new edition of White of Selborne, with profuse illustrations, edited for the natural-history portion by Frank Buckland, and having a chapter added on the antiquities by Lord Selborne.——E. P. Dutton & Co. will receive subscriptions, at $5 per copy, to Dr. William Stevens Perry's republication of Bishop White's 'Memoirs of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States.' The original Narrative and the Additional Statements and Remarks of Bishop White will be incorporated together for the first time, and the history will be continued to the present date in a mere chronicle of facts "without the intrusion of inferences or opinions." The appendices and the notes will be full and valuable.——The Western Union Telegraph Company have issued their first Directory, which must prove of great convenience to the public. It gives all the telegraphic stations in the country owned or reached by the Company; the rate to each, calculated from New York; maps of the telegraphic network; and clear and explicit instructions about sending messages. The public may not be generally aware of the opportunity of making money payments by telegraph, at a very reasonable rate, which the Company affords. The money-order offices now number 815, and are duly indicated in this Directory.

—The *American Naturalist* for October is a weighty number, of 64 pages, filled with such excellent matter as the following: Prof. Mayer, of Hoboken, on the auditory apparatus of the mosquito, reprinted, with a few corrections, by the author, from *Silliman's Journal*. Very curious it is to know that the male mosquito hears the hum that delights him, while it torments us, through the vibration it causes in the plumes of his antennæ set in unison to this note, and recognizes the direction from which it comes by the difference in the co-vibration of the two antennæ; and most interesting are the acoustical experiments by which Prof. Mayer may be said to have demonstrated this. "The Gossamer Spider," by Dr. Lincecum, of Texas, is one of those readable articles which even a child can understand and must be delighted with, while the oldest of us may ponder these striking instances of what we are pleased to call instinct, and so rest satisfied. Here is an admirable description not only of the way in which this Texan spider contrives to throw its web across from tree to tree, just out of reach of roaming cattle, yet low enough to capture accompanying flies, but also of the building of the gossamer balloons, with their steadying bow-lines, in which sails away to parts unknown the mother spider, with a cluster of young ones on her breast, or rather *thorax*, to speak with literal as well as technical correctness. Dr. Coues's "Nesting of Certain Hawks" is plain reading. Dr. Weissman's account of the "Metamorphosis of Flies," translated from a German work, is solid science; and the same will surely be said of Prof. Lovering's Hartford address, which, although a "Section A" matter, finds place here by prescription. Then there is a review of Jevons's 'Principles of Science,' with a long extract of what a logician has to say (and says well) upon the theory of evolution. Surely here is money's worth; and we trust there are readers enough to appreciate this bountiful provision of good things. Most creditable it is to the editors. But could they not contrive to do something more than most of this for the youthful mind? There is a wide field which we long to have them occupy, which now and then they do alight upon, but oftener soar high above.

—During a year past there has been going on in Europe and in America (in silence, lest it come to the knowledge of the party most nearly concerned) a collection for a "Curtius Foundation," to commemorate the eminent services to philology of Georg Curtius, now Professor at Leipzig, on occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his professorship. In their circular, the American Committee say:

"The name of Georg Curtius is well known and highly esteemed in this country; his books are in the hands of almost all American students of philology, who appreciate their value; and even those who do not use them directly derive (often, doubtless, more than they realize it) important benefit from them. No living man has done so much to work the results of comparative philology into the practical teaching and study of the classical languages, especially of Greek; to further the historical and scientific treatment of Greek and Latin grammar and lexicography. He is the clearest of expositors and the soundest of reasoners and critics: for command of facts, for their careful sifting and thorough examination, for calm and sober judgment, and for caution and close logic in the drawing of conclusions, he is equally eminent; no man's opinion carries such weight of authority with those who know him. His great moderation has led to his being looked upon among comparative philologists as a conservative; while, on the other hand, his innovations upon the old-established methods of the exclusively classical school have drawn upon him some reproach and opposition on the part of the ultra-conservatives. In the controversies in which he has been involved, he has distinguished himself not less by candor and courtesy toward his opponents than by ability. A testimonial to Georg Curtius is, therefore, at the same time an encouragement and aid to the direction of scholarship in which he labors; and it should be freely offered from every part of the great field, as wide as the world of learning, where his influence has been felt."

The income of the Foundation is to be expended in prizes and in stipends to deserving scholars in the departments of study especially represented by Curtius. There has been received from scholars in this country (representing sixteen States) something less than $400, and the Committee mean, if possible, to raise the amount to $500. Contributions may be sent to Professors Whitney, of New Haven; Van Benschoten, of Middletown, Conn.; Allen, of Cambridge, Mass.; Seymour, of Hudson, Ohio; or Garnett, of Annapolis, Md.

—The Bureau of Education has issued a circular (No. 2, 1874) containing much valuable information with regard to drawing in the public schools, and the present condition of art-education in the United States. General industrial art-education in this country may be said to have begun in 1870, by the passage of a law by the State of Massachusetts making drawing a required study in the public schools, and providing that any city or town might, and every city or town having more than ten thousand inhabitants should, "annually make provision for giving free instruction in industrial or mechanical drawing to persons over fifteen years of age, either in day or evening schools, under the direction of the School Committee"; and at the same time Mr. Walter Smith, "Art-master, London, late head-master of the Leeds School of Art and Science and Training-school for Art-teachers," was invited by the State of Massachusetts and the city of Boston to come to

this country and undertake the task of setting popular art-education in motion. The progress made in four years cannot be very great, particularly when we consider the fact stated by Mr. Smith, in a letter to the Bureau, that on his arrival the first thing he "discovered with certainty was that qualified teachers of drawing did not exist" in the United States. He therefore applied his energies in great measure to getting an act from the legislature establishing a State Normal Art-school, and this he succeeded in obtaining in 1873. He at once received over two hundred applications for admission, and he thinks that "with proper conveniences" such a school could open with five hundred. Mr. Smith adds: "I have on my desk applications from many colleges and universities in several States for accomplished teachers of art. I do not know one. It will take us four years to make one, and then we may make perhaps from ten to twenty. I wish that America could have, as every European country has, an industrial art-school, which should by its graduates affect the value and beauty of every branch of industry." As a further evidence of the popular interest in the subject, the fact is mentioned that the lessons given by Mr. Smith and his assistants in 1872 were attended by five hundred city school-teachers, and in 1873 by six hundred and twenty. The object of this movement is, of course, to give America skilled artisans. The bitter opposition of the trades-unions to the training of the young, and the complete abandonment of the old system of apprenticeship, render the public schools the only foot-hold for industrial art-reform; and, notwithstanding the difficulties, there is good reason to believe that in twenty years we may attain very valuable results. We need only refer to the history of the English experiments to prove it: At the Exhibition of 1851 England, in respect to her art-manufactures, stood almost at the bottom of the list. Of the great nations, the United States alone stood below her. The consequence was the establishment of schools of art in every large town. In 1867, at the Paris Exposition, England stood as near the top of the list as she had sixteen years before near the bottom. This was the result simply of hard work which may be imitated here; no one has ever maintained that either branch of the Anglo-Saxon race is by genius artistic.

—The *Athenæum* quotes the following verses from 'A Choice Collection of Poetry, most carefully collected from Original Manuscripts,' published at York, in 1738, by Joseph Yarrow, comedian:

> "*On* Ben Johnson's Bust, *with the Buttons on the Wrong Side.*'
> O Rare *Ben Johnson!* what a Turn-coat grown?
> Thou ne'er wore such 'till thou was clad in Stone;
> When Time thy Coat, thy only Coat impairs,
> Thou'lt find a Patron in an Hundred Years;
> Let not then this Mistake disturb thy Sp'rit,
> Another Age shall set thy Buttons right.

The *Athenæum* seems to imply that the bust referred to is in Westminster Abbey. We cannot at this moment lay our hands upon an authentic representation of it, but we presume that, whether or not it be the bust intended, the "wrong side" for the buttons in the epigrammatist's views was the *left* side. In other words, the fashion of his day, for men's garments at least, agreed with the fashion which still prevails. The question cannot easily be settled from engraved portraits, in which it is so easy to reverse the original; but the custom of having the buttons on the right side of the coat would appear to have been the rule from a very early period. In Lodge's Portraits, indeed, which date from 1502, and which number 240, we have found not a solitary exception to the rule, except in the case of Walter Scott, whose coat-buttons are on the left side, while his vest-buttons are on the right; though in Wilkie's painting of the Abbotsford Family, the novelist appears consistent with himself and with the fashion. In Woodbury's 'Gallery of Rare Portraits' (London, 1805), the rule of the right side is maintained three to one. The French fashion appears less settled. In the 'Iconographie Fran çaise' of Madame Depech, published in Louis Philippe's reign, and containing historical portraits of the sixteenth century and downwards, we have found sixteen unmistakable examples of buttons on the left side against thirty-five on the right; but the rule still holds. In the case of women, since buttons began to supersede hooks and eyes, the opposite practice has obtained. If we are not mistaken, Paris dresses have the buttons on the left side, and so have those which in this country are made in New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, etc. Boston ladies (or their dressmakers) alone, so far as we know, insist on buttoning from left to right like the gentlemen. We leave it for some one of our social philosophers to trace the connection between this singularity and the masculine qualities commonly ascribed to the intellectual women of the Modern Athens.

—The rather drearily accumulating volume of woman-suffrage literature has recently been enlivened by two essays on the subject by Mr. Goldwin Smith and Prof. J. E. Cairnes, the economist. Mr. Smith is a convert to the opposition, and in his articles has adduced many reasons for his change of faith on what "many Liberals regard as amongst the most important of pending reforms," which fill true believers with painful surprise. Mr. Cairnes is an acute dialectician, and often appears to get the better of Mr. Smith at a good many points; that is to say, he convicts him of a want of careful consideration of his logical grounds, and, perhaps we ought to say, of a want of care in the statement of them. We do not see, however, that Mr. Cairnes breaks down any important position taken by Mr. Smith; and there is one point, and a very important one too, in which he appears to be very confused. Mr. Smith having enumerated several well-known instances of excess and extravagance in public matters among the ladies of that class described in one of the Beecher-Tilton documents as "public women," Mr. Cairnes replies that this has nothing to do with the question; that these excesses do not show what the effect of woman suffrage would be upon woman, because suffrage is not yet permitted women in the United States, and he seems to be of the opinion that the kind of argument is itself fallacious; that we ought to ask ourselves not what is the character, intellectual and moral, of the leaders of the woman-suffrage agitation, but whether there is justice and equity and truth at the bottom of their movement. But the difficulty is that woman suffrage is not a "truth"; it is a demand for more power on the part of a particular class in the community. If woman suffrage were like some maxim in political economy, it might be discussed without any reference to persons; but being a demand for power, the first question the community to which it is addressed asks itself is this: What use would be made of the power if we gave it?—and the only way of deciding this, so far as we know, is by examining what use "public" women make of the power or influence they actually have, and what sort of people it makes of them. In a recent article by a leader of the movement in England, we find, for instance, that her study of the question has led her to the conclusion that what is now needed by man is an infusion of the maternal instinct and a greater fondness for taking care of babies. The world at large cannot help regarding with amusement the idea of people of her turn of mind undertaking to help govern them.

—We have received from B. Westermann & Co., of this city, agents for the United States, the first number of the twelfth edition of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon.' The brochure consists of eighty pages (*A—Abhärtung*), and is sold for twenty cents. There will be 180 like it, making fifteen volumes, at a total cost of $36, or $48 75 if bound. It will be idle to look for any cheaper encyclopædia than this, if only the mere equivalent in paper and presswork is regarded. That the high reputation of this work, however, for learning and accuracy is to be fully maintained, there is no room for doubt. An imposing first-list of contributors is published, from which we select a few of the more prominent names. The United States will be entrusted to Dr. Brachvogel, of this city, and to Dr. Friedrich Kapp; the English Constitution to Prof. Gneist, of Berlin; Italy, to Prof. De Gubernatis; Hungary, to Dr. Paul Hunfalvy; Egypt, to Lepsius. Prof. Bartsch will treat not only of the Provençal Literature, but also of the German Literature of the Middle Ages; Dr. Schwabe, not only of the Topography and History of Berlin, but also of the Woman Question. Still other topics have been assigned as follows: Prisons, Dr. Von Holtzendorff; Railroads, Dr. Koch, of Leipzig; Cholera, Prof. Pettenkofer, of Munich; Photography, Prof. H. Vogel; Mineralogy, Prof. Zirkel; Anthropology, Prof. Welcker, of Halle; Zoölogic Sciences, Prof. Karl Vogt; Philology, Prof. R. von Raumer, of Erlangen; Chess, Dr. Lange, of Leipzig, etc., etc. To enumerate all the specialists engaged would require far too much space. The illustrations to this encyclopædia will be furnished separately in an atlas, in twenty parts, any or all of which may be had at the subscriber's option, of course by a payment additional to that for the text.

—The *Russische Revue* contains in its first or January number a very interesting notice by Dr. A. Harkavy of a collection of Samaritan MSS. which the Imperial Library of St. Petersburg purchased in 1870 from a Karaite traveller and antiquarian, Abraham Firkovitch. The collection had been obtained by him during a residence in Nablous and Egypt from the cellars and attics of synagogues. The several pieces are almost wholly fragments, and are more or less injured, as one would expect them to be considering the places from which they were recovered; but they are very remarkable for their number and variety, and are in some points valuable and often unique. Thus, there are in the collection fragments of twenty-seven rolls of the Samaritan Pentateuch on parchment. Rolls of this Pentateuch have hitherto been unknown in Europe, as, being designed for use in the synagogue, they were considered specially holy, and were never sold to persons not of the faith. All MSS. of the Samaritan Pentateuch previously described have been codices, in book form. Besides these, there are about 6,000 parchment and paper leaves of different fragments of these codices, several fragments of commentaries, liturgical books, calendars and astronomical works, grammatical and lexical treatises, and, strange thing to mention among the treasures of a

library, a quantity of marriage contracts. Only three of the rolls are dated, the oldest belonging to the year 1202–3, but among the codices are the oldest Samaritan MSS. that have been so far made known, the earliest of them being dated 1175–6, and some, the describer, judging them by their appearance and style, thinks may belong to the tenth and eleventh centuries, if they are not to be dated still earlier. Their proper date, however, in the uncertainty at present attending Samaritan palæography, cannot be determined with any precision; but the collection affords a richer field for the study of that palæography than can be found anywhere else. Other interesting points in the collection are that it contains several fragments of the Samaritan Targum likely to be of use in the restoration of that document, which scholars have often attempted. Other fragments are Hebrew-Arabic dictionaries, or concordances, to the Pentateuch; the only example of such a work that has been known previously is in the Paris *Bibliothèque Nationale*, and wants A and B and half of G: these omissions may now be supplied. The liturgical fragments, composed in part in Arabic, are valuable in a lexical way as adding to our knowledge of the Aramæan, and especially of the Samaritan idiom. The marriage contracts, also in Arabic, about seventy in number, have a like value, as each contains a festive hymn composed expressly for the particular occasion, and includes the names of the contracting parties—serviceable documents in forming a Semitic onomasticon. The fragments show further a large number of various readings to the Pentateuch unknown to Kennicott, de Rossi, and other critics. Dr. Harkavy thinks these may be of great interest. A few of them he has introduced into the first part of the catalogue of the collection already published; the remainder he intends to publish in a special treatise.

THE OLD REGIME IN CANADA.*

CANADA, though it is a large corner of the world, is a small corner of history; but such as it is, Mr. Parkman has made it his own province. He has just added another volume to the series of deeply-interesting chronicles in which he has been tracing, for the last ten years, the more distinctively heroic element in American history. Looking at the matter superficially, we need to make a certain effort to interest ourselves in the Canadian past. It is hard not to imagine its records to be as bleak and arid and provincial as the aspects of nature and of society in this frigid colony, and we instinctively transpose the climate into a moral key, and think of human emotion there as having been always rather numb and unproductive. Canadian history is, moreover, meagre in quantity; it deals with small enterprises, small numbers, small names, names at least which have not become household words nearly as often as they deserved to do. And then it swarms with savages, and the Iroquois and the Mohawk are essentially monotonous and unhistorical. But to Mr. Parkman belongs the credit of having perceived the capacities of all this unpromising material, and felt that if his work must be a slender chronicle of events separated from the main current of modern civilization, in the quality of its interest, at least, it would be second to none. It is the history of an heroic undertaking, and the heroism pervades the most obscure details. The men and women by whose help the settlement of Canada was effected offer an exhibition of conduct which needed nothing but a stage placed a little more in the foreground of human affairs to have become a familiar lesson in morals. It is hard to see in what element of grandeur such an incident as the resistance of Adam Daulac, with his seventeen Frenchmen and his forty Hurons, related by Mr. Parkman in his present volume, is inferior to the struggle of Leonidas and his Greeks at Thermopylæ. And yet while all the world, for two thousand years, has heard of Leonidas, who until now had heard of Adam Daulac? He made a stand for a week against a thousand Iroquois whom he had gone forth with sublime temerity to chastise, and died fighting hard and hacked to pieces, with history to close about him as duskily as the Northern forests that witnessed his struggle. Of course Greece depended on Leonidas, and only Quebec on poor Daulac, but we cannot but feel nevertheless that fame in this world is rather capriciously apportioned. In the same chapter which narrates Daulac's crusade, Mr. Parkman prints a short letter of the time, which seems to us worth quoting. It was written by a lad of eighteen, François Hertel by name, who had been captured by the Mohawks:

"My most Dear and Honored Mother: I know very well that my capture must have distressed you very much. I ask you to forgive my disobedience. It is my sins that have placed me where I am. I owe my life to your prayers and those of M. de Saint-Quentin and of my sisters. I hope to see you again before winter. I pray you to tell the good brethren of Notre Dame to pray to God and the Holy Virgin for me, my dear mother, and for you and all my sisters.—Your poor Fanchon."

With this had been sent another letter to a friend, to whom he confides that his right hand has been burned, and the thumb of the other one chopped off by the Mohawks. He begs, however, his mother may not hear of it. Poor Fanchon's sad little note seems therefore an epitome of the early Canadian character at its best. Stout endurance and orthodox Catholicism form the simple sum of it, and the note of devout manliness, as this young adventurer strikes it, is heard as distinctly through two centuries as if it had been sounded but yesterday. Whether François Hertel kept his devotion to the end we are unable to say, but he never lost his pluck. Thirty years afterwards he led a raid into New England, and indeed it is probable that the writer of the foregoing lines hated the Massachusetts colonists no less heartily as heretics than as rivals. Rugged courage, active and passive alike, is the constant savor of Mr. Parkman's subject, and it has at last very much the effect of giving his work the air (minus the dryness) of a stoical treatise on morals. It is as wholesome as Epictetus, and, as a proof of what may be achieved by the rigid human will, it is extremely inspiring. Such works make one think better of mankind, and we can imagine, in this age of cultivated sensibility, no better reading for generous boys and girls. Mr. Parkman has been himself inspired by his theme—as during much of his labor, amid the interruptions of failing eye-sight and ill-health, he has well needed to be. He treats his subject as one who knows it in a personal as well as in a literary way, and is evidently no less at home among the Northern woods and lakes than among the archives of the French Marine. His descriptive touches are never vague and rhetorical (except once, perhaps, where he speaks of the "gorgeous euthanasia of the dying season"); they make definite, characteristic pictures. His Jesuits and trappers are excellent, but his Indians are even better, and he has plainly ventured to look at the squalid savage *de près* and for himself. His style is a capital narrative style, and though abundantly vivid, resists the modern temptation to be picturesque at any cost. Material for his task is indeed apparently so plentiful that he is spared the necessity for that familiarly conjectural discourse on the unknown and unknowable which marks the latest school of historians. He is, moreover, a very sufficient philosopher, and competent at all points to read the political lesson of his story. We have been especially struck with his fairness. He is an incorruptible Protestant, dealing with an intensely Catholic theme, but he appears wholly free from any disposition to serve his personages' narrow measure, or bear more heavily on their foibles than his facts exactly warrant. He can hardly expect to have fully pleased Catholic readers, but he must have displeased them singularly little. Never, it must be added, was there a case in which Catholicism could so easily afford to be judged on its own strict merits as in this early history of Canada.

With his present volume Mr. Parkman has brought his narrative well on towards its climax, and in no portion of it has the need to read the political lesson been more urgent. We have here related the fortunes of the infant colony from the time Louis XIV. took it paternally by the hand until his decline and death left it again to do battle unaided with its native wilderness. They form a very curious and, in some aspects, an almost comical history. It would be difficult to find a more pregnant and convenient example of the vicious side of the great French virtue—the passion for administration. The example is the more striking, as Mr. Parkman forcibly points out, that we see it contrasted with an equally eminent embodiment of the great English virtue—the faculty of shifting for one's self. How extremely artificial a creation was French Canada, how it was nursed and coddled and bribed and caressed; by what innumerable devices it was enticed and encouraged into a certain prosperity, and propped and legislated into a certain stability; how everything came to it from without, and as time went on, and security was established, and the need for the more acutely heroic virtues declined, nothing from within; how it was a fancy of Colbert's and a hobby of the king's, and how it languished when they passed away—all this is unfolded by Mr. Parkman with superabundance of illustration. It was a sort of luxury of the king's conscience, and one of the trappings of his grandeur, and it offers the oddest combination of the Versailles view of things and the hard reality of things themselves. It has become the fashion to smile a good deal at the so-called greatness of Louis XIV., and there is no doubt that, when tapped by the impudent knuckle of modern criticism, much of it rings very hollow. French Canada was hollow enough, and yet it bears in a manner the stamp of a brilliant period. There was greatness in the idea of establishing a purely religious colony for the glory of God and the most Christian king—a disinterested focus of conversion for hordes of thankless savages. The way chosen was sadly erratic, but the error was of a splendid kind. The king's generosity was boundless, and Mr. Parkman says that no application for money was ever refused. Applications were incessant; the colonists never dreamed of doing anything without a premium from the home Government. Mr. Parkman gives us a minute and entertaining picture of Canadian manners and morals while the royal bounty was at its

* 'The Old Régime in Canada. By Francis Parkman.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1874.

height. The most general impression we derive from it is that human nature under the old régime was made of stouter stuff than now. French society, at Quebec and Montreal, adapted itself to its new circumstances with a pliancy for which we should now look in vain, and exhibited, for a time at least, a talent for emigration which has quite passed out of its character. Life, for the poorer sort, was hard enough at home, but they could make easier terms with it than with the Canadian cold and the Indians. The poverty was horrible, and even the colonial gentry, which became extremely numerous, lived in almost abject destitution. Existence was a hand-to-hand fight with the wilderness, with the climate, with the Iroquois, and with native jealousies and treacheries. Ships arrived from France but once a year, and were usually laden with disease. They brought the king's instructions, and the primitive little machine was wound up again, and set running for another twelvemonth. There was only one industry—the traffic in beaver skins—and, as every one followed it, the market was glutted, and the furriers, who were compelled by the Government to buy the skins whether or no, became bankrupt. Over all this hovered the rigid rule of the priests, enforcing, in intention, as grim a Puritanism as that which prevailed in Massachusetts. The Jesuits were the guiding spirits of early Canadian civilization, and they had no disposition to be dislodged from the field. We noticed in these pages the really thrilling volume in which a few years since Mr. Parkman commemorated their early explorations and sufferings, and it must be confessed that they had a certain right to an authority which they had purchased with their heroism and their blood. But they governed as priests govern, irritatingly and meddlingly, and, as if ice and Indians between them might not have been trusted to impart a wholesome severity to life, they urged war against such meagre forms of luxury as had straggled across the sea, and prohibited all consolations but those of religion. The natural result was that the hardier spirits of the colony broke loose from their rule, rambled away to the woods, and, finding tipsy Indians more congenial company than super-sober Jesuits, founded the picturesque tradition of the Canadian *coureur de bois*. One of the priestly rulers of Quebec, the Vicar-General Laval, forms in Mr. Parkman's pages an impressive and interesting figure. He was an ascetic of the rigorous mediæval pattern, but, with all his personal sanctity, he relished vastly having his own way, and he held his power against all intruders. The author gives a copious account of his squabbles with the bishops (of Quebec) on one side, and the king's governors and intendants on the other. It is a report, for all who are curious, of the current politics of Quebec. Mr. Parkman justly remarks that it is singular that none of the Canadian worthies, male or female, should have been deemed worthy of canonization. There were plenty of thorough-going saints among them, and the Sisters of Charity were not less devoted and courageous than the Jesuit brothers. There was a certain Jeanne Le Ber, in especial, who as a picturesque anchorite of questionable sanity leaves nothing to be desired. She lived for twenty years in a narrow cell behind the altar of a church at Quebec, in such an odor of sanctity that, during a time of apprehension of an attack from the English, a storm which overtook and destroyed their ships was attributed to the virtue of her prayers. That such a name as this, and as many another among the missionary brothers who braved the scalping-knife and the death-torture, should be wanting on the Romish calendar of saints, is a sort of crushing proof of the predestined provincialism of Canada—of its being out of the great world, out of the current. Nearer headquarters, in bright, warm Italy, people were canonized on easier terms. In this frigid atmosphere, however, where virtue was to miss even that ultimate reward with the thought of which it consoles itself for present hardship, men and women not only assembled in numbers, but increased and multiplied and prospered and grew strong. It was a capital illustration of the law of the survival of the fittest. The weaklings perished, but the stronger grew magnificently tough. The climate, strange to say, was especially friendly to women, and the mothers of Canada had enormous families. The king set every imaginable premium upon breeding, and the most curious pages in Mr. Parkman's volume describe his ingenious attempts to stimulate it. Not only were early marriages generously rewarded, but bachelors were made thoroughly uncomfortable, and had finally either to marry in self-defence or to buy themselves off from persecution. Marriageable young women were shipped in even excessive numbers from France, and stepped off the vessel into the arms of a husband. They appreciated their market, and their alacrity had to be checked. "Not quite so many demoiselles," the governor wrote to the emigration agent at home. "Instead of the four I asked you for last year, you sent me fifteen." This odd combination of celibate priests and nuns and excessively prolific citizens gives us a rough measure of the something artificial and anomalous in the history of New France. Mr. Parkman is to trace his subject further, and although his concluding volume will lack the interest peculiar to his 'Jesuits' and to the early chapters of the present one, it will deal, in the collapse of the French power, with an abundantly dramatic episode, and, in Wolfe and Montcalm, with figures as heroic as any he has sketched.

THE "CONSERVATISM" OF BURKE.*

"IN order to gain a just idea of the opinions to which Burke adhered so tenaciously, the student is advised to set out with the idea that Burke was always what would now be called a Conservative. Party distinctions are of so perishable a nature, that unless we can fix on something belonging to our own times and 'coming home to our business and bosoms,' we are in danger of becoming the victims of words. But it must be expressly understood that there is no identification of the term with the attitude or principles of any present political party. By conservatism is meant that preference for and indulgence to what is already established, that faith in what has been tried and that distrust of what exists only in speculation, which never wholly forsakes every sound politician of whatever party." These sentences contain the gist of the ingenious though not satisfactory essay which Mr. Payne has prefixed to his meritorious and useful edition of Burke's select works. They contain a piece of true and valuable criticism, which nevertheless is likely to be misunderstood. They at once suggest the enquiry, What is the nature and the permanent worth of the sort of conservatism which can be with truth ascribed to a statesman, the greater part of whose life was spent in vehement conflict with the prejudices of what Mr. Mill would have termed the "stupid party"? The answer to such an enquiry throws light not only on the position of Burke, but on some of the problems of modern politics since Burke; for there still exists, in this country no less than in England, an influence which though often undetected is perhaps as great as the power which he exercised during his lifetime.

The conservatism of Burke cannot, it is manifest, be identified with the watchwords of any modern party. The questions with which he was concerned have been decisively settled since his death. No politician need now consider the merits or demerits of Catholic emancipation, the attitude which England ought to adopt in the face of the propagandism of a regicide Republic, or the expediency of allowing Massachusetts to escape from imperial taxation. The problems on the other hand which tax the ingenuity of English or American statesmen are puzzles the very terms of which were unknown to Burke. It is moreover specially futile to attempt to enlist the authority of his name on the side of modern conservatives or of modern liberals, for, though his works abound with general principles, it was his deliberate habit never to enunciate general propositions except with reference to existing cases. It is this peculiarity which, beyond any other characteristic, perplexes his critics. Each of them takes hold of a certain number of general propositions to be found in Burke's speeches or writings. Each of them hopes from these propositions to construct a system of politics. Their efforts end in failure, because each of them has neglected to observe that Burke's generalizations are never meant for philosophic axioms, but must be understood with reference to the matter which at the moment engaged his attention. "A modification," he says, "is the constant recourse of weak and undeciding minds." Here is a maxim inculcating the sternest adherence to fixed principles, but if the reader turns to another speech he finds a splendid defence of the system of compromise summed up in the assertion that all "government, indeed, every human benefit and enjoyment, every virtue and every prudent act, is founded on compromise and barter." The "Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents" has been read by thousands as an exhaustive essay on the theory of party government. In fact, it was a party-pamphlet written for an immediate purpose, curtailed, revised, and modified to suit the exigencies of Lord Rockingham and his followers. Burke can never be understood unless he be read with a constant regard to the circumstances under which he wrote or spoke. To quote his authority in favor of measures never submitted to his consideration is utterly to ignore the nature of his genius and to lose the benefit of his teaching. His conservatism is not a mass of rules, but a spirit. His influence is due to the fact that he embodies in the most brilliant language a mode of looking at politics which will always exert deserved weight in every civilized community. Burke and men like him see how very slow is the progress made by mankind. They consider that any tolerable condition of society represents an advance made with great difficulty; that the great problem of politics is first to preserve the benefits which have been gained by the efforts of previous generations, and next, cautiously and slowly, so to improve existing institutions as to make some advance without losing any of the advantages already attained. Hence Burke, though ready to amend existing arrangements, was always intensely averse to revolutionary proceedings. No man

* 'Burke's Select Works, edited, with introduction and notes, by E. J. Payne, B.A., Fellow of University College.' Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.

"examines into the defects of his title to his paternal estate or to his established government." "The whole building stands well enough, though part Gothic, part Grecian, and part Chinese, until an attempt is made to square it into uniformity. Then, indeed, it may come down upon our heads altogether in much uniformity of ruin, and great will be the fall thereof." These are not sentiments inspired by dread of the Revolution. The one was uttered in 1777, the other in 1769. This view, as Mr. Payne points out, was a convenient theory for the Whig oligarchy and for their apologist, but it represented Burke's most fundamental convictions, for his practical view of politics was based on a distinct theory.

Politics were in his judgment an art, not a science. There were, he held, no ascertained axioms from which, as from fixed principles, you could deduce the rules of political conduct. Hence his abhorrence of political metaphysics. This hatred to all theories of abstract rights is often supposed to have arisen from his conflict with the Revolutionists' principles, but it is to be traced throughout his earliest no less than throughout his later writings. When he advocated conciliation with America, he found the course of justice and expediency constantly opposed by arguments drawn from the nature of sovereignty and from the supposed rights of the mother country. With such arguments he would hold no terms:

"I am resolved," he says, "to have nothing to do with the question of the right of taxation. . . . It is less than nothing in my consideration. . . . My consideration is narrow, confined, and wholly limited to the policy of the question. I do not examine whether the giving away a man's money be a power excepted and reserved out of the general trust of government, and how far all mankind, in all forms of polity, are entitled to an exercise of that right by the charter of nature. . . . These are deep questions, where great names militate against each other; where reason is perplexed; and an appeal to authorities only thickens the confusion. For high and reverend authorities lift up their heads on both sides; and there is no sure footing in the middle. This point is the great 'Serbonian bog, betwixt Damiata and Mount Casius old, where armies whole have sunk.' I do not intend to be overwhelmed in that bog, though in such respectable company."

But this contempt for political metaphysics is quite unlike the narrow creed of so-called practical men, which makes statesmanship nothing more than the dexterous use of dodges for the attainment of temporary objects. Politics was in Burke's mind an art of the highest dignity and utility, success in which depended on an elaborate study of history and facts under the guidance of a profound knowledge of human nature. The moral of all his speeches on the American struggle (which represent his views at their very best) is that no one can deal with the questions at issue between America and England who has not mastered the history of each country, and deeply considered the motives by which mankind are moved.

His speech on conciliation with America contains such an analysis of the circumstances which had moulded the character of the English colonists as could scarcely be improved by the most learned of modern historians. The gist of all his argument is that a statesman must rely neither on metaphysical subtleties nor on brute force, but on an appeal to human nature as it actually exists. "Man acts from adequate motives relative to his interests, and not on metaphysical speculations." It is at this point that Burke's conservatism blends with his liberalism. He, no less than Bentham, was an utilitarian. He would not have accepted Bentham's formulas, but he believed as firmly as Bentham that men were ruled by their true interests, and that government existed for the promotion of the general good. Burke, like Bentham, despised the pretentious platitudes which the conservatives no less than the democrats of the last century held to be absolute principles; he, no less than Bentham, held that government existed for the benefit of the governed; yet the two men were divided by fundamental differences. Burke's method was historical; Bentham's was logical. Burke looked with leniency on existing institutions, and felt that there was a presumption in favor of any tolerable arrangement which actually existed; Bentham, full of the belief that existing society was the product of the influence of the limited classes who actually held power, and whose sinister interest opposed the general welfare, naturally felt the mere existence of an institution no argument in its favor. Hence the fundamental conservatism of Burke, and the no less fundamental anti-conservatism of the older utilitarians. For it is on the answer which each man gives to the question whether there is or is not a strong presumption in favor of existing institutions, that his whole political attitude ultimately depends.

When the nature of Burke's conservatism is understood, it is seen to be utterly different from many beliefs or attitudes of mind which are often called conservative. Burke, for example, had little in common with the men who at the beginning of this century quoted with admiration all his anti-Revolutionary utterances. Eldon and Percival had no policy but that policy of absolute resistance to change which, in a changing world, is necessarily the cause of revolution. The disagreement between them and Burke is seen in the fact that he was prepared to grant, in the very height of the Revolutionary outbreak, the measure of Catholic emancipation which Eldon and his school refused to concede when the fury of Revolutionary fanaticism was entirely spent. Burke, again, though a conservative, was at no time a Tory. The essence of Toryism is to attach an absolute worth to monarchical institutions. In England it exists no longer, but the French or Spanish Legitimists are strictly Tories. They value the rule of the Bourbons not for the benefits which might flow from it, but because legitimate monarchy has in their eyes a divine right to rule. The politics of such men are a part of their religion. With Burke, the rules of political art could never become the dogmas of a creed. The contrast between his conservatism and the mere policy of resistance upheld by Eldon, or the policy of fanatical reaction which inspires Legitimists, shows what is the real worth of Burke's conservative doctrine. It is the only form of conservatism which may be appplied to the politics of all civilized societies. A celebrated Italian republican said to an English conservative: "If I had been born in England, I might have been a conservative. If you had been born in Italy, you would have been a republican." The Italian patriot had imbibed the very spirit of Burke. A rational conservative is, by the very nature of his conservatism, the advocate of one form of polity in one country, and of another constitution in another country. He is a republican in Switzerland or America, a friend of constitutionalism in England, and, it may even possibly be, the supporter of a strong monarchical rule in Russia. The strength of Burke's views is that they represent a spirit which may have full play under any form of government. Hence they have influenced the policy of thinking men in Italy and Germany no less than in England, and have counteracted the pernicious democratic delusion that violent means are the only mode of attaining valuable reforms.

The conservatism of Burke is, however, open to two main criticisms. The first is, that all Burke's political teaching assumes the existence of institutions which are worth preserving and enlist the good-will of his hearers. "There are some amongst us who think our constitution wants many improvements to make it a perfect system of liberty. Perhaps none who are of that opinion would think it right to aim at such improvements by disturbing his country and risking everything that is dear to him." These words apply of course to England, but they describe the state of mind which in general naturally prevails amongst the subjects of a tolerable government wherever this condition of feeling exists. Burke's doctrines have a proper field for their application. But in periods of violent revolution this sentiment of calm loyalty towards existing institutions does not as a matter of fact prevail. At such times, doctrines of rational conservatism become from the nature of things inapplicable; and the great error of Burke's speculations about the Revolution is that he failed clearly to recognize that conservatism is out of place when the mass of a nation are prepared "to risk everything that is dear to them" rather than bear a state of things which they hold to be unendurable. Burke partly concealed this from himself by the astonishing fiction that the *émigrés* were the French nation, and found himself involved in all the difficulties which torment a statesman who bases his policy not on fact but on fiction. His English followers have servilely followed his mistake, and, as any one may remember during the war of secession, quoted Burke *ad nauseam* to men on this side of the water who were prepared to risk everything rather than put up with a state of things which they deemed, rightly or wrongly, unbearable. The policy of conservatism must be inapplicable unless men of all parties are agreed that there is much in existing institutions which they wish to preserve.

A second criticism is that Burke underrated the extent to which abstract principles can be applied to politics. The triumphs of political economy—such, for example, as the complete overthrow in England of the whole scheme of protection—show that in some departments of politics, at least, there is far more room for the application of *à priori* principles than Burke would perhaps have been disposed to admit. His error in this respect can scarcely be blamed, for the then prevalent theory of natural rights has turned out to be, as he perceived, absolutely worthless, and the questions with which he was called upon to deal were not for the most part problems of the kind to which political economy applies. It must further be remembered that, as most modern political economists would admit, the rules of their science are not rigid principles, and must constantly, in practice, be tempered by that knowledge of human nature which is the basis of the conservatism of Burke.

Manual of Universal Church History. By the Rev. Dr. John Alzog, Professor of Theology at the University of Freiburg. Translated, with additions, from the ninth and last German edition, by F. J. Pabisch, Doctor of Theology, etc., and Rev. Thos. S. Byrne, Professor at Mt. St. Mary's Seminary. In 3 volumes. Vol. I. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1874.)—

This is a larger work than most of the so-called German manuals. It comprises in the original not less than 1,400 large octavo pages. This volume of the translation—the first of three—has 779 pages of about the same size. Alzog is one of the very best Roman Catholic writers who have undertaken to record the history of the Church. His learning is sufficient. He has studied Protestant writers as well as those of his own church. Although influenced throughout by his dogmatic opinions, the effect of this bias is less marked and less mischievous than is usually the case with writers of his class. This work is a very valuable one, and deserves the attention of Protestant students, who would not be hurt by reading "the other side." The translation, though quite liberal—that is, quite far removed from a literal rendering—is in good English, and, as far as we have examined it, gives truly the sense of the original.

Epochs of History. Edited by Edward E. Morris, M.A., of Lincoln College, Oxford, Head-Master of the Bedfordshire Middle-Class Public School, etc. 1. The Era of the Protestant Revolution. By Frederic Seebohm, author of 'The Oxford Reformers—Colet, Erasmus, and More.' 2. The Crusades. By George W. Cox, M.A., author of 'History of Greece,' 'Mythology of the Aryan Nations,' etc. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.)—Probably the series of 'Epochs of History' was suggested by the appearance of Mr. Freeman's series, and was designed not to come into direct competition with it, but to approach the same facts from a different point of view, so as to give, as one may say, a cross-section instead of a side view of the same edifice. The titles of volumes announced as in preparation do not seem in every instance to admit of a treatment which shall make "the history of a nation subordinate to this more general idea." Nothing could be better than the subjects of the two volumes which head the list; but on the whole, England appears far more prominently than one would expect. There are fourteen titles in all, and out of these eight have English kings for their leading subject, and a ninth is "The War of American Independence"—an event of the first importance, but hardly an "epoch" in the sense of this series. Of these English sovereigns, several—as Elizabeth, the Early Plantagenets, and "The Fall of the Stuarts"—can fairly be taken as the centre of European events; so with Edward III., except that the "Conquest of France" comes in in connection with "The Houses of Lancaster and York"; but the "Norman Kings and the Feudal System" and "The Stuarts and the Puritan Revolution" hardly touch any but purely English history. However, time will show the execution of the works. "The Thirty Years' War," "The Beginning of the Middle Ages," and "Frederic the Great" are unequivocally good subjects.

The two volumes before us are certainly all that could be desired in this respect, as well in execution as in plan; these important epochs are sketched distinctly as epochs, so as to be really histories of Europe, for their time, and not of any one nation. Mr. Seebohm's "Protestant Revolution," as it is the most important, is on the whole the most satisfactory. He has perhaps loaded his introductory chapters with some unnecessary detail; but the narrative is throughout animated, and the selection and grouping of events skilful and effective. His earlier labors, upon the Oxford Reformers and the condition of the peasantry, have had their influence in the preparation of this book, which gives quite an unusual prominence to these two topics. The first strictly belongs to the Reformation, even although its heroes took no active part in the movement, and even opposed it; the second, although hardly a part of it, is yet closely connected with it, and at any rate is an important phase of its era. The volume contains numerous and excellent maps and plans, of which those illustrating the commerce and industry of Christendom, and the several outbreaks of the peasantry, are the most interesting and useful.

Mr. Cox's book is perhaps as well done in detail, although it does not contain so many features of peculiar merit, for Mr. Cox is not a specialist upon his subject as Mr. Seebohm is upon his. There is a serviceable map, in which, however, we do not understand on what grounds Lombardy is extended to the Rhone. Neither do we see why the title "Fourth Crusade" should be removed from the renowned expedition which resulted in the Latin Empire of Constantinople, and assigned to the abortive enterprise of 1196–7. The sketch of the events which caused the Crusades, as well as of the Crusades themselves, is excellent; but the book needs, for its completeness, a fuller discussion of the general character and results of the Crusades.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
A Boy's Kingdom	(Thomas Nelson & Sons)	$2 00
Alzog (Rev. J.), Manual of Universal Church History, Vol. I.	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	5 00
Amos (Prof. A.), The Science of Law	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Archives of Dermatology, Vol. I., No. 1, swd.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Arnould (Sir J.), Life of Chief-Justice Denman, Vol. II.	(Estes & Lauriat)	3 50
Art-Journal for September, swd.	(Virtue & Yorston)	
Austen (Jane G.), Moonfolk	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 00
Bacon (Rev. L.), Genesis of the New England Churches	(Harper & Bros.)	
Bancroft (G.), History of the United States, Vol. X.	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Barrows (Rev. L. D.), Home as It Should Be	(Nelson & Phillips)	$0 35
Bleby (Rev. H.), Romance without Fiction	(Nelson & Phillips)	1 75
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexicon, 12th ed., Part 1, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)	0 20
Burr (Rev. E. F.), Sunday Afternoons	(Nelson & Phillips)	0 75
Butler (Maj. W. F.), The Wild North Land	(Porter & Coates)	2 50
Cairnes (Prof. J. E.), Leading Principles of Political Economy newly Expounded	(Harper & Bros.)	
Castleton (D. R.), Salem: a Tale	(Harper & Bros.)	
Clarke (Dr. E. H.), The Building of a Brain	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 25
Clarke (Mrs. M. C.), Girlhood of Shakspeare's Heroines	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 00
Churton (H.), Toinette: a Tale	(J. B. Ford & Co.)	1 50
Curtius (Dr. E.), History of Greece, Vol. V.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	2 50
De Mille (J.), The Lily and the Cross	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Dove (H. W.), Circulation of the Waters on the Earth, swd.	(Estes & Lauriat)	0 25
Flanders (H.), Law of Fire Insurance, 2d ed.	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	7 50
Foss (E.), Memories of Westminster Hall, Vol. II.	(Estes & Lauriat)	3 50
Froude (J. A.), English in Ireland in 18th Century, Vols. II. and III.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	2 50
Gardiner (S. R.), The Thirty Years' War	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 00
Gaskell (J.), Basis of a Science of Mind	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	2 50
Goldsmid (Sir F. J.), Telegraph and Travel	(Macmillan & Co.)	8 00
Grapes and Thorns	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	2 00
Haley (J. W.), Alleged Discrepancies of the Bible	(W. F. Draper)	
Hart (Prof. J. M.), German Universities	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Hiller (Dr. F.), Mendelssohn: Letters and Recollections	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 25
Holst (Dr. H. von), Die Administration Andrew Jackson's, swd.	(E. Steiger)	
Hope (F. T. L.), The Three Homes	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	1 75
Jacobi (Dr. A), Infant Diet	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	0 75
Kingston (W. H. G.), The Western World	(T. Nelson & Sons)	
Lambert (E.) and Sardou (A.), Idiomatic Key to the French Language	(Albert Mason)	1 50
Littell's Living Age, Vol. CXXII., July-Sept., 1874	(Littell & Gay)	
Loomis (H.), Christ and Antichrist	(Nelson & Phillips)	1 00
Mill (J. S.), System of Logic, 8th ed.	(Harper & Bros.)	
Olney (Prof. E.), Introduction to Algebra	(Sheldon & Co.)	1 00
Prosper Mérimée's Letters to an Incognita, etc.	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 50
Révoil (W. H. D.), The Hunter and the Trapper	(T. Nelson & Sons)	
Ritter's Geogtaphisch-statistisches Lexicon, Vol. I., Part 7, Vol. III., Part 5, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Sainte-Beuve, Celebrities of the Past and Present	(Porter & Coates)	
Schwerdtfeger (E.), History and Development of the English Verb, swd.	(Henry Holt & Co.)	
Shaw (T. B.), New History of English Literature	(Sheldon & Co.)	1 50
Shepherd (Prof. H. E.), History of the English Language	(E. J. Hale & Son)	1 50
Smith (Rev. S.), Works, 3 vols.	(R. Worthington & Co.)	
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part 22, swd.	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Stoddard (W. O.), Verses of Many Days	(James Miller)	
St. Nicholas, Vol. I.	(Scribner & Co.)	
Symington (M.), Working to Win	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	$1 75
Taylor (Rev. A.), Peeps at Our Sunday-schools	(Nelson & Phillips)	1 50
The Daily Service	(Hurd & Houghton)	2 50
The Little Princess, and Other Stories	(Nelson & Phillips)	0 65
The Workshop, No. 9, swd.	(E. Steiger)	0 50
Tyndall (Prof. J.), Inaugural Address at Belfast, swd.	(A. K. Butts & Co.)	0 50
Walker (Gen. F. A.), Statistical Atlas, Part II., swd.	(Washington)	
Warren (Prof. S. E.), Elements of Descriptive Geometry	(John Wiley & Son)	4 00
Western Union Telegraph Directory	(New York)	
Wise (Rev. D.), Life of Rev. Wm. Marsh, D.D.	(Nelson & Phillips)	1 50
Wise (Rev. I. M.), The Martyrdom of Jesus of Nazareth, swd.	(Cincinnati)	
Wood (Rev. J. G.), Trespassers	(Thomas Nelson & Sons)	3 00
Wood (Mrs. Henry), Clara Lake's Dream, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros)	2 50
Martin Ware's Temptation, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 25
Wrecked on a Reef among the Auckland Isles	(Thomas Nelson & Sons)	2 00

Fine Arts.

THE MONTPENSIER GALLERY.

BOSTON, October, 1874.

THE Montpensier Gallery is a great disappointment, and to the connoisseurs and the ignorant alike. Such high expectations had been raised concerning its character and importance that possibly a very much superior collection would have failed to justify them. Certainly there is an impassable gulf between what the gallery was supposed to be and what it actually is. A considerable part of the disappointment comes, no doubt, from the fact that very few persons in the community knew what ought to be expected from any collection of Spanish pictures; knew, indeed, anything about the character of Spanish painting, its relation to Italian art, its intrinsic worth or worthlessness. Everybody had heard of Murillo's Madonnas and beggar children; almost everybody of the portraits of Velasquez; the names of Ribera, Zurbaran, and Morales might be known to a few. But knowledge of the general characteristics of Spanish art, and of the special characteristics of the different schools, and of the qualities of the different painters, was confined to a limited number of amateurs and travellers. Among them there had been some scepticism as to the value of the collection, from the first account of its contents. But even they could not but hope that a collection which embraced one unquestioned Murillo and two or three paintings ascribed to Velasquez, would turn out to be of considerable interest.

As for the general public, it has been so entertained and allured with statements of the liberality of the royal duke in allowing his precious collection to cross the dangerous ocean, of the enormous value set upon the pictures, and for which they were insured, and of the opportunity which the exhibition of the collection would afford to those who could not visit Europe to see and become familiar with such treasures as form the chief enjoyment of more fortunate travellers abroad, of the æsthetic charm and historic interest of these works—that now upon their exhibition it finds itself either obliged to disown its own convictions, or to admit its own want of taste, or to suppose that the admirers of foreign galleries are either dupes, or ready to profess admirations which cannot have been genuine.

This conclusion is doubtless hasty and unfounded. For the truth is that the pictures exhibited at the Athenæum would not do much credit to a second-rate European gallery; that the value set upon them by the Duc de Montpensier or his agent is absurd, and has no relation to what they would bring in the open market; and that they are, with the exception of two or three, not such works as any real connoisseur is accustomed to admire, or

for which he would claim any interest but that which attaches to them as illustrations of the perverted conditions of the arts in Spain at the period at which they were painted.

It is a curious fact, but one of which the explanation is not far to seek, that since the Renaissance, as Spain has produced but one author who is to be classed with those supreme ones who belong to all ages and all lands, so she has produced but one painter of similar quality. Cervantes and Velasquez stand quite alone. They have neither rivals nor pretenders to rivalry; and in literature and art they are the only Spaniards to whom the world need and is required to pay attention. Other Spanish authors and other Spanish painters have excellent qualities, and of such independent originality as to give them a claim to the regard of students, but not one, unless we except Murillo and Morales among the painters, and Calderon and Lope de Vega among the authors, possessed such genius as to compel more than what we may call local or historical admiration.

Murillo certainly had many of the gifts of a great painter, and his best works are to be counted among the treasures of pictorial art. The single specimen which the Montpensier collection affords us is a very pleasing example of his naturalistic method of treatment of a devotional subject. It has unfortunately suffered from the injury of time, and has been clumsily restored in some subordinate parts, but it remains a picture in which we may see the simple feeling, the grace, the sense of color, and the happy composition of the genuine artist. It is undoubtedly an excellent average specimen of his least ideal representations of the Madonna and Child.

Of the three pictures in the collection which bear the name of Velasquez, one, a portrait head, shows the vigor of his characterization and of his handling. But it is not one of his best portraits. It exhibits the defects of his method in its extravagance of light and shade, and it has been so loaded with bad varnish that it no longer retains the distinction of color which it originally possessed. The two others, small reproductions of his portraits of Philip IV. and of Olivares, his Prime Minister, portraits familiar to us through photographs and the spirited engravings of Goya, may possibly be from his hand; but their very fidelity as reductions of the great pictures indicates that they are rather studio copies than sketches by the master himself. And this supposition is confirmed by the curious difference between them in technical treatment. The mode of laying on the color is very different in one from the other. But, whether from the hand of Velasquez or not, they are interesting and precious representations of his work.

Of the four great Zurbarans the authenticity is undoubted. They are good examples of this third-class master's work, and of interest as representations of the prevalent style of Spanish religious art at his time. But, compared with Italian work of a similar character, their inferiority is striking. The best parts of them consist of the figures taken direct from nature. In the "Adoration of the Shepherds," for instance, one figure of an old man kneeling with folded hands is admirable for its natural expression and truth of portraiture. But as a whole these works have little more than a purely historic interest; they can make no claim to high artistic merit. If, as has been stated, the duke or his agent valued these pictures at $25,000 apiece, it can only be said that such a valuation is in a high degree extravagant. The value in the market of such pictures is low enough. They are not wanted for any but public galleries where a full representation of the different schools is required. A large picture by Zurbaran, which, a few years since, was taken for the Louvre from the collection of Marshal Soult, a picture certainly equal to any of those in this collection, was valued at 20,000 francs.

Of the other pictures in the collection—there are but eighteen Spanish pictures in all—little need be said. The Ribera is disgusting, and should be destroyed; the Morales is one of his inferior works, and much injured. Of the other pictures one of two landscapes by Salvator Rosa is better than his usual work; there is a pleasing Van der Meulen, by which our landscape painters might profit; there is a picture said to be by Sebastian del Piombo, which he never saw, and which he would regret to have ascribed to him, and so on. The modern works, by Lehmann, Granet, and Tony Johannot, are mere rubbish.

Of course such an exhibition is a disappointment. It can do little for the culture of students of art, it can give little satisfaction to those who already know the resources of European galleries.

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THE CHURCH AND STATE.

BROAD—EVANGELICAL—CATHOLIC.

The following extracts are made from editorials which have lately appeared in the "CHURCH AND STATE":

THE BROAD-CHURCH MOVEMENT.

So far as there is to be a distinctive Broad-Church movement in this country, there are certain things which are essential to its success and salutary influence. It must be American in its character and in the fullest sympathy with the great essential tendencies of our American social system. Such will naturally be its character, for the great idea which pervades it is that of freedom of thought and expression. It is scarcely necessary to say that it must aim at the highest culture, for that, too, is one of the characteristic features of the school. It may be well, however, to emphasize the importance of a more tolerant spirit toward other schools and parties in the Church. There is no man more intolerant than a narrow Broad Churchman, and no one therefore who acts more inconsistently with the principles which as a Broad Churchman he avows. But that which is most of all needed is that it shall rest upon an evangelical basis and adhere unflinchingly to the historical faith of the Church. If it will hold fast to that great fact, to which the Word of God and the Christian ages bear such emphatic testimony, the sacrificial character of the death of Christ, in which a true propitiation was offered for the sins of the world, and then strive to rid the Church of the baneful influence of mere ecclesiasticism, making it bright and cheerful with the choicest results of thought and culture, it will indeed constitute the best hope, under God, of our American Church.

There is something, however, which seems to us still more to be desired, but which, perhaps, will never be realized. It has been a dream fondly cherished, but still a dream it may be, that there is a still higher school of thought and feeling possible, which may at some future time characterize the Church. It has already one representative, of whom, though living, we may fitly speak. His long life of active and beneficent labor, his venerable years and now failing health, warrant us in speaking freely of his relations to the great questions which we are considering. Dr. Muhlenberg has been known for many years as occupying what he has called an evangelical catholic position. In the midst of his wonderful activities in the practical work of the Church, he has done much to give form to the idea which underlies this position. First of all, the position is evangelical because it is at the very centre of the finished work of Christ, and it is catholic because it recognizes and accepts the accumulated wealth of the historical Church in liturgy and ritual and song and Christian experience. With perhaps a too large proportion of the merely catholic element in his system in his earlier days, and too little, it may be, in the advancing years of life, the average of his teaching and influence cannot be far from right. He may have made too much of mere ritual at one time, and in the reaction too little of sacramental grace; but few, if any, have ever more wisely recognized, in their true relation, Christ and his Body, the Church. Unconsciously perhaps to himself, he has also been a teacher in the other great school of the Church. Singularly free from dogmatism, he long since discerned how large a portion of that which had been traditionally held as essential to Christianity must give way under the searching investigation of modern enquiry, but he saw also how little such results would touch the great work of that divine Being who is the centre of the Christian system. In his generous appreciation of whatever has been done for freedom of thought and action in the Church, he has been, in the best sense, a Broad Churchman. Shall there not be, at some time, a school which shall bear the impress of his thought and spirit, and be therefore broad, evangelical, and catholic?

PROF. TYNDALL'S ADDRESS.

We take the statements of Prof. Tyndall and Mr. Spencer as illustrating the most advanced position of the scientific school of which they are leaders. They admit that the phenomenal universe in its ultimate analysis may be as properly described in terms of spirit as in terms of matter; nay, that it may be more properly described in terms of spirit. Whatever else this position may involve, it is not the vulgar materialism which we have known under that name. It leads us to the shore of the great unknown ocean, the ocean of Unconditioned Being, which is symbolized to us as object in matter and as subject in mind. There is nothing in this science which hinders the next step, which is the recognition of this Unconditioned Being as a personal Intelligence. We say nothing to hinder—we might rather say everything to impel to that step. If science has strengthened any conviction, it is that of a rational plan in nature. Are we not then impelled, by science itself, to the conclusion that there is reason (*ratio*) in the "cosmical life," as Prof. Tyndall calls it, in which nature has its roots?

Prof. Tyndall has well shown, and in this respect he has done an intelligent theism good service, that science knows nothing of a man-like artificer working intermittently in nature, supplying defects and remedying disasters by special and exceptional exercises of power. It is well that these anthropomorphic ideas of God should be dispelled. The Being up to the recognition of whom science leads us is a power residing in and pervading all nature, working in accordance with fixed and unchangeable laws, by slow and immensely protracted processes, with infinite patience, through a past and into a future, the one receding and the other proceeding into the clouds of an impenetrable mystery.

We regret that Prof. Tyndall should have stated the conclusion to which he had arrived in such a form as to imply that there is any necessary hostility in it to religious belief. He has doubtless met with much of bigotry and intolerance, but he has no right to assume that they are characteristic of religious people. When he talks about the liberty to discuss these subjects which scientific men must vindicate, it is just as absurd as it would be for theologians to protest that they must be delivered from the despotism of science. Both are perfectly free now, and it is unmanly to shrink from the blows which, from enthusiasm or perhaps prejudice, are sure on either side to be given.

CHURCH AND STATE.

The Rev. JOHN COTTON SMITH, D.D., Editor-in-Chief. The Rev. LESTER M. DORMAN, Assistant Editor.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 12, 1874.

BEYOND a slight flurry in Erie, and at times considerable activity in the stock market, the past week has been a quiet and uneventful one. There have been rumors of failures among mercantile houses, but up to this time there appear to be no grounds for them; those which have already taken place do not seem to have caused any serious lack of confidence, nor does the market for commercial paper seem to have been unfavorably affected, judging from the rates current in the Street, which we quote as follows: Extra choice 60-day paper, 5 to 6 per cent., and first-class 90-day paper 6 to 7 per cent.

Money on call continues very easy at 2 to 3 per cent. There was a slight hardening in the rate this afternoon, when a few loans were made as high as 3½, but this was exceptional, and can hardly be quoted, as large amounts were offered at the same moment at 3 per cent.

The continued loss of bullion by the Bank of England led to the expectation that the minimum discount rate would be advanced on Thursday; but Cable advices state that no advance was made, and the rate remains standing at 3 per cent. The amount of bullion lost by the Bank was £451,000. The Bank of France lost 5,730,000 francs in specie during the week.

The bank statement on Saturday showed a further loss in surplus reserve amounting to $1,135,725. The deposits have fallen off $3,454,700. The following is the statement in detail:

	Oct. 3.	Oct. 10.	Differences.
Loans	$281,277,000	$281,377,800	Inc... $100,800
Specie	18,374,200	16,946,700	Dec... 1,427,500
Legal tenders	63,966,100	62,394,200	Dec.. 1,571,900
Deposits	236,925,900	233,471,200	Dec... 3,454,700
Circulation	25,419,600	25,115,800	Dec.. 303,800

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Oct. 3.	Oct. 10.	Differences.
Specie	$18,374,200	$16,946,700	Dec.. $1,427,500
Legal tenders	63,966,100	62,394,200	Dec.. 1,571,900
Total reserve	$82,340,300	79,340,900	Dec.. $2,999,400
Reserve required against deposits	59,231,475	58,367,800	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	23,108,825	21,973,100	Dec.. 1,135,725

The stock market during the week has been marked by a disposition to realize upon the part of holders, under which prices have fallen off. The leading stock of the list was Lake Shore, speculation in which hinges upon the prospect of the Company being able to pay a dividend in February next. The widest fluctuation has been in Erie, which has closely followed the London market, where the price tumbled to 26½ upon the report of the accountants who recently examined into the affairs of the Company in this city being made public at the London Stock Exchange. The extreme fluctuations in Erie in this market have been between 35¼ and 29½. Western Union fell off 3 per cent., Pacific Mail, 3½ per cent., and the balance of the list lost from 2¼ to 1 per cent. from the highest prices reached during the early part of the week. The decline in prices has encouraged short sales among the small operators in the Stock Exchange, while those already short, and who have been looking forward to trouble among the merchants as a cause for lower prices, have evidently increased their lines.

The investment stocks are dull, and in some cases lower, the demand from investors running more in favor of good railroad mortgages.

The highest and lowest prices for the week ending Saturday, October 10, 1874, have been as follows:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Total.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	102¼ 102¾	101¼ 102	101¾ 101¾	101⅝ 101¾	101½ 101¾	101⅝ 101¼	21,700
Lake Shore.....	82⅛ 81⅞	79½ 81⅛	80¼ 81¼	80½ 81⅜	79½ 80⅜	78⅜ 79⅛	245,400
Erie.....	33¼ 31½	33 34½	33½ 35⅛	32½ 33¼	31½ 32⅜	29⅜ 30¼	135,300
Rock Island.....	103½ 103¾	102¾ 103	102¾ 103⅜	103 103¼	102⅝ 103	102 x98¾ 101½ 98¾	12,900
Wabash.....	33 34¼	32¼ 33	32¾ 33½	33¼ 33⅞	33¼ 33¾	31⅜ 32⅜	47,900
N. W. st. Com....	38⅝ 39⅜	37¼ 38¾	37⅞ 39¼	39¼ 40½	38¾ 39⅜	37⅝ 38¾	114,500
Do. pfd....	.... 56¼	54¼ 54½	 54	.... 56½	 56	.... 54½	700
St. Paul Com	33⅜ 34¼	33 33¾	33½ 34	33¾ 34½	33¼ 33⅛	32⅛ 33⅜	27,700
Do. pfd....	52⅜ 53	52 52⅜	 52	.... 52½	 52	51	2,300
Pacific Mail	48½ 49¾	47 48¾	47⅝ 48¾	47⅞ 48½	47⅛ 48¾	46⅝ 47¼	121,200
Union Pacific....	36½ 37	34½ 36½	35 36¼	35½ 36⅝	35⅛ 36⅛	34⅜ 35⅝	178,100
D., L. & W.....	106¾ 107	.... 106⅜	106¾ 107	.... 107⅛	107 107⅛	.... 106½	1,798
N. J. Central....	104 104¾	.... 103⅞	 104	 104	....	.... 103⅜	560
W. U. Tel., x.....	80⅞ 81½	78⅝ 80⅜	79¼ 80¼	79⅜ 80⅛	79 80⅜	78½ 79⅜	204,500
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O. & M.....	27⅝ 28⅜	26¾ 27¾	27⅛ 28⅜	28 29	27⅜ 28⅛	27¼ 27⅞	61,800
Harlem.....	 129	.... 127½	.... 129½	129½ 129¾	.... 129¾	 129	1,860

Government bonds continue to be in good request for home investment, very few bonds going abroad, while it is stated that 5-20's have been coming this way to be exchanged into the new 5 per cent. bonds. The supply of bonds, outside of the new 5's, is still very limited, and prices consequently are firm, especially for large amounts.

The following are the closing prices for Governments this evening:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Coupon 6's, 1881	118	118¼	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1867	117¼	117⅜
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1862	112⅝	113¼	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1868	117¼	117⅜
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1864	115½	115¾	Coupon 5's, 10-40's	111⅜	112
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, M. & N.	116½	116¾	Coupon 5's, of 1881	112¾	112⅝
Coupon 6's 5-20's, 1865, J. & J.	116	116⅛	U. S. Currency 6's	117¼	117¾

Railroad bonds are active, with prices a little lower on those of a few prominent roads. Union Pacific Firsts were weak during the early part of the week, but closed on Saturday at 88¾ to 89, after having sold down to 87½.

Gold has been more active, and was strong up to Thursday upon the firmness of foreign exchange and the supposition of an advance in the Bank of England discount rate; with an easier condition of the London money market, the price fell off to 109¾ from 110¼, finally closing at 110⅛ on Saturday. The subsequent upward reaction from the lowest price on Thursday, 109¾, was due to the demand from those who were short to cover. The following shows the range of prices for every day of the past week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Oct. 5	110⅛	110⅜	110	110⅛
Tuesday, Oct. 6	110⅜	110¼	110⅛	110⅛
Wednesday, Oct. 7	110⅛	110⅜	110	110
Thursday, Oct. 8	109¾	110	109¾	110
Friday, Oct. 9	110	110⅛	110	110⅛
Saturday, Oct. 10	110⅛	110⅜	110	110⅛

The specie shipments for the week were unimportant and consisted entirely of silver bars.

NOTICE TO THE HOLDERS
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The undersigned Trustees are prepared to purchase, for the Sinking Fund, a certain amount of the First Mortgage Bonds of the Oregon and California Railroad Company, and hereby invite offers of such bonds from holders.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1874.

The Week.

WHETHER the President desires a third term or not, or whether there is the smallest chance of his having one or not, enough has been said about it to induce large numbers of people to believe that his friends are scheming in favor of it, that unless they are checked in their mad career he will be nominated by the Convention, and the people be forced to re-elect him on pain of military execution. The reasons for fearing this forcible extinction of American liberties are summed up in the *Tribune*, and they are these: The appearance in "the President's kitchen organ" of "third-term leaders"; the passage of third-term resolutions in South Carolina and Florida Republican conventions; "the writing of third-term letters" by "Kemper and other Southern politicians"; third-term speeches by Pomeroy and Conkling at Utica; and a "distinct and positive third-term pronouncement" by Alexander H. Stephens. Our contemporary has forgotten one other sign of danger—the third-term productions of the leading minds of the New York *Herald*.

The defeats in Ohio and Indiana, coming so soon after the above-named alarming indications, have apparently convinced the Republican politicians that something must be done to quell the popular apprehensions, and accordingly there come rumors from Washington that General Grant is to be called on, in his character of a "simple-minded man of great sagacity and honest patriotism," as Judge Pierrepont styles him, to declare that he will under no circumstances be a candidate for re-election, in order to save the party from further disaster in November. Infantry, cavalry, and artillery are clearly not in favor with the people as instruments of popular government. There is talk also of compelling General Dix to declare himself against a third term, and, in fact, of taking every possible precaution against so marked a change in the Government as a third term would involve. The affair is curious and interesting, mainly in one way—viz., as an illustration of the existence of a belief, more or less widespread, that any man nominated for the Presidency by a party which has control of the offices would have to be elected whether the voters pleased or not, or, in other words, that we have already entered on that "transition stage" through which other republics have passed, in which the people are allowed to keep the republican forms after the power has gone from them. We do not think this belief has any foundation, but it is a belief which may do great mischief in a community which has as large a capacity for resignation as this has. The nomination of Butler, for instance, is something which already suggests to many minds no more fruitful reflection than that the ways of Providence are inscrutable, and that man is born to trouble.

The October election returns show heavy Republican losses. In Ohio, where a full vote was polled, there is said to have been a great deal of scratching, and the Irish and Germans voted solidly with the Democrats, who carried the State by some 20,000 majority. The prohibition plank in the Republican platform, and exasperation caused by the women's crusade, are supposed to be at the bottom, or pretty near the bottom, of the Conservative enthusiasm in this State. In Indiana the democratic majority is about 15,000. Nebraska, on the other hand, has gone Republican by 10,000 majority; while in Arkansas the new constitution and the Democratic-Conservative ticket have been carried by majorities so overwhelming, that the other party (*i.e.*, the supporters of Brooks) may be said to be annihilated. In Iowa the Republicans have increased their old majority. Elections were also held in West Virginia and Dakota, but these were comparatively unimportant. The effect upon the next Congress will be very marked. According to the *Times*, the elections already held in nine States this year give sixty-two Congressmen evenly divided between the two parties, whereas in the last Congress the figures for the same States were 44 Republicans to 19 Democrats. For Indiana, Iowa, Ohio, Nebraska, and West Virginia the *Times* gives 23 Republicans to 23 Democrats this year, against 33 to 13 last year. These figures are without doubt substantially correct. If New York and Pennsylvania go Democratic, there will in all probability be a Democratic majority in the next Congress. On looking over the list of Congressmen elect, one is struck as usual with the small number of names known outside the State limits; but in a few districts the struggle was of considerable importance. Mr. Garfield, notwithstanding the desperate attempt to defeat him, goes back to Washington, while with him will go Mr. Charles Foster, who will probably make the winter an unpleasant one at odd moments for General Butler. Any one who followed Mr. Foster during the last session knows what an active, intelligent, and uncompromising foe he was to all sorts of chicanery and corruption, and will probably find in his re-election a consoling proof of the soundness of popular feeling on certain questions.

It would probably require a good deal of shrewdness to make out anything distinct from these elections as to the financial complexion of the next House. Ohio, being carried by the Democratic party, is in theory pledged to "such an increase of the circulating medium as the business interests of the country may from time to time require"; to making payable in greenbacks "one-half the customs duties," the abolition of the national banks, and the introduction of a uniform legal-tender currency, and the following proposition: "That the Democracy of Ohio reiterate their declaration that the five-twenty bonds, by the letter and spirit of the law and the general understanding of the community, were payable in legal-tender notes, and the act of March, 1869, which pledged the faith of the nation to their payment in coin, was an unnecessary and wicked sacrifice of the interests of the taxpaying laborer for the non-taxpaying bondholder; that without equality of taxation there can be no equality of rights." The Republicans in Ohio went into the campaign on an anti-repudiation and gradual-resumption platform. Indiana, having gone Democratic, has constructively adopted a repudiation, inflation, and interests-of-business-regulated resumption. The Republicans in this State were non-committal. Iowa is in favor of paying the bonds in specie, and also "of such legislation as shall make national banking free to all under just and equal laws, based upon the policy of specie resumption at such time as is consistent with the material and industrial interests of the country, to the end that the volume of currency may be regulated by the natural laws of trade." It seems hardly worth while to make any more extracts from this hodge-podge of platforms. The Boston *Advertiser* says that from Ohio and Indiana there are no more inflationists than there were in the last Congress, and it cannot be too strongly insisted upon that the action of the parties, as parties, on financial questions has not reached that point of consistency and determination that any one can say exactly what they mean to do with the currency. They do not in fact know themselves.

A convention of all the more prominent thieves, carpet-baggers, and scalawags among the Southern politicians has met at Chattanooga and adjourned. Before it came together, it was supposed to intend to deal conclusively with the third-term question and the Civil-Rights Bill; but it did neither. It merely appointed a committee on "outrages" in the Southern States, which reported that the out-

rages were so numerous and so terrible that much time would be occupied in "compiling" them. The committee was therefore given leave to sit after the adjournment of the convention and compile them. The resolutions refer principally to outrages, and demand that they be prevented, and people committing them be punished. They also demand that all incompetent or dishonest office-holders at the South be removed, and fit men nominated to fill their places. The convention is treated with a good deal of ridicule in the press, but we must say that, in looking over the names of the delegates, we can hardly imagine a body of men better qualified by position and experience to discuss "outrages" than they.

There is said to be considerable apathy in the canvass in this State, owing to the absence of any exciting local issue and to the exceeding respectability of both the candidates for the governorship. There is one person, however, who is by no means apathetic, and that is Mr. Samuel J. Tilden. He is said to be carrying on a canvass which for minuteness, skill, knowledge of human nature, and of the ins and outs of politics, has never been approached by any preceding master, and which is calculated to reduce even the Custom-house patriots to despair. We should think he would be accompanied in his journeys by young politicians, and that he would give them quasi-clinical lectures over doubtful cases, explaining his method. But then it makes one tremble to think how many obligations to queer people even the greatest adept in the art must incur in a process of this kind, and it reveals the facility with which Mr. Tilden managed to work with Tweed and his crew for some years before 1870. If General Dix could be induced to plant himself on the Democratic platform, it would doubtless create a great laugh, but it would make him a candidate who would leave nothing to be desired, except that he was ten years younger. If he were, we think it would make some things clear in national politics which now to many minds seem cloudy.

Mr. Bowen acknowledges, in this week's *Independent*, that there was a "personal contract" between himself and Mr. Cooke with regard to the Northern Pacific Railroad. He says this contract "was for labor, and for the personal aid and services of several other business men associated with Mr. Bowen, and not connected with any newspapers." This is not a denial of our charges, but it is an evasion of them. We have hitherto said no more about the contract than was necessary to furnish a text for some observations about "newspaper ethics." We will now further explain, in self-justification, that the contract in question is in the hands of Mr. E. R. Robinson, the counsel for the trustee in bankruptcy in this city, who, we are informed, has been instructed to sue Mr. Bowen on it, on the ground assigned by us, namely, that it is *contra bonos mores*, and the reason why it is considered *contra bonos mores* is that it stipulates that Mr. Bowen shall give to the sale of the Northern Pacific bonds "the exclusive interest and influence of *his money and editorial columns*." The "several other business men who were associated with him"—who were to have the benefits of the arrangement—are his nephew, who is in his office, and a Mr. Kibbey, who is also in his office. The facts of the case are simply these: Mr. Bowen subscribed $56,000 for bonds and the stock of the road, but paid no money. He then entered into the contract with Jay Cooke which we have described, and under it paid for $50,000 in bonds and $460,000 in stock, by the services described in the contract; and Mr. Cooke then gave him a receipt in full, as if for cash, a short time before his failure. The trustee now maintains that Mr. Bowen has obtained the bonds and stock under an immoral agreement, and without adequate consideration, and demands them back, as Jay Cooke himself might do if he were not met by the rule *in pari delicto*. It is absurd for us, however, to carry on a controversy with Mr. Bowen about the nature of a document found among a bankrupt's papers, and now in a lawyer's hands awaiting submission to a court of law. We therefore beg to suggest that Mr. Bowen should publish the contract, with Mr. Robinson's certificate of the accuracy of the copy. There are several classes of persons who are fairly entitled to see it: (1) The creditors of Jay Cooke & Co.; (2) the bondholders of the Northern Pacific Railroad; (3) the subscribers to the *Independent*; (4) the divines and moralists who, by contributing to Mr. Bowen's paper, and lending him the use of their names, make his "money and editorial columns" worth purchasing.

The English have for some weeks been passing through one of those mild excitements which lighten the dulness of the autumn, over an article of Mr. Gladstone's in the *Contemporary Review* on ritualism. Mr. Gladstone has never lost that early and somewhat æsthetic interest in ecclesiastical questions which first brought him into public notice, and he now comes out with a sort of defence of what may be called moderate ritualism—that is, of the infusion of more pomp and ceremony, of more art in short, into English worship, as a means of kindling fervor and giving some glimpses of beauty and splendor to people who, like the mass of Englishmen, pass their lives in dull, hard, ugly prose. The papers are now all busy pointing out to him that the ritualism for which he sighs is an impossible thing, for two reasons. The first is that the great body of Englishmen, under the influence of time-honored and deeply-rooted traditions and prejudices, regard all attempts to make church ceremonies more complicated and gorgeous as signs of a tendency towards Romanism, to which they will not submit. The second is that the ritualists who are now disturbing the church, and even endangering its existence as a state institution, do not care at all, or only care in a very minor degree, about the objects Mr. Gladstone has in view. At the bottom of all their pomp and ceremony lies the doctrine of transubstantiation, or, in other words, the notion that the clergy can convert bread and wine into the real body and blood of Jesus Christ as often as they please, and their ritualistic performances, which give so much offence, are simply intended to surround this tremendous piece of "magic," as the *Pall Mall Gazette* calls it, with greater dignity and solemnity. Of course, men who fancy they are engaged in such work as this are not likely to give much consideration to the effect of their ceremonial on the worshippers; and to the youngest divine among them Mr. Gladstone's talk about the æsthetics of the matter must seem childish prattle.

The question of juries in Ireland is giving the Irish lawyers and judges and police serious trouble, and has been made the subject of an investigation by a Select Committee of the House of Commons, whose report has just appeared. Until 1872, Irish jury-lists were made up substantially at the discretion of the sheriff, who drew on such classes of the community as he thought best, and, as a matter of fact, he always drew in the main on the Protestant gentry and farmers. The result was not unnaturally a great want of confidence in the administration of justice on the part of the Catholic peasantry, which forty years of thorough impartiality on the part of officials had not been sufficient to eradicate. An effort was therefore made in 1871, by an act introduced by Lord O'Hagan, to remedy this state of things, by directing the sheriff to summon all persons indiscriminately possessing property assessed for the poor-rate at $100 a year. The result has been that the juries are largely composed of ignorant peasantry, and the failures of justice have become both alarming and ludicrous. The juries are regularly canvassed before the criminal trials and pledged to acquittals; they are accompanied often by great crowds to the court-house, who cheer them as they enter, and bid them "go in and free the boys." Convictions for crimes which in any way rouse party or class feeling—such as offences committed by a poor against a rich man, or by a tenant against a landlord, or crimes which do not violate popular morality, such as faction-fights or friendly riots—are all but impossible. In many cases the juries are so ignorant that they do not in the least understand the proceedings. In one case, in Tipperary, it was discovered that a juror was very drunk, and another had

just returned home from the penitentiary after serving a term of seven years for cattle-stealing. The committee recommend a raising of the ratepaying qualification, the summoning of a larger proportion of persons of the upper class and freeholders and leaseholders, so as to mingle all classes in the panel, and the drawing of juries by ballot instead of, as hitherto, in alphabetical order. A portion of the Irish public defends the present law, however, on the ground that it will gradually win the peasantry over to the side of the law, and will educate them in their duties as citizens, and that the worst is over; in short, "that all will come out right in the end"—and this is a view for which there is doubtless a great deal to be said.

The news from Spain is very wearisome, and has undergone no perceptible change in character. The Carlist bands who come in and surrender to the Republicans one week are the next reported to be in the field fighting as lustily as ever. The great mutinies which take place in the Carlist ranks seem to have no perceptible effect on their numbers. Don Carlos has got well of the mortal wound in his stomach, and indeed it does not seem even to have confined him to the house a single day or to have caused him the loss of a single meal. General Moriones has relieved Pampeluna, which was sore beset, but on the way back he seems to have sorely needed relief himself, for he was assailed and came near being destroyed. "Combats" of greater or less magnitude take place here and there and everywhere without apparently producing the smallest effect on the progress of the war. The Republicans appear to have barely enough men to hold their own, and though they abound in generals, are so short of regimental officers that they have had to make fifty battalions out of eighty. They cannot apparently subdue the Carlists in the mountains, and the Carlists will not, or cannot, come down on the plains and subdue them. The explanation of this deadlock is no secret. When Castelar tried to establish his federal republic, he and his friends came to the conclusion that, as it is always the army which overthrows governments in Spain, the one thing needed to make the new one last was to get rid of the army. So they broke it up, and thereupon the federal republic went to pieces, and it was with the utmost difficulty that a revolt of lunatics and criminals in one city was put down. A great many of the best officers left the service in disgust; many more joined the Carlists; and it was soon found that the creation of an army was not work that could be done in a month or a year. Troops enough were soon found to disperse the Cortes, but enough have not been found to this day to drive the Carlist pretender out of Spain. In fact, his assailants are simply battalions of badly organized, badly led militia. The whole story, which is now an old one, is a fresh illustration of the truth that the republic of a great many European radicals resembles the kingdom of God in not being of this world, however unlike it may be in other respects. In fact, it rests on the assumption that every man will do his duty, while all orderly and successful human society has hitherto rested, and, if we are to place any reliance on experience, will always rest, on the very different assumption, that men will not do their duty if they can help it, and that they have to be reminded of it and pushed into it by endless contrivances.

At Madrid complete despondency seems to prevail, and the feeling in favor of foreign intervention apparently grows. The press points out that there would be nothing new or humiliating in this, because Spain has frequently had intervention when she got into trouble. The English intervened to drive out Napoleon; the French intervened in 1823; the British sent a "legion" to intervene in the last Carlist war. Who is expected to intervene now there is no difficulty in guessing. There is only one power in Europe in the least likely to do it, and that is Germany, and German intervention, which the English papers scouted as preposterous, they now begin to set down among the probabilities. The temptation to Bismarck would be the display of German preponderance, and the chance of giving the Ultramontane party a severe castigation; of establishing German influence in the Peninsula; and, his worst enemies say, of irritating France into some act or expression that would bring her again under the millstone. On the other hand, there is a report that the Madrid Government has offered the command of the Northern army to Marshal Bazaine, on condition that he will bring with him a hundred French officers. In fact, there seems to be no scheme too humiliating for Spaniards to entertain just now. The nation is apparently without morale enough either to carry on war or stay at peace.

There is nothing new in French politics. The elections of the Councils-general of the Departments, to which a good deal of importance was attached as an expression of public opinion, have given a heavy majority to the Monarchists—divided between Legitimists and Bonapartists—and it is generally acknowledged that the Bonapartists are gaining ground. In the last three elections for the Assembly—those of Pas de Calais, Alpes Maritimes, and Seine-et-Oise—a Bonapartist has triumphed in the first and Republicans in the others. The Republicans are, in fact, slowly increasing in numbers in the Assembly as vacancies occur, and so are the Bonapartists, but not in the same degree. The Septennat is in the meantime growing much more irritable, and is laying a heavy hand on the press—suspensions of newspapers being very common for the use of "insulting expressions" towards the Government. The exceeding thin-skinnedness of the Frenchmen about "insults," however, deprives this of a great deal of its significance as regards the tendencies of Marshal MacMahon's Government, though it is none the less a bad sign for the future of France. It is hard to see how a parliamentary government can succeed in a country in which a man is driven almost crazy if any poor scamp calls him names. A man on the streets of Rouen the other day indulged in some slangy abuse of a general who was driving past in his carriage, whereupon the carriage was stopped, the general got out, came up to the man, and asked him with great agitation—"Miserable coward, why do you insult me?" And the man, who was half-drunk, had to be arrested and tried, and sent to jail for thirteen months, before the social equilibrium was restored.

The Chinese and Japanese are and have been for months on the verge of a war, brought about through the performances of the savage inhabitants of the island of Formosa, which lies off the Chinese coast, not far from Amoy; though for ages subject to China, strange to say it has not been wholly conquered by Chinese civilization, so that the natives of the eastern part remain savages and pirates, for whose outrages on foreigners the Chinese Government has declined to consider itself responsible, leaving injured nations to get redress as best they could, provided they did not occupy the soil. As the island is in the direct highway of Chinese commerce, the morals of the people have of course long proved a great hindrance and annoyance. This year a Japanese vessel was wrecked on the coast and the crew plundered as usual, whereupon the Japanese, who are rather anxious to try their new Western armament and drill, and have to find work of some kind for the discharged retainers of the great Daimios, failing to get redress from Peking, landed troops, chastised the islanders, and occupied their territory. This caused so much indignation among the Chinese on the mainland that an ultimatum was sent to the Japanese Government from Peking, calling on it to withdraw within three months or take the consequences. But the Japanese refused to stir, and sent an embassy, which insisted on going right up to Peking, offering to evacuate if China will undertake to keep the Formosans in order herself, and will acknowledge that the Japanese were in the right in landing on the island. The Chinese are in the meantime pursuing a policy of delay, it is believed, with a view of getting ready to fight, and there is a rumor that they are trying to negotiate a loan of $15,000,000 through "an influential American firm," which, if true, is perhaps the most striking proof they have yet given of readiness to adopt Western usages.

THE ELECTIONS.

THERE is the usual variety of explanations of the Democratic victories in Ohio and Indiana. It means the growing disgust of the people with Republican rule generally; it means a rebuke of poor Republican nominations; it means the division of the party on temperance and other local issues; it means the demand of the majority in these States for more paper-money; and it means horror of a third term. We find all these views of it taken with equal vehemence in Republican and Democratic papers, and there are facts which give a certain amount of plausibility to each of them. Candid lookers-on must admit, however, that the main reason of the change is a combination of growing hostility to the dominant party with growing indifference to its fate, and this is a theory which is not upset by any talk about "local issues." The national questions now pending are of such transcendent importance that few Republicans are likely to put them in the second place except those who are dissatisfied with the treatment of them by the party in power. Saying that the party is defeated because its members left it in order to take part in small State controversies, is an apology of the same character as that so often put forward by the European radicals for the failure of their republics, that the republic would succeed if it was not for the bad men. The mark of a true republic is that it succeeds in spite of the bad men; and the mark of a strong party is strength—or, in other words, the willingness of most people to vote its ticket. Nor can it be truly said that this is the lukewarm second year of the Presidential term, when people are usually careless or indifferent. With the Southern problem and the currency problem unsettled, no year can be "an off-year" in Federal politics.

We fear, too, it must be said that there is no sincere grief over the result anywhere outside official circles. We venture to assert that the feeling among ninety-nine hundredths of the better class of Republicans towards the party is very like that of the old Scotch minister who prayed for Charles I.—"Laird, shak him ower the mouth o' hell, but dinna cast him in"; that is, they are not altogether sorry to see the managers thoroughly frightened at this distance from the Presidential election, in the hope that it may awaken them during the next two years to a sense of the gravity of the situation. Public patience has been sorely tried during the last two years by the indifference of the party about the state of things at the South, by its treachery in the matter of civil-service reform, its imbecility with regard to the currency, and by the looseness of its morality; and, finally, is now troubled by the boldness of the countenance given to the third-term cackle, and the mendacity of the "outrage" uproar. The convention at Chattanooga has been a very hard thing for decent people to bear. Its principal members have been prominent for some time back in all the scandals and disorders of Southern politics. There is a deep-seated feeling among good citizens at the North that such worthies as Pinchback, McClure, Clayton, and Brooks (of Arkansas) ought, if they do not dread the penitentiary, at least to avoid obtruding themselves prominently on the public gaze. Their coming together, therefore, under the eyes of the whole country, to offer to supply "outrages" for the use of the party during the winter, was trespassing too far on popular forbearance and good temper. The state of mind of these Southern "loyalists" was well illustrated by a letter to the convention by Governor Davis of Texas, which has been since printed as a broadsheet, and circulated widely as an indictment of the Democratic party at the South. Governor Davis is one of the best of the Southern Republicans, and yet he declared that from his knowledge of Moses of South Carolina, and of Kellogg of Louisiana, he would not believe any of the charges made against them.

The probable consequences of the Democratic victories are, however, of more importance than their causes, and are likely enough to be serious. They are likely, in the first place, to produce other successes of a similar character in November by the process of stimulation applied to the wavering, which has been so often described by the newspapers. A great many indifferent, hesitating people will vote the Democratic as the winning ticket, and this result is likely to be very marked in this State, owing to the excellence of both the candidates for the governorship. Many Republicans even will feel that they cannot do local mischief by voting for Tilden, and they will seize the opportunity of emphasizing the rebuke uttered by Indiana and Ohio. Their number, too, is not at all unlikely to be increased by the sight of the chastening effect which the Western overthrow is already producing on the organs and the managers. Those who were toying with the third-term idea are already dropping it as if it were an explosive compound, and some have begun to declare that they never liked the look of it. We suspect Mr. Conkling begins to feel that it might not have been amiss to condemn it in express terms at Utica. We think, too, that the theory that the managers could arrange things so that the third term would be introduced to the Republican Convention in 1876, and voted by acclamation, while the people stood helplessly by and bowed their necks to the yoke, has received a rude shaking within the last few days. We now see clearly enough that the people have only to be satisfied that politicians are thinking gravely of a third term, to make every politician in the country swear two years before the Convention that the mere thought of it is hateful to him. We are in a bad way doubtless, but things have not come to that pass yet

There is, however, no matter how salutary the influence of Democratic victories on the Republican party may be, great reason to fear that they may work a good deal of mischief. If the Democrats were a regularly organized opposition, led by able men, provided with a body of political doctrine and a stock of well-understood and deeply cherished traditions, most thinking people would say that it was about time that the Republican party gave way to it. It would be hard to point out a single point of policy or morals that would suffer by the change. A party which has put the Attorney-General in command of the army and navy, which has Butler for one of its chief counsellors, which has acknowledged its inability to legislate on the principal questions of the day, and whose President is the intimate friend of "Boss" Shepherd, has clearly outlived its usefulness, and it would be well if a successor could be found for it. But the Democratic party is not a regularly organized opposition. It has no body of political doctrine, and no traditions and no leaders. It is a loose, incoherent mass of persons, scattered in greater or less numbers over the Union, without any common creed or common aims, and no hundred of them think alike on any topic of national interest. Nobody can say what are their views about the currency, or the tariff, or the Southern problem, or the transportation problem, or the civil-service question, or any other question. Some of them say one thing on all these topics, and some say another, the exact opposite. The *World* and some of the New Yorkers say that the Democratic creed is summed up in the phrases "hard money, free trade, home rule"; but the Indiana and Ohio brethren want paper-money and plenty of it and "virtual repudiation of the public debt"; and you probably could not find a Democrat in the country who would define for you what he meant by "home rule" and at the same time explain to you how it was to be attained or preserved. The only things by which a Democrat is distinguishable from a Republican are the name and his desire to get the Republican out of office. Now, even if we admit that a "party" can be made up in this way, such a party is clearly not an opposition—that is, an organization possessing certain definite political aims, and ready to take charge of the government if called on. There is, therefore, no successor for the Republican party ready; and until opinions and sympathies and ends have taken more definite shape and crystallized into something like organization, nothing is to be gained by turning the Republicans out of power, although doubtless much may be gained by cutting down their majority in the House of Representatives.

On the contrary, there is very great danger, of which we would warn those who are irritated or alarmed by the third-term talk, that if these Democratic triumphs go much further it may ruin our chances of a better régime in 1876. They will send into Congress a considerable force of politicians who have had no party training and are under no party discipline and have no fixed party principles, who will, we may be sure, be tolerably violent and extra-

vagant in their talk about the South and the public debt and the currency, and this talk will find plenty of echo among their followers out-of-doors, and will rouse a great deal of unreasoning expectation at the South, and spread alarm among the public creditors, and deepen the already too deep distrust and despondency of business circles, and bring the Convention of 1876 together in the midst of a feverish reaction, in which the rashest, most reckless, and unscrupulous of the Republicans would once more be in the ascendant, and the principles and practices of constitutional government be placed in greater peril than ever. This, it must be confessed, is a deplorable dilemma. There is one way out of it, and only one. We must get the Southern question settled. We must insist on the carrying-out of the original theory, and the only sound one, on which reconstruction was based, viz., that the ballot would enable the negro to take care of himself, and thus relieve the National Government of a duty which it had neither the authority nor the machinery to perform. Our firm belief is that if the negro at the South were once fully convinced that he had to rely on the ballot and on industry and conciliation for his peace and security, and that no troops were coming, and that there was no money to divide, Southern troubles would rapidly cease, and such carpet-baggers and scalawags as have not enriched themselves would return to their bars and barber-shops and let the unhappy black man alone. After this consummation had been reached, parties would grow up at the North around those great questions of administration and legislation which the war and the rapid natural development of the country have raised, and we should once more resume the path of careful and orderly progress from which the slavery agitation and its consequences have during the last generation driven us. It were better that all the blacks and whites now living south of Mason and Dixon's line were sunk in the sea than go on as we are going now, for we are forming habits and establishing precedents which can only lead to a result over which many generations would mourn and wonder. It ought not to be necessary to say again and again in this country, and at this time of day, that no problem of peace was ever yet settled by bayonets. Infantry, cavalry, and artillery have never yet proved an efficient substitute for the courts of justice, and they never will.

A CASE FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE.

FOR some days past we have seen scattered through the newspapers references to an important charge to a United States grand jury in Kentucky, delivered by Judge Ballard of that State. Finding it quoted with praise and admiration in the Democratic papers, we have looked into the Republican organs to see what could be said on the other side; and we have there learned that this charge was indeed important; that, in the opinion of no less a person than the official divulger of the secrets of the Attorney-General's breast, this charge of Judge Ballard was the disloyal act of a treasonable man; that it was an opinion intended and calculated to nullify and abrogate the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution of the United States; to deprive the negro of the rights guaranteed him by the great charter of the country, and wrung for him from the humbled legislatures of eleven sovereign States; we have learned also that Judge Ballard in this charge greatly exceeded the acknowledged limits of judicial power, and undertook to lay it down to a docile (and probably Democratic) jury that the masked assassin and the midnight robber might murder or plunder the African at his will upon the highways of Kentucky, when in reality, and as a matter of law, this question was still to be decided by the Supreme Court *in banco;* more than this, we learnt from our Republican contemporaries that iniquities like these, committed by a judge of the United States, could not any longer be tolerated; that they demanded condign punishment—or, in other words, the impeachment of the criminal for high crimes and misdemeanors before the Senate of the United States.

We have now before us a copy of the charge of Judge Ballard, and are surprised to find that it differs very much from the picture of it presented to our imagination. Far from being a hot, impassioned appeal to the Kentucky Ku-klux, urging them to go on and complete their bloody work, the Judge denounces the Ku-klux, saying, in so many words, that outrages are "extremely grievous"; that they are "a disgrace to our State and to our civilization"; that "they are tarnishing the fair name of the State"; and that "it is of the highest importance that they should be repressed by swift and severe punishment." As to the negro, he is of opinion that, under the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments, the colored citizen has obtained a great deal of protection and sheltering care; that, for instance, all that important part of the Ku-klux Act of April 20, 1871, providing punishment in all cases in which "two or more persons within any State or Territory of the United States shall conspire together, ... by force, intimidation, or threat, to prevent, hinder, or delay the execution of any law of the United States; . . . . or by force, intimidation, or threat, to prevent any person from accepting or holding any office of trust or place of confidence under the United States, or from discharging the duties thereof; or by force, intimidation, or threat, to induce any officer of the United States to leave any State, district, or place where his duties as such officer might lawfully be performed; or to injure him in his person or property, on account of his lawful discharge of the duties of his office, or to injure his person while engaged in the lawful discharge of the duties of his office; or to injure his property, so as to molest, interrupt, hinder, or impede him in the discharge of his official duty; or by force, intimidation, or threat, to deter any party or witness in any court of the United States from attending such court, or from testifying in any matter pending in such court, fully, freely, and truthfully; or to injure any such party or witness in his person or property on account of his having so attended or testified; or by force, intimidation, or threat, to influence the verdict, presentment, or indictment of any juror in his person or property, on account of any verdict, presentment, or indictment lawfully assented to by him, on account of his being or having been such juror"—we have not space to quote in full—is not only plainly constitutional, but "the statute might have gone further than it does," for it only punishes conspiracies of two or more persons to do particular acts, and has strangely neglected to provide punishment for the acts themselves.

All this does not seem very treasonable. What is the crime, then, which Judge Ballard has committed? In brief, it is this. The Ku-klux Act provides that "if two or more persons within any State or Territory of the United States shall conspire together, or go in disguise upon the public highway, or upon the premises of another, for the purpose, either directly or indirectly, to deprive any person or any class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, or of equal privileges or immunities under the laws, . . . such persons so offending shall be deemed guilty of a crime against the United States," and punished accordingly. This provision Judge Ballard directed his jury was unconstitutional, for the reason that the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States—providing that "all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws"—is evidently directed at the State acting through its legislative, executive, or judicial department, and not at individual members of the community who may take it into their heads to rob or murder in disguise on the public highways, to commit arson or burglary, or even conspire to dress themselves up in white sheet and skull-and-bones, and, carrying a jack-o'-lanthorn, to go trespassing on negroes' premises. These offences have always been and must always be punished by the State. In other words, Judge Ballard upholds the Ku-klux Act in its main features and important part, and declines to take jurisdiction under it where its provisions are plainly unconstitutional.

We would suggest to the learned Attorney-General that instead of the cumbrous and obsolete method of impeachment there is a

shorter way of securing punishment for Judge Ballard, and that is by proceeding against him and his jury for a conspiracy, under this same Ku-klux law, to deprive the negroes of Kentucky of the equal protection of the laws and the privileges and immunities of the Fourteenth Amendment. It would be difficult to imagine a better way of proving that the United States has jurisdiction in these cases than by locking up and fining any judge who thinks it has not.

THE EXPERIENCE OF A GREAT CORPORATION.

THE London & North-Western Railway Company controls one-seventh part of all the railroad mileage of England. By construction, amalgamation, or lease, it owns and operates 1,600 miles of track, represented by £76,500,000 of capital, while its revenues in 1873 amounted to £8,767,719, and its net income for that year was not less than £4,181,664. This, we presume, now that the East India Company is extinct, is the largest and most wealthy private corporation of the Old World. It has, however, been surpassed in the New. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company now controls 6,000 miles of track, represented by $400,000,000 of securities; its annual revenues amount to $80,000,000, leaving $25,000,000 of net income in the hands of the Company.

In both cases, these colossal figures represent less than half a century of growth, for the English road was begun in 1826, and the American not until 1831. Only as recently as 1854 was the latter completed from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, and not until 1869 did the enterprise at last enter upon its latest career of startling development. Vanderbilt had then taken control of the New York Central, while Fisk and Gould were manipulating the Erie; both were stretching out to the West, and seeking to grasp and monopolize the vast commerce which flowed to and fro between the Valley of the Mississippi and the seaboard. Their projects, combinations, and threats soon awoke the Pennsylvania interest to a sense of impending danger, and under the energetic lead of its first vice-president, Colonel Scott, that interest soon made its presence and its power felt. It would have been difficult to conceive and impossible to depict a defeat more ludicrously decisive than that which then befell the Erie robbers. They were no match for their formidable competitors, who thereafter and for the time being seemed both ubiquitous and insatiable. First, the great region west of the Alleghanies, and bordered by the Lakes, the Ohio, and the Mississippi, was secured; then, control was obtained of the roads of New Jersey; next came development to the South, and the Potomac and the Ohio were both crossed, the first in the direction of Richmond, Charlotte, and Montgomery, the last with an eye to New Orleans. Here the corporation rested, but those to whom was confided the conduct of its affairs did not. They were equally active in Michigan, in Minnesota, and in Texas. They manipulated the Pacific railways, and managed construction companies; they were manifestly ubiquitous; they were apparently successful.

Here is railroading on the largest possible scale, and it is only through railroading on the largest possible scale that certain results can be accomplished. To transport either persons or merchandise at the lowest possible cost, corporations must operate thousands of miles of road, must handle millions of tons, and must deal with tens of millions of money. This the Pennsylvania corporation did, until, alarmed at the rapidity of its pace, those interested in it insisted on pausing to take, as it were, an account of stock. They did so; and the results as now made public are of great interest in their bearings on what is known as the transportation problem. A few of these results we now propose to discuss for the benefit of railroad reformers, real and professed.

First, as to the cost of railroads and the profit on capital invested in them. The Pennsylvania Railroad proper includes 365 miles of road, which represent an actual present value, including equipment and terminal facilities, of $94,000,000, though the investment stands at but $48,500,000, or $132,000 per mile. On this trunk-road, it is alleged, the net earnings are no less than 19 per cent. per annum. But the parent line has directly connected with it, east of Pittsburg, 656 miles of branches, and also leases 1,387 additional miles of railroad and 408 miles of canal; making a total of 2,816 miles of railroad and canal, representing an aggregate cost of $76,000 per mile, upon which, taken together, a net annual profit of 7.87 per cent. is realized. West of Pittsburg, the corporation controls 3,025 miles of road. By one system, of 1,707 miles, it reaches Chicago and the Lakes; by another, of 1,318 miles, it gets access to Cincinnati and St. Louis on the south and west. The first of these two systems is represented by a capital of over $51,000 per mile, upon which the annual profit is 8.42 per cent; the last by an average of $65,000, upon which the annual profit is 1.38 per cent. The average capital account of the whole 6,000 miles is close upon $67,000 per mile. This, it will be noticed, is as near as may be 50 per cent. more than the average of railroads in the United States. Probably, all allowances being made, including interest and the cost of equipment and terminal facilities, this $67,000 per mile represents, much more nearly than would generally be supposed, the actual cost of these properties; certainly, it comes much nearer to that amount than to what it would now cost to duplicate them. The net earnings of this whole system of picked roads thus amount to 6.39 per cent. per annum on the capital which they represent. The average earnings of the Massachusetts system are 6.26 per cent. per annum—a close verification of public by private statistics.

At the present value of money in this country, this is working upon a tolerably close margin of profit; it is hardly a reasonable return on the capital invested. Turning now to another matter, the next question is how much work, and at what cost, is done to earn this 6.39 per cent. The cost of the Pennsylvania road has risen in ten years from $32,000,000 to nearly $52,000,000, or 60 per cent. Here is a large amount of what the apostles of the Granger movement call "water." What this "water" really is we propose to show presently. During the same term of ten years, the tonnage moved one mile has increased from 420 millions to 1,384 millions, or 230 per cent., and the passengers moved one mile from 146 millions to 177 millions, or 20 per cent. How was this vastly increased call for transportation met? It could be met only in one way—by increase of capital—more locomotives and cars, additional tracks, larger stations. All these cost money. This money had to be invested; it was procured from some quarter, and was invested with the result that 60 per cent. of new capital brought in 69 per cent. of increased earnings to the company. But this was the least noticeable part of the operation. The real question for the consideration of those who declaim against the increase of railroad capital is—Who gets the advantage of this "water"? Let us see. What was the amount of additional work done to earn the 69 per cent. increase? The amount of freight transported increased 230 per cent., the number of passengers 20 per cent.; in other words, through carrying an increased quantity by means of an increased capital, the amount paid by those who used the road was reduced from 2.48 cents per mile for each ton of merchandise carried to 1.41 cents; and while the cost of carrying passengers, owing to the growth of luxury in travel, has actually increased from 1.92 to 2.07 cents per mile, the net earnings on that business have decreased from 7 mills to 4.7 mills per mile. In this case, the public has reaped the lion's share of the advantage which has accrued from the much-abused increase of capital. The one decisive result which has flowed from it has been the decrease of rates. In other words, the larger the scale, the cheaper the transportation. To such a degree has this been the case that, although the increase of volume in freights has enabled the Pennsylvania Company to transport at a reduction of 37 per cent. from former rates, yet at the same time every dollar of the increased investment between 1864 and 1874 returned 28 per cent. of net income in 1873. Here is a very remarkable illustration of a principle in railroad economy which has hitherto been very partially understood, even by those who have made a study of the subject. A railroad is, on the one hand, a most expensive animal to keep. Its calls for more capital to develop or accommodate new business are unceasing; a veritable daughter of the horse-leech, it is incessantly crying: More! more!! On the other

hand, it is equally true that where a certain stage of railroad development is reached, every dollar of new capital judiciously invested in it not only does a much larger proportionate work of transportation than any dollar originally invested, but it also earns a much larger percentage of profit—in other words, that increased capital, so often and with such noisy ignorance denounced as "pure water," is exactly the motor which at once secures to the transporter reduced rates of carriage, and to the investor enhanced profits. In the case of the Pennsylvania Company, where the new capital will probably be applied with excellent judgment, it is now estimated that until the business of the road shall have been increased 75 per cent. over what it now is, every million of dollars hereafter invested will yield $430,000 of net income per annum.

Upon one other point, also, the experience of the Pennsylvania Railroad has been most instructive. It clearly illustrates the very important fact that, under our present industrial conditions, the reduction of freight on cereals between the interior and the seaboard in no way permanently benefits the individual Western farmer. This is a proposition which the Granger mind seems wholly unable to grasp. It is none the less true, and has indeed been to a degree demonstrated. Every reduction of cost of carriage to the seaboard does materially extend the area of production of cereals, and does also supply them to the Eastern consumers at greatly reduced rates, but, so far as the farmers are concerned, it in no wise affects their condition. If the Granger's vision of the future could be realized in letter and in spirit—if a double-track, steel-clad, exclusively-freight railway could be built to every farmer's door and carry thence his produce at a reduction of two-thirds of the present cost—the result would still be what has just been stated. It is exactly this which, on a smaller scale, the Pennsylvania and other roads have been doing during the last ten years. The facilities for transportation have been increased, and the charges upon it reduced, until breadstuffs are now brought to the Eastern markets over distances but a few years ago regarded as insuperable, and at rates below the actual cost. What has been the result? Most admirable for the Eastern consumer, most unsatisfactory for the Western producer; the area of production has constantly extended, the price of breadstuffs has not risen. The whole system of hot-bed railroad construction has but tended to this same end: more railroads, cheaper transportation; more acres under tillage, more produce on the market; cheaper food, richer consumers and poorer farmers. The sequence is too obvious to dwell upon. Annihilate the whole cost of transportation on cereals in this country to-morrow, and an incalculable blessing would be conferred on the world at large, but no benefit at all would permanently accrue to the Western producer; his area of production would be vastly increased, and the number of farmers proportionately multiplied. This has been the case in the past, and it will surely be so in the future, just so long as the food-producing area admits of indefinite extension. When the limits of that area are reached, then and not till then will the value of cereals permanently rise much above their necessary cost of production. Until that time the cost of breadstuffs in the Eastern markets will never vary greatly from their first cost of production, plus the cost of their carriage, whatever that may be. The Grangers are wrestling bravely with the laws of political economy, somewhat to their own detriment and to that of their good allies, the railroads, but very much to the benefit of the Eastern consumers. With good reason, therefore, does the Pennsylvania Company, out of a plentiful experience, deduce these sound conclusions: "The tendency of prices for the products of the farm is downward; the cost of transportation cannot be safely reduced below existing rates. . . . The Western farmers will soon find, if they succeed in destroying the capital invested in the railways, that this will not relieve them. They must realize the truth of their position, and acknowledge the fact that *they have gone too far West.*"

"CHARGES."

WHEN the Greeley movement was on the point of expiring, and the furniture of the "headquarters" was passing into the hands of the dealers, the secretary, we believe it was, issued a species of manifesto explaining the causes of the failure of this great effort to save the nation. It contained a great many striking and just observations, among others that the "charges" made against eminent Greeleyites, and by them against their opponents, produced little or no effect—for, said the writer, "our people expect charges to be made"; meaning, we presume, that our people look on "charges" as one of the ordinary electioneering devices, like fireworks, artillery salutes, and torchlight processions, addressed rather to the imagination than to the understanding, and therefore pay little heed to them. Originally, a charge was really an accusation—that is, an allegation that A. or B. had been guilty of certain immoral and disreputable acts which ought to deprive him of the confidence and respect of honorable men, and which he was bound to repel by sufficient proof. It has, however, gradually lost this character. The chargee is of course still expected to reply, but only for the purpose of foiling the enemy. The inconclusiveness of his reply, or his failure to make one, rarely damages him much with his friends, who usually make their reception of him the more enthusiastic the worse the charge is and the more completely he has failed to meet it. This is not a point which we care to illustrate by example, but most of our readers will be able to do so for themselves. In fact, it would hardly be going too far to say, that the more serious a charge is, the more sympathy it excites among the adherents of the accused person. The great object of their consideration is, not its probability, but the degree of suffering it has caused him, and they rally round him as a wounded man, without greatly caring whether he is a slandered man or not. There are no meetings so enthusiastic as those at which a public man, whose character his enemies have been assailing, presents himself to his friends and admirers, and at which an enquiry into the truth of what was said against him would be deemed more than impertinent. Nor can we recall at this moment a single recent case in which a charge has driven an experienced politician out of public life. Indeed, the failure of charges to produce any impression in such cases proves either that the newspapers have carried the use of them too far, or that they are using them without being aware of the great though silent change which has come over popular standards since the practice of throwing mud at candidates for office was first started. It must be remembered that, to make mud-throwing effective, there must be a general demand on the part of a community that a man shall be clean. Now, while making every allowance for the enfeebling effects of excess on the part of the press, we think there is no doubt that the demands of the community as regards moral cleanliness have been sensibly lowered within the last thirty years. When we go on to explain this remark, we touch on a very large subject, but we can at present only touch on it—namely, the influence of the rapid settlement of the country, and of the enormous development of what we may call the frontier population, in proportion to that of older districts, on the morals and manners of all. Before the railroads, the frontier with its moral and physical roughness was a little fringe on the edge of a very high civilization. Reflex influence on the thickly settled districts it could not have, because its inhabitants were few and sore beset with the lowest forms of care. With the railroads and steamboats came not only a prodigious opening up of new lands, but a prodigious rush of people to take possession of them. "Going West" became the fashion. Immigration from Europe began to be encouraged, and the immigrants began to swarm over in great multitudes. Wonderful dreams of material development took possession of everybody's mind. The "setting sun" became an object of worship. The supply of quarter-sections of land to "hardy pioneers" began to seem the great object for which the Republic was founded. The hog, corn, and cattle business rose into gigantic dimensions. Then came the railroad mania. We could not, people thought, run our railways out too far or too fast, as long as we had waste lands to give away and could get men to settle on them, and we sent agents all over Europe with flaming circulars urging all the restless, discontented, and unlucky people to come over and cultivate the prairies.

We have reached the end of our tether, as regards the material results of this movement—that is, we have got to the point beyond which we cannot profitably raise any more agricultural produce in reliance on foreign markets; or, in other words, as an advocate of the Grangers ruefully put it before the Social Science Association in this city last spring, farming out West now only pays four per cent., when banking and manufacturing at the East pay twenty. Our farmers have got so far West that they cannot sell in Liverpool without making the railroads carry goods below cost, or, in other words, without cheating somebody; and their condition is not likely to change for the better for some time, owing to the recent and rapid development of the railroad systems of Eastern Europe, and particularly of Russia, which is bringing the greatest wheat and corn fields of the Old World one-half nearer the markets than those of Iowa and Minnesota.

The material side of the question is obvious enough. The moral one is

less so, but it is even more important, and we may add that it has long occupied the minds of those observers who are not dazzled by agricultural statistics, and who know that man does not live by bread alone. Civilization is the product of dense population. It is bred by the daily attrition of mind against mind, and the daily comparison of needs and capacities. It radiates from the city over the country. The more ground you try to cover with a given population, the harder work you have to keep alive the tastes and wants of civilized life. The isolated man is constantly tending towards barbarism. You may fight this tendency vigorously, as it has been fought here, by improvement in the means of communication and in the spread of ideas, and you may thus conceal its coarser manifestations, but you cannot wholly eradicate it. It works all the while in spite of you, covertly and insidiously, though it may be disguised by costume or language. In the old days before the war, you might sit down by the fire of a country tavern in many parts of the Southwest with men dressed in black broadcloth, and looking as gentle as New England ministers, who would talk to you of Shakspere and Macaulay, but who if anything went wrong would be converted on the instant into Comanches and Apaches. Slavery had something to do with this, but isolation had far more. We have, therefore, by our prodigious increase of our frontier population, sensibly lowered the average of our civilization, and we begin to feel the reflex influence of far Western standards on our morals and manners, not at Washington only, but all over the East—and by the West we mean more particularly the regions settled within the last twenty years.

Now, the most marked trait of new communities is their indifference to character, and this trait has been greatly stimulated in our new communities by the rapidity with which they were settled, and the heterogeneous composition of their population. The settlers come from the four corners of the globe, and find themselves with every possible variety of antecedents thrown together by a series of accidents. It is a necessity of their condition that these antecedents should not be curiously enquired into, and that every man should take short views of his neighbor's history, and assume that whatever his past may have been, here he means to do well. In other words, people are not expected to have a reputation, because a reputation is a thing which one cannot carry about with him to strange places. In Texas, in the early days of its history, the enquiry, "What was your name before you came here?" was not considered offensive. A new society, made up of wanderers in pursuit of a better future, has in fact to be founded on an act of amnesty and oblivion, and has to allow every man to start with a "clean record." It is an excellent arrangement, and contains the secret of Western success; but it has its inconveniences when applied to older communities, where life runs more in grooves, where mistakes are less retrievable, and where a false start makes total failure very probable, and where keener competition and closer interdependence make absolute and persistent individual integrity an almost indispensable part of the social machinery. As population gets dense, and the social organization complex and delicate, we cannot afford to let our knaves run, and thank God we are rid of them, or laugh with them over their rascalities. The wave of Western influence, therefore—which makes "charges" light matters, and character of small consequence, and expiation easy and "records" short, and elevates sympathy with unsuccessful sinners into a social virtue—from which we have no doubt we are suffering, is a serious hindrance to good government as well as to some other things.

One of the pleasantest signs we notice in the pending canvass is the growing disinclination of the leading newspapers to make charges on behalf of the party. One of the most revolting features of the canvass of 1872 was the readiness of editors to allow themselves to be used as syringes through which the managers squirted filth on their political opponents. This year there are indications of a change for the better. Opposing candidates and politicians in this State at least, perhaps under the influence of the Brooklyn Scandal, are largely carrying on their own battles by means of "statements," which are, however, a very harmless kind of weapon. A statement is so long and so minute, and appears in such very small print, that the general public never thinks of reading it, unless it deals in some manner with the sexual relation. A charge of unchastity is, in fact, the only charge you can spread over two or three columns of a newspaper with the least chance of having it perused by the community; and, luckily, charges of unchastity do not damage a male politician. If they did, each canvass would flood the country with nastiness of which the Brooklyn Scandal can give only a faint idea. Charges always assail a person at his weakest point, and a man's honesty is always his weakest point; that is, a man's mode of dealing with money is thus far accepted as the great test of his character. Consequently, when a candidate is accused of anything serious, it is of some form of pecuniary infidelity or unscrupulousness. He has stolen, or forged, or defrauded, or cheated in some form or other for purposes of gain, we are always told, and the charger's ingenuity is always expended in contriving new forms of dishonesty. If anybody will take the trouble to look through the principal charges of 1872, he will find that they are all varieties of unlawful greed for money. But of course charges of this kind are in their very nature dull reading. They bristle with figures, points of law and affidavits, and few wade through them except the editors of newspapers.

This has a bearing on the question of woman suffrage which we hardly need to point out, and which it would be impossible to describe in detail without entering on a somewhat unsavory field of sociological enquiry. The quarrel now raging between the New York and Boston societies, and which has to some extent found vent in the Beecher-Tilton case, would, however, furnish one striking illustration for anybody who saw danger to social as well as political purity from public contentions between politicians of both sexes. We shall quit the subject with the remark, that it is not with stealing or cheating that female candidates would be charged by their rivals; and we would warn those who are now deploring the spectacle which our political struggles as carried on by men so often present, that the disregard of the volcanic and all-pervading force of the sexual passion, to which so many ladies and gentlemen are treating us so airily, is but a thin crust over such a pit of humiliation and degradation as no generation of the modern world has yet had to look down into.

Correspondence.

SCHOOL INSPECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I desire to call your attention to the fact that almost the identical measure which you recently advocated in your article on "Schools and Scholarship" has been in successful operation for some years in the State of Michigan.

Every practical educator knows that the greatest obstacle in the way of raising the colleges and universities to a higher grade of educational work is the difficulty of getting a higher grade of preparation. Nor is this difficulty obviated by the willingness of a few schools to do everything asked of them. Something approaching uniformity of preparation is an absolute necessity, and therefore it is desirable, not that a few should be raised to a grade out of all harmony and sympathy with the others, but that the whole number of schools of this class should be uniformly raised to a higher plane of general excellence. The difficulties in the way of accomplishing such a result, especially in the newer States, are far more formidable than to many they would at first appear. Something in this direction has been attempted even in our own country, however. It is to this that I desire to call the attention of your readers.

Some five years ago, the authorities of the University of Michigan, convinced that something ought to be done to secure greater uniformity of instruction in the preparatory schools, gave notice that under certain circumstances and conditions the examinations for admission to the University would be dispensed with, or, more properly speaking perhaps, would be conducted, not at the University, but at the preparatory schools themselves. The conditions then fixed upon have been somewhat modified as circumstances have seemed to demand, until, at the present time, they have taken the form of the announcement now annually published in the "University Calendar." This announcement is as follows:

"SPECIAL NOTICE TO PREPARATORY SCHOOLS.

"A committee of the Faculty will visit, once every year, any public high school in Michigan, on request of its school board, and report its condition to the Faculty.

"If the Faculty shall be satisfied from such report that the preparatory courses of study in the school thus visited embrace all the subjects required for admission to the University, and are taught by competent instructors, then the graduates from such preparatory course will be admitted to the Freshman Class of the University without examination.

"They must present to the president, within three months after their graduation, the diplomas of their School Board, certifying that they have sustained their examinations in *all* the studies prescribed for admission to one of the three courses, classical, scientific and engineering, or Latin and scientific. They will also be required to appear at once in their classes, otherwise they can be admitted only after examination.

"The privilege of admission on diploma is limited to public schools in Michigan, and their school boards must make the application annually."

The immediate result of this announcement was that some ten or fifteen of the high schools of the State very soon came under the direct and official influence of the University. I speak somewhat indefinitely of the number from the fact that, as the result of the very first visit of the University Committee, several schools were placed upon the list of those accepted, while

several others not placed upon the list were informed of their weaknesses, and of the changes that it would be necessary to make.

The method of procedure has been substantially as follows: Whenever an invitation of any school board reaches the Faculty, a committee of two or three persons is appointed to visit the school from which the invitation has come. Usually, one day is devoted to the examination, which, it should be said, is always understood to be as much an examination of teachers and of methods of teaching as of pupils desiring to enter the University. The lower classes as well as the higher are examined; and the impressions of the committee are freely communicated to the teachers and to the school board. On the report of the committee to the Faculty, the school is accepted or rejected, as the nature of the report seems to demand. In case it is necessary to reject a school, care is always taken to point out, in the final report of the Faculty to the school board, the grounds of such necessity, and to suggest such changes as may, for any reason, appear to be desirable. That the plan is energetically carried out may be inferred from the fact, that no year has passed without the rejection of one or more schools, and that in one instance such rejection was the lot of one of the largest schools in the State.

The influence of this system of examination is to be considered from two points of view: First, in reference to its effect upon the grade of scholarship in the University, and, secondly, in reference to its effect upon the preparatory schools. In regard to the former there has been, and perhaps there still is, some difference of opinion. It is not altogether certain that the grade of scholarship of those admitted on diploma, taken as a whole, is quite equal to what it would be if the same applicants had been collectively subjected to the sifting process of a rigid examination at the time of admission. It should be remarked, however, that even if it occasionally does happen that one who, under the old system, would have been rejected, or put under the burden of heavy conditions, now finds his way into the Freshman class, the disadvantage arising from such a fact is more than overbalanced by the general uniformity of scholarship that is found to have been secured. Moreover, when the student is once within the University, his diploma affords him no protection whatever; if he flags, he is liable to fall out (as indeed several have done), as the result of the term-examinations. Another advantage has been found to accrue from the fact that the grade of scholarship attained by the best high schools in Michigan affords a convenient standard to be used in the examination of applicants from other schools. That this standard is quite as high as the general condition of the schools will warrant, may be fairly inferred from the fact that, the present year, of the whole number of applicants for admission to the Freshman class on examination, about thirty-three per cent. were rejected outright, and that a considerable majority of the others were admitted under more or less heavy conditions.

But it is upon the preparatory schools that the good results of the system are most noticeable. The elevating effect of such an organic connection with the University is now, I believe, universally acknowledged. It is difficult to see how this influence can fail in the future to be very considerable. It is already felt by both teachers and pupils. I am not aware that faith in the success of the method has in a single instance been abandoned; on the contrary, it has several times occurred that prominent teachers have declared themselves thoroughly converted to the scheme after having looked upon it at first with suspicion, or even with positive and outspoken disfavor.

I feel almost like apologizing for presenting these details, but, to tell the truth, it seemed to me a little singular that a journal so thoroughly informed as the *Nation* should go to Oxford and Cambridge for illustrations in support of a method that had been substantially and successfully inaugurated in one of our own States some years before it was attempted in England. If Michigan has been faultily modest in failing to let the excellence of her school system be known, her fault, be it said, is one that is by no means universal.

C. K. A.

Ann Arbor, Mich., Oct. 10, 1874.

"SUBSOILING."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Instead of the candidates depending upon the voters, the voters lie powerless in the hands of the candidates. A nomination by a caucus or convention is considered as a draft upon the voters which has been accepted in advance, and the only thing necessary is to get a signature to the draft, and fix upon its amount. The seeker of the office is at work, using diligently and skilfully the machinery for months, while the body of voters are attending to their private business. At last, when the time for voting draws nigh, they begin to bestir themselves about a candidate, and are told, in the significant phrase of a noted electioneering agent: "Why, bless you, sir, the district has been *subsoiled* long ago." This is but an illustration of the adage that one man with a purpose is a majority; and not less of another maxim, that it is in the nature of political and social power to be always stealing from the many to the few. In old times, crowns and coronets did not steal power from the many; but power, from its nature, slipped from the many to a few, and those few put on crowns and coronets after they got the power. Power in legislation and electioneering is now stealing to the few. Those few, as to some things, and at some times, and in some places, are corporations. As to other things, they are the secret aspirants and their agents, who are specialists in the art of electioneering. As to the *selection* of a candidate, the body of the people have little else than a moral influence, as the people have under the forms of oligarchy. The final *election* at the polls is only the right of saying yea or nay to two candidates. Great masses can, in the nature of things, do no more than that. Now, who are the few that do the selecting of the candidates? Theoretically, they are agents of the voters. In fact, they are mostly agents of the claimants. The work of the claimant is not open work, before the people, based on his real or professed merits or claims, but secret work—in fact, subsoiling. The longer and the more completely the voters can be kept ignorant of the work going on, and of the person for whom it is going on, when he has not sufficient merits of his own, the better. The voters must be left to wake up to find the district subsoiled. This process of subsoiling has no reference to influencing the opinions or wishes of the body of the voters. It consists in making secret combinations and arrangements among persons who hope to get for themselves, for their friends and dependents, offices and posts of any and all descriptions, elected or appointed, legislative, executive, or judicial, State, national, or municipal, log-rolling with them, and organizing and drilling the paid workers in secret squads. After this subsoiling is sufficiently done, some action of a more public nature is allowed, in forms to which is given the look of symptoms of a public opinion.

In the Seventh Massachusetts District, it seems that Dr. Ayer, the pill-maker, has subsoiled to good effect the lands lying about Lexington and Concord. In 1872, he tried it, and the yeomanry and property-holders in the walled towns became so alarmed that they flocked to Judge Hoar as the only *numen* that could save them. This year, he declines to serve again as an antidote, and the patients are left powerless in the doctor's hands.

In the Fourth District, if the Republican voters had been asked a year ago to name, each for himself, independently, a person he would like to have represent the district in Congress, not one in a hundred would have named Mr. Frost or Mr. Hayes. After the summer heats, as the election time draws on, they arouse themselves to their duty as citizens only to find that the two claimants above named have been quietly subsoiling for months, and that it is too late. Scarce a note of this has appeared in the papers, and only a few signs on the surface, discerned by the few knowing ones. And it *is* too late. The Republican voters at their caucuses are *practically* restricted to a yea or nay on these two names. This power they have exercised, and, as a choice between names submitted to them, have taken, as the less unsatisfactory of the two, Mr. Frost's name. After this will come the election; and then the Republican voters are limited to an option between a political opponent and an unsatisfactory ally.

How is this to be cured? One remedy—a violent one—is to vote for your opponent, or not vote, and so teach the subsoilers that a nomination is not a draft accepted in advance, and that the responsibility, of its dishonor lies with those who selected the drawer. The common pulpit and platform remedy is that the body of voters shall attend primary meetings in person. Experience shows that they will not do this to the necessary extent. The reasons for this there is not time or space now to go into. Many of the reasons have become familiar. But the serious symptom is that it is not so much the educated, wealthy, and professional class that abstain from electioneering caucuses—at least in a State like Massachusetts—as it is the middle class of mechanics, tradesmen, and farmers, who are earning livings for themselves and their families. They feel themselves unfitted to understand and use the complex machinery of electioneering, and know that they have no time to learn it and keep learning it, for it is a changing art, especially after they discover, as they soon do, that to understand the work before them at a caucus, or to have a voice in it, they must attend the ante-caucus, which has been held secretly, to arrange the ticket for the caucus. These men are good citizens, and know what they wish done on great questions, but electioneering is too much for them in its present frequency and complexity. If the price of electioneering liberty is to be ceaseless vigilance, they cannot and will not pay the price. This is one of the reasons why, in this age and country, power is found to be stealing from the many to the few. So far as the power of the many is conditioned upon a ceaseless vigilance over complex electioneering machinery, so far it will steal to the few.

J. C.

Boston, October 16.

Notes.

WE have received from Scribner, Armstrong & Co. the concluding volumes (II. and III.) of Froude's 'English in Ireland,' already noticed at length in the *Nation*, Nos. 473, 474.——Another chapter in the controversy over the American art-frauds in Italy has been sent us for publication. It is a broadside containing documents of which we have heretofore given some account, plus a letter from Mr. S. W. Healy replying to Mr. Pierce Connelly's communication to the *Nation* in defence of himself, and also making specific allegations, of a very damaging nature, against the author of the Fisk monument at Brattleboro, Vt., and the Lincoln monument at Springfield, Ill. On the general question we think there is no need of taking any further testimony. As the sculptors implicated do not seem disposed to prosecute their accuser for libel, they had better come home and vindicate themselves if they can by working under the inspection of their own countrymen.——Mr. Alex. J. Sheldon, lately librarian of the Grosvenor Library, Buffalo, writes us that that institution is peculiarly rich in lists, for every one of the Northern States, of those who served in the war of the rebellion in the army or navy. He regards the Pennsylvania muster-roll as the most complete of those which have been published.——The second number of a new Southern magazine is before us. *Our Living and Our Dead* is the rather singular title of it, but, when understood, seen to be appropriate enough. It is the official organ of the North Carolina Branch of the Southern Historical Society, is published at Raleigh, and is "devoted to North Carolina—her past, her present, and her future." The historical department is entirely occupied with reminiscences and annals of the Confederate service, including Gen. Bragg's report on the battle of Chickamauga. The descriptive and statistical department treats of Edgecombe County in 1810, and of Wilmington in 1872; and the educational department gives the text of the statutes organizing the school system of the State, and some good advice to instructors and to the public. We hope the magazine will prosper. If it does, it will do much to confirm North Carolina in her present ways of order and progress.—It is announced that *Every Saturday* will be henceforth merged in the *Living Age*, a consummation which will probably give satisfaction to the reading public as well as to both the parties to the transaction.——The French Canadians in Vermont have had, and perhaps still have, a newspaper printed in their own language. Their Massachusetts brethren are now to be similarly favored. A *Courrier d'Holyoke* has been established in that flourishing manufacturing centre.

—Some years ago the *Nation* called attention to a great Hebrew library, then offered for sale by Fred Müller, of Amsterdam. We had the satisfaction of informing our readers at the proper time that this library had been brought over to the United States, it having been acquired for the Temple Emanuel Congregation of New York. To-day we again call the attention of Hebrew bibliophiles to another and perhaps still larger library, which is to be sold *en bloc*, and we do so in the hope that some American institution of learning, or some Jewish congregation in this country, may be induced to buy it. The library we refer to is the renowned Hebrew library of the late L. Rosenthal, of Hanover, now owned by Mr. G. Rosenthal, banker, of Amsterdam, son of its former possessor. As early as twenty-nine years ago, Zunz, the eminent Jewish scholar, characterized this library as one of the foremost existing ('Zur Geschichte und Literatur,' p. 244). Mr. M. Roest, a Hebrew bibliographer of well-deserved fame, has prepared a catalogue, which is now in the press. The library consists of about 6,000 numbers, and counts between 8,000 and 9,000 volumes. We believe that neither the famous Oppenheimer Library, now forming part of the Bodleian, in Oxford, nor the Heimann Michael Library, acquired for the British Museum in London, had so rich and complete collections of Hebrew books as the Rosenthal Library.

—Anybody who has been in the habit of reading the London *Practitioner* must have acquired a high regard for the editor, Dr. Francis N. Anstie, as a cautious, able, earnest, and unbigoted physician, doing honor to the profession, in which such characters are still to be called rare. In dissecting a subject who had fallen a victim to an obscure school-epidemic, the other day, he wounded himself with fatal effect, and fell a sacrifice on the altar of the humane science to which he had devoted his life. His loss will be keenly felt, and it has already called forth a substantial manifestation of sympathy and regret from leading members of the profession in London, who have taken steps to raise a memorial to him, not only by an appeal to physicians, but to the general public. Dr. Anstie's attention to sanitary matters, and particularly his services in testing the adulteration of food and of standard chemical preparations, were to the immediate advantage of the poor whose condition he sought to ameliorate, and deserve the recognition of all philanthropists. The memorial has taken the highly appropriate shape of aid to Dr. Anstie's family, whose means are slender, and it is also resolved, as an obvious duty, to secure his only son the complete education which his father had designed for him. Contributions for these good purposes may be sent to Mr. Frederick Macmillan, 21 Astor Place, in this city.

—While Dr. Anstie showed what individual example may do to raise a profession whose reputation is so much at the mercy of quacks and charlatans, we are witnessing in this State a promising attempt to rid society of these pests by legislation. In May last a law was passed making it a misdemeanor, punishable by fine and imprisonment, to practise medicine or surgery in New York unless authorized to do so by license or diploma from some chartered school, State board of examiners, or medical society, or to practise under cover of a medical diploma illegally obtained. All practitioners who are destitute of the proper papers are required to submit to examination by the censors of the State, county, or district medical society, within thirty days after being notified to that effect, or take the consequences; and they must earn a certificate which "shall set forth that said censors have found the person to whom it was issued qualified to practise all of the branches of the medical art mentioned in it." These certificates are to be recorded in a special book by the county clerk. We have before us the notification of the censors of the Medical Society of the County of New York, which calls for the name in full of the practitioner to whom the circular is addressed, his residence, the name of the college or university granting his diploma, or society granting his license, with the date of either. The good fruits of this censorship we may hope soon to see. A similar task has been undertaken, quite unofficially and without the support of law, and not, we suppose, without risk of innumerable libel suits, by the San Francisco *News-Letter*, whose peculiar gifts of personal abuse were never better employed. It publishes lists of the quacks who falsely pretend to have received diplomas, notably from European societies, takes account of their protests, prints their illiterate communications to the editor, and doubtless succeeds in making them for the time being uncomfortable and perhaps anxious, and of course thoroughly angry.

—Mr. James Parton, who has been hitherto best known to the public as the writer of entertaining legends of distinguished historical characters, seems to be playing his newly-adopted part of general reformer with considerable skill. He made a slight mistake at the outset, in a noble attempt to purge journalism of its sins by falling foul of the reporters, and accusing them of inaccuracy and a disregard of precise truth—a dangerous thing for any one, and especially for him, to do, for the reporters have been able to point out here and there in Mr. Parton's writings a weak point or two, such as the passage in the life of Aaron Burr in which it is stated that a monument was placed at midnight over the grave of Burr by unknown hands. As a matter of fact, it turns out that the stone was put up at noonday, the relatives of Burr ordered it, and there was no pretence of secresy. Mr. Parton attempted to get the better of the *Herald*, which made this discovery, by cordially thanking that journal for thus settling a doubtful point of history, and, to use his own words, "exploding that ridiculous story about the erection of the monument to Aaron Burr in the cemetery at Princeton," adding very truly that "a great number of absurd and romantic tales gather about the name of every person who is long conspicuous in the public eye," that during his stay at Princeton he conversed with so many persons that he could not remember from whom he got the story, that it was a "piece of well-established gossip which there seemed no reason to doubt, and which was not important enough to require an investigation." It is strange that what was at that time a "piece of well-established gossip" should now be so easily upset by a little investigation; but Mr. Parton cannot be expected to give much attention to trifles of this kind, for his time is occupied with the work of reform through the introduction of non-sexual suffrage, and the abolition of the post-office, as he announced the other night in a highly successful lecture. In this lecture, however, he made another little mistake; for in describing the politicians of the country he said that they were all desperate villains; that "whatever we may think of ourselves, it is by no means clear to the rest of mankind that the institutions of America have borne the test even of a single century's wear and tear"; and that "it really seems sometimes as if the politicians and the criminals of this country were one and the same body, only divided into two parts—the ins and the outs—those in prison and those out of prison." Now, unfortunately, Mr. Parton has elsewhere and within a year or so declared it to be his opinion that the institutions of this country were in very fair case, and not only so, but that far from the political leaders being degraded and corrupt, they were so pure that there was not even anybody who attempted to corrupt them—that there was, for example, no "lobby" at Washington. The Springfield *Republican* thinks this vacillation of opinion on so important a point should incline Mr. Parton to consider the advisability of his "stepping

down and out"; but this suggestion he will probably decline to take into serious consideration. This is a progressive age, and the opinions of individuals must progress, even at the risk of charges of inconsistency. No one can say that Mr. Parton, if he will discard most of his opinions and advocate with earnest enthusiasm their direct opposites, may not strike upon the certain path to a brilliant future.

—We published October 1 a general statement of the business transacted in the United States Patent Office for 1873; and the corresponding data for the British Patent Office during 1873 will probably be not without interest to our readers. There were in all 4,294 applications, of which 1,388 were only provisionally specified. Of these, 68 applicants obtained grants of letters-patent, but neglected to file final specifications, and 1,320 did not proceed after the six months' provisional protection had expired, 2,906 only completing their specifications and obtaining patents. In the preceding year there were 3,970 applications and 2,745 completed patents. The total revenue of the Office during 1873 was £144,761, of which £2,290 was derived from the sale of specifications. Against this are to be set costs and charges to the amount of £49,477, leaving a surplus paid to the treasury of £95,284. The corresponding amount during 1872 was £85,611, and the total amount since 1852 £1,198,204. The main items of charges were: printing, £17,416; salaries, £11,430; current expenses, £6,565 (including payments for preparing abridgments, £1,651); compensation to Irish law officers, Scotch lord-advocate, and their clerks, £3,413; fees to English law officers (hereafter abolished), £6,321; paper for printing specifications, etc., £2,100. The rest are rent and office charges.

—Now that we have the whole of Part II. of Gen. Walker's Statistical Atlas before us, we find it deserving of additional mention (see No. 483 of the *Nation*). The whole of the plates are now published, but some of the letterpress will be issued at the same time with Part I., and will include a memoir, by Mr. S. W. Stocking, on the Areal History of the United States; and an account, by Mr. S. A. Galpin, of the Existing Minor Political Divisions of the country. Mr. Stocking's memoir will elucidate Plate XV., which is a map showing the acquisition of territory and its distribution among political divisions (1776–1874). A ruder map of the same sort accompanied the Census, as did also the prototypes of several of the plates which we shall presently enumerate. First, of population (Plates XXI.–XXVIII.): The constitutional population of the United States having been disposed of, its various elements of colored and foreign are next exhibited in the same manner, in tints of five degrees of intensity. There is no colored population to speak of in New England north of Massachusetts, or in the country at large north of the parallel of 43°; and, except "Egypt" in Illinois and a small district in Southern Michigan, none of the Northern (Free) States has more than seven per cent. of its population colored. Somewhere in every one of the former Slave States except Delaware, Kentucky, and Missouri, the blacks number from 35 to 60 per cent. of the aggregate. South of the Potomac and the Ohio, persons of foreign parentage count for almost nothing in the population. They are most thickly settled in the triangular area bounded by lines drawn between Buffalo, Boston, and Baltimore. Their proportion to the total population is greatest (60 per cent. and upwards) in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and in Southwestern Texas. For the Irish, German, British-American, English and Welsh, Swedish and Norwegian, east of the 100th meridian, there are maps of absolute and relative distribution (per square mile and per cent.) Then follow maps of illiteracy—of the whole, and of the adult white male or voting, population; of the distribution of wealth; of public indebtedness per capita, contracted by State, county, or municipal authority—a map on which unhappy Louisiana appears in the deepest chrome ($34 and over), unrelieved by any blank spaces; of taxation per capita. Five maps show the range and degree of cultivation of wheat and rice, tobacco and hops, oats and cotton, hay and sugar, and corn—the collocation of crops being one of convenience in printing on the same plate. Three maps show improved land in farms; dairy products; and total agricultural production—this last making it evident that the Western farmer is not the only one worthy to bear the name or to maintain the interests of agriculture in this country. Even Maine can point to a product of $3,000 to $4,500 per square mile—the highest degree save one. Plate XXXVI.*b* is devoted to the Pacific Coast alone, and consists of eight maps on population, including the preponderating sex, and one each on illiteracy and on wheat. Besides the foregoing, so rich is this number of the Atlas, Gen. Walker gives us beautifully colored graphic charts on church accommodation, gainful occupations and attendance on school, and principal constituent elements of population in each State. These comparative representations are in the highest degree instructive, but, being meant for the eye, they cannot readily be described in words. Finally, a fiscal chart shows the annual national revenues from 1789 to 1870, in which the remarkable feature is the substitution since 1861 of income from internal taxes for that from the public lands, which, next after customs, formed the main resource after 1804, except during the war period of 1812. The same chart shows the proportionate expenditures for the same term of years, with the various divisions of army and navy, pensions, etc.; and the whole course of the public debt—a portentous-looking figure, like an inverted mushroom, in which the eye rests regretfully on the vanishing point at 1835, marked "0.0 millions."

—Besides the article on "The Granger Laws" (to which we referred last week), the October number of the *Law Review* contains a history of the remarkable Udderzook insurance-fraud and murder case, which has attracted a good deal of attention in the newspapers; an article entitled "The Law of Literature and Art in England and America: how near are we to International Copyright?" and another on some anomalies in the "Law of Adoption." Massachusetts, it seems, passed an act in 1851 to enable adopted children to inherit property in the same way as lawful issue. Texas, too, passed an act of some sort in 1850, and now twenty States or more have laws on their statute-books relating to the subject. The article contains some interesting discussion of the unsettled law of adoption, and suggests some new *apices juris*, such as those that might arise out of the adoption by a man of his wife or his aunt. The history of the Udderzook case will not tend to strengthen the value of direct evidence to identity, at any rate in trials in which large interests of life or property turn upon the possibility of a number of witnesses recognizing or not recognizing some claimant, or some claimant's remains. The article on Copyright traces the law of England and America from the time when it was decided that copyright was unknown to the common law, through its various changes, to the present day, when, in the United States, it remains substantially what it always has been, while in England we find in the requirement that a foreign author who wishes to acquire an English copyright must on the day of publication be bodily present in some part of the British dominions, the only vestige of the old international protective system to which we on this side of the water have clung so steadily.

—The Cincinnati Industrial Exposition closed on the 3d. The Sunday openings of its art gallery, though publicly deprecated by the local clergy, were a mundane success, collecting of a fine day over fifteen hundred visitors. In our own city such experiments have heretofore received a very pointed judgment in the shape of total abstention on the part of the public. The contributions to the art department included many valuable pictures. It is a little puzzling to observe that such efforts as those of the collectors for this display, or as those of the assiduous Mr. Derby for the Chicago exhibition, seem to be all that is needed to tempt out the very pick of the private galleries here in the East; galleries that have not yielded their good things in all cases to loan exhibitions only a few streets away. However that may be, we find our own collector, Mr. Blodgett, contributing not only the Gérôme ("At Prayer") and the Villegas ("Slipper Shop"), which were formerly attractions at the New York Metropolitan, but others which we should have been very glad to see there, such as the "Suicide" of Decamps and the "Justice Asleep" of Couture. The first of these, in the comparative rarity among us of Decamps's fine declamatory works, is a picture rewarding the closest technical study; unhappily, the first lesson to be learned from it is a warning against the excessive use by painters of bitumen; it has darkened in the shadows to the point of being quite opaque, forming a fatal illustration of what most owners of this artist's pictures are now complaining over, the blackening of their treasures from a too lavish employment of this fascinating glaze. The example of Couture, dated 1863, belongs to a series curious as showing the painter of the "Decadence" as little like his usual self as possible—as a satirist, namely; this picture, if Mr. Blodgett had seen fit to lend it to our Museum, would have been an acquisition there, since it belongs naturally with the curious little Couture long exhibited at the Metropolitan, in which an ardent young village lawyer is shown chasing his clients, represented as unfledged chickens. Both canvases are in the set painted for the gratification of Couture's friend, the bronze-founder Barbedienne, at a time when the latter was much harassed by some lawsuits; they are fables in paint, ridiculing the delay and perversity of law; in "Justice Asleep," the defendant is an innocent and interesting youth dressed as Pierrot, and the attorney a harlequin, who "makes the case seem of all colors," while the Court sleeps the sleep miscalled of the Just. This artist's masterly treatment of crayon is shown in a chalk head of Molière. In his caricatures, as in his crayon drawings—and in nothing more than in his well-known crayon of a realist or pre-Raphaelite at work—Decamps shows the breadth of the grand style and a certain noble inability to depict mere character as the character-painter does. It is rather pleasant to read in the Cincinnati catalogue the novel fact that "Couture has been called the French Hogarth of the nineteenth century." Who can have been the critic who thought out this little masterpiece, and have his bumps been

felt? The catalogue, however, like most experts' catalogues, is a mine of piquant novelties. Thus we learn of Meissonier, a chief favorite of American collectors, the strange statistical calculation that "it is seldom" a picture of his is to be seen in this country; and Schenck, the Ecouen animalist, is in one place said to be of Paris and in another of Düsseldorf, and one of his pictures is explained to be a "replicate." The Cincinnati collection includes Breton's grand composition of the "Potato-Gatherers," Müller's large study for the "Roll-Call," and adequate subjects by Gérôme, Cabanel, Knaus, Villegas, Boldini, and other contemporaries; American art seems to be rather imperfectly represented, while the fine historic series of engravings from Mr. Claghorn's collection is on view, with some interesting additions. Among the contributions are several alleged to be old masters, as to whose genuineness we have no opinion to give, except in the case of the New Orleans "Murillo": having long since been favored by the owner, Dr. Holcombe, with a photograph of this painting, we have some warrant for saying that the possessor's dogma of its authenticity can hardly have any such implacable enemy as the photograph in question, unless it be the picture itself. By the bye, since Cincinnati has been at the pains to include, among the examples of retrospective art, a selection from the paintings of Stuart, Trumbull, and West, why did she not take down from her own cathedral and place in this exhibition the "Christ Entering Jerusalem," by Haydon, one of the best works of a painter peculiarly interesting to both artists and readers?

—Mr. A. J. Ellis, in the *Academy* (Sept. 19), offers a substitute for the "American word scientist," whose convenience, he says, "is bringing it into use, notwithstanding its barbarity." Regarding *-ist* as an English termination, as we have a right to do, "'sciencist' would be the word, like 'physicist,' 'purist,' and so on." But in forming "scientist" a root (*scient*) has been chosen which does not exist in English. Yet why should it not exist? asks Mr. Ellis, as an exact translation of the French word *savant*, along with the substantive *student, regent, orient, patient, serpent*, etc., not to mention the compound participials cited by Mr. Ellis, which are a little beside the mark. "A 'scient,'" he continues, "would not mean one who 'possesses knowledge in general,' so much as one who rejects all but knowledge for the foundation of hypotheses, and therefore constructs only with such materials as he already 'knows.' A 'scientist' would then be an 'adherent to scients.'" This last sentence, when read over, might have reminded Mr. Ellis of one objection to his new word—its identity of sound in the plural with the abstract *science*. A short-hand reporter might easily misunderstand a clerical gentleman alluding to the "pretensions of scients." The error would not be a very grave one, perhaps, yet it is clear, for instance, that the problem is not to reconcile "science and religion," but *scients* and theology. However, not to give up "scientist" without a struggle, suppose we assume it to have been formed from *sciencist* through a euphonic change the reverse of that which took place in making "physicist" out of *physic(s)ist*. Would not then one word be about as legitimate as the other?

JOHN HOOKHAM FRERE.*

THE piety of Mr. Frere's nephews is commendable, but it is doubtful whether its results would have been acceptable to their fastidious uncle. In a letter written in 1843, referring to a review by Hallam of his translations from Theognis, he complains that the writer has spoken of him by name. "I think," he says, "it is rather cool and easy to affix my name to an anonymous work privately distributed." He had not then seen the critique; and he adds some days later, after reading it, "It is not uncivil, but my name is repeated *ad nauseam* thirty times altogether; one would imagine that I was a candidate for fame." Mr. Frere would hardly have chosen any increase in extent of reputation at the least cost of that choiceness which, like the bouquet of the best wine, disappears with too much exposure. He wrote for the elect: for those who value and know the force of reserve, who appreciate the more delicate elements in literary performance, and whose taste has been chastened by study of qualities in literary work the existence of which is hardly suspected by the common reader. And Mr. Frere was correct in the judgment of himself and of his work implied in his avoidance of publicity. His genius was not of the robust order, fit to make good a claim for the attention of the world; and his best work was not intended for popular reading. His incomparable translations from Aristophanes, with which he occupied and amused his leisure during his long residence at Malta, were in no proper sense published during his lifetime. Parts of them were printed from time to time, and sent to a few friends at home, and the little quarto sheets of bluish paper from the Government press at Malta had a quality which gave them high value in the eyes of the best readers. After some of the translations had been made for more than five-and-twenty years, Mr. Frere had a small edition of four of the plays printed, and allowed a few copies of three of them to be put on sale in London. His name did not appear in the volume, and the copies that were thus published were sold for the benefit of some person whom Mr. Frere desired to assist. Of late years it has been scarcely possible to obtain a copy of this rare volume, while the translation of 'The Frogs,' one of the most amusing and spirited of his pieces, was practically unattainable till the publication in 1872 of the first edition of the volumes before us. His excellent burlesque poem, too, 'The Monks and the Giants,' or, as it is also called, 'King Arthur and his Round Table,' had long been out of print, so that the lovers of good learning and good wit may be grateful to Sir Bartle Frere and his brother for making these writings accessible. The new matter which they have added to the previously known productions of Mr. Frere is not of much consequence, or of a sort to add essentially to his reputation.

Born in 1769, a year productive of distinguished men, Mr. Frere received his first scholastic training at Eton, where he formed an intimate friendship with Canning, which lasted through life. They were associated in taste, in wit, in political opinion and social sympathies. On leaving the University at Cambridge, to which he had gone from Eton, Mr. Frere entered public life as a subordinate in the Foreign Office under Lord Granville. In 1796 he was elected to Parliament, and in the next year joined with Mr. Canning and some others of the younger supporters of Pitt in the publication of the *Anti-Jacobin*. Canning's humor and wit were the chief support of the venture, giving it its original success and its lasting reputation. He had a competent ally in Frere, and the most noted pieces in the collection—such as the "Friend of Humanity and the Knife-Grinder," the "Loves of the Triangles," and "The Rovers, or the Double Arrangement"—were their joint production in company with their friend Mr. Ellis. In 1800, after a short term of service as Under-Secretary of State in the Foreign Office, Mr. Frere was appointed Envoy Extraordinary to Portugal; two years later he was transferred to Spain. After residing as Minister at Madrid for about two years, under conditions of great difficulty, he returned to England, where the ministry signified their approval of his conduct in a trying position by making him a privy councillor and giving him a pension. For some years he remained without public employment, but in 1808, when the people of Spain rose, with surprising unanimity and energy, to expel the French invaders, and England was preparing to assist the national insurrection with material aid, Frere was again sent as envoy to Spain. "His previous services in Spain, his warm sympathy with all the nobler traits of Spanish character, his intimate acquaintance with the Spanish language and manners, and, above all, the esteem and respect in which he was held by all the best among the leaders in the Spanish national cause, to many of whom he was personally known, pointed him out as eminently fitted to represent England in Spain at a juncture of such importance." During a few months he rendered great service to the Spanish cause, but when a scapegoat was needed to bear the reproach of the failure of the unfortunate expedition under command of Sir John Moore, it fell to Frere's lot to be selected by an angry and indiscriminating public. He had differed widely in opinion with Sir John Moore, and on some important points Sir John had reluctantly yielded to him. It was assumed that Frere was in considerable measure responsible for the defeat at Corunna, and the miserable outcome of the expedition. The ministry at home did not defend him with the spirit or support him with the cordiality he thought his due. His recall was determined upon, and, though pains were taken to prevent any appearance of censure, yet Frere felt that the treatment was such as he had not deserved. From this time he "renounced public life, and when it was proposed to send him as ambassador to St. Petersburg, and twice in after-years to raise him to the peerage, he declined both offers. It was natural he should feel that what he had deserved from the Government, if they approved his conduct, was support and approbation when he was unjustly attacked, and that no subsequent honors or promotion could compensate for his having been left a mark for public obloquy, when he had under most trying circumstances performed an important service to his country." In other words, Mr. Frere was of the race, never very numerous, of *gentlemen*, and he had the feelings of a gentleman. He made no outcry, attempted no public vindication of himself, but, conscious not only of rectitude of purpose but also of general soundness of judgment, he was content to leave his vindication, if there should be any care for his reputation, to a later generation that should be less moved by the partisanship of the hour. He was right. Competent and impartial judges have given opinions in his favor, and the attacks upon his reputation are forgotten. What diplomacy or administration lost by Frere's retirement from public life, literature gained. Books were henceforth his chief

* 'The Works of the Right Honorable John Hookham Frere, in Verse and Prose. Volume I. Memoir by the Right Hon. Sir Bartle Frere. Volume II. Original Works and Minor Translations, edited by W. E. Frere. Vol. III. Translations from Aristophanes and Theognis, edited by W. E. Frere. Second Edition with Additions. New York: A. Denham & Co. London: Basil Montagu Pickering. 1874.

resource and occupation. He was attractive in society, a capital talker, and for a time he went much into the world, but he was always a student. In 1816 he married the Dowager Countess of Erroll, and, her health shortly afterwards giving way, he took up his residence in Malta for the sake of the favorable climate, and there in elegant, scholarly ease he spent his remaining years. He died in 1846.

It is not difficult to set forth the most marked characteristics of Mr. Frere's genius. It was essentially of a literary type; not finding its source and stimulus, to any great degree, in direct relations with nature, nor conscious of any irresistible impulse of expression; not possessed by controlling imagination, nor swollen by currents of deep emotion. It was a genius of culture, full of fine appreciations and quickened by lettered associations. Such originality as his work displays lies in tone and finish more than in invention. It is the work of a gentleman of taste and various learning, with capacity for facile expression, and with a sense not only of humor but of the delicate qualities of style and literary art. Naturally enough, after the days of joint production with Canning in the *Anti-Jacobin*, all his best productions are either translations, as the 'Aristophanes,' or in imitation of a foreign style, as 'The Monks and the Giants,' in which all the ease of Berni, or Pulci, or Casti is transferred from the flowing *ottava rima* of the pliant Italian tongue into stanzas not less flowing in spite of the resistance of our stiffer language. This was a rare *tour de force*, and Frere achieved such success that not even Byron, who copied him in adopting the Italian stanza, matched him in the free play and vigor of his versification.

His translations of Aristophanes are not literal, line-for-line versions, but they aim at giving in a free rendering the spirit and life of the original, and at reproducing so far as possible its tone, in order to convey some notion to the reader of the effect of the Aristophanic drama as acted, and to illustrate the points of dramatic humor and character discoverable in it. The task was of great difficulty, and it was accomplished by Mr. Frere with a surprising measure of success. He was fitted for it by nature and by training alike. All his gifts contributed to the excellence of the work. It was a labor of love, and he took unwearied pains with it. The mere English reader not only finds Aristophanes in these translations eminently readable and intelligible, but gets from them, with the comment by which they are accompanied, a clear view of the character and effect of the old Athenian comedy, as well as the fullest illustrations of the life, manners, and turn of thought of the Athenian people. There are no other productions of Greek literature from which so much may be learned of the interior life of Athens and her democracy at the period of the Peloponnesian war. But they have more than an historic interest. For the satire of Aristophanes, however local in allusion, is directed upon universal traits of human nature, and its point is not blunted by time. The unprincipled demagogue, the ignorant voter, the hare-brained reformer, the wealthy upstart, have never been more effectively ridiculed, while what we are apt to consider the special pests of our own time—the Treasury informer, the diplomatic patron of mining swindles, the sentimentalist of the platform, the inflationist, the free-lover—all had their prototypes in the famous little city; and the lash which fell on the backs of Athenian fools and scoundrels retains power to make their modern compeers wince. No American could read the "Knights," with its broad and vigorous delineation of the military-political demagogue Cleon, that

> "Miracle of immense
> Intense impudence"

without being reminded of

> "The impudence, the politics,
> The dirty designs, the rascally tricks"

of his notorious living image.

The satire of Aristophanes, if at times too coarse for our modern taste; his wit, if too personal in its application; his humor, if occasionally degenerating into extravagance, or mere broad fun, are redeemed and elevated by the exquisite poetry with which they are associated. The imagination of Aristophanes was essentially poetical, and there are passages in his comedies which place him on a level as poet with the great tragedians. Mr. Frere possessed an equal appreciation of his various merits, and has rendered with equal spirit and fidelity the lively repartee of the dialogue and the sustained beauty and picturesque imagery of the finer choruses. His work is indeed so good in the most important respects that it is matter for real regret that he left so many of the comedies of his author untranslated. We cannot expect ever to have a version of them such as he could have made. We may have versions more literally exact and full of the acquisitions of modern scholarship, but we shall have none in which the spirit of the original will be so thoroughly conveyed. And in rendering such productions as these, sympathy and insight are of more importance than mere learning. The measure of Mr. Frere's scholarship might not reach the standard of German thoroughness, but it was sufficient for his end. There are some kinds of erudition that may be dispensed with as superfluous in a given task.

Of Mr. Frere's other productions there is no need to speak at length. His reputation will rest on those of which we have spoken. Had his achievements in literature been even less than they are, he would still deserve recognition and honorable remembrance as one of those men, always few in any given generation, who stand for the best literary tradition, and maintain the authority of cultivated judgment and refined taste in the domain of good letters. One such man, though he live retired at Malta, and though his name be not known to the public of the daily press, raises the level of literary workmanship and improves the best scholarship of his generation.

FLINT'S PHYSIOLOGY.*

THIS, the last of five volumes, treats of two wholly distinct subjects, the Special Senses and Generation. For those who possess the entire work, this incongruous association (like that of Movements with Nutrition and Secretion in the third volume) will make little difference, but in a series of which the volumes may be had separately the uniformity of size and price should have been held of far less moment than the collocation of similar subjects.

In the preface to this volume the author naturally reverts to the previous ones, and, with justifiable satisfaction, states that he "has found no reason to modify the new views enunciated therein." The author's investigations respecting the general location of the respiratory sense, the formation of cholesterine and of sugar by the liver, and the physiological effects of severe and protracted exercise, to the general reader may appear few and unimportant as compared with the whole of physiological science, and as hardly warranting the author in writing upon the latter; and we will call attention to the fact that nothing original whatever is to be found in the fourth and fifth volumes respecting the Nervous System and Generation. But it must be borne in mind that, at the present time, to add anything to human anatomy and physiology demands very careful and extended research. If one such addition is made and substantiated, the author may feel himself worthy of honorable record as an investigator. Besides the special subject of his study, the physiologist is usually called upon to teach the whole of the science. In teaching he learns the needs of students, and, if his students are numerous, he is justified in preparing a work which is likely to help them and others.

This is what Dr. Flint has undertaken to do, and has done in so far as to furnish us the best summary of human physiology in the English language. In fact, without claiming for the author the "peculiar fitness for the task" which, in the preface to the first volume, he regards as the chief of reasons for authorship, it is evident that a work embracing more than 2,500 octavo pages must, even if only moderately good in style and arrangement, furnish a greater body of information than is elsewhere attainable.

Its very size and cost must present an obstacle to the introduction of this work as a required text-book, although it cannot be doubted that such a requirement, if complied with, would greatly benefit the public; for the physician cannot know too well the normal functions of the organism whose disorders are committed to his charge. But while assigning to Dr. Flint's work the highest place among English physiologies, and while particularly commending the impartiality with which all parts of the subject are presented, we cannot avoid contrasting his statement that "iconoclasm in physiology is almost a necessity" (p. 345) with the fact that we look in vain in this the last volume for some recognition of the additions, subtractions, and alterations that must have occurred during eleven years in the subjects embraced by its predecessors. This deficiency is the more striking inasmuch as we find a copious index to the five volumes in the place where one naturally looks for an appendix of recent changes. In short, while the references throughout the text indicate that Dr. Flint has spared no pains to learn the latest results at the time each volume goes to press (although Huxley's recent summary of "spontaneous generation" is not alluded to under that head), yet a moment's reflection shows that, *as a whole*, his work cannot possibly represent the *existing* state of physiological science.

In two respects the present volume is an improvement upon its predecessors. The illustrations are more numerous than in all the others together; and there are more frequent references to German physiological literature. But there is still observable a lack of clearness in style, which in a few cases seems to arise from some obscurity as regards the subject, in others to depend upon an unwillingness or inability to state things in tabular form so as to admit of ready comparison and generalization. As an example of the lack of clearness above noted, compare the mention of Lott's experiment upon the passage of zoösperms through an animal membrane as possibly accounting for their penetration of the vitelline membrane (p. 353) with the previous con-

* 'The Physiology of Man: Designed to represent the existing state of Physiological Science as applied to the Functions of the Human Body. By Austin Flint, jr., M.D.' Vol. V. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

clusion (p. 290) that the fact of actual penetration almost of necessity presupposes the presence of orifices.

In describing the development of the brain, the anterior cerebral vesicle is said to *divide* into the thalami behind and the hemispheres in front; while, according to Huxley, the latter are formed as *protrusions* from the antero-lateral wall of the primary vesicle. The result may be the same, but the process is very unlike, according to the two accounts; and the reader is entitled to be informed as to the existence of the discrepancy. In the account of the internal ear we note the mention of the free communication of the *scala tympani* with the *scala vestibuli* (although the word *helicotrema* is not to be found in either text or index), with no reference to the opinion of recent observers that this communication does not exist.

This is not the place for a detailed presentation of the good or bad qualities of Dr. Flint's work, but we think that the "general considerations" upon the generative function should have embraced some account of the process among the lower animals, especially those lowest and simplest forms (the moners and amœbæ) which manifest all the phenomena of life, yet present no organization. We think, too, that the subjects of multiple pregnancies and of true and false hermaphroditism deserve more attention than they receive, or at least a reference to the elaborate papers in the 'Cyclopædia of Anatomy and Physiology,' in which these and other branches of the reproductive function are presented with a fulness and clearness which almost atone for their comparative antiquity. Indeed, in a work intended not for mere reading but for severe and systematic study, we think the most complete and convenient mode of reference is that now often adopted, namely, by giving a list of all works at the close of the volume, and referring to them in the text by their number on the list, with the addition of volume and page. This plan would also admit of reference to a large number of works and papers, the very existence of which is not recognized in the present work.

In this, as in previous volumes, we note with pleasure an entire absence of controversial spirit, and the personalities are invariably complimentary. The distinguished Professor of Physiology at the other, and in a certain sense rival, medical school of New York is often and largely quoted, and to all is shown the fairest and the kindliest spirit. We hope that the author will accept our criticisms as intended only to suggest the changes by which, even more than at present, his great work shall be held an honor to him and to American science, and a real boon to the student of human physiology.

The Genesis of the New England Churches. By Leonard Bacon. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.)—Dr. Bacon had already given to the public, on various occasions in the past, abundant proof of his extensive knowledge of New England history. In the volume of his 'Historical Discourses,' which appeared more than thirty years ago, the planting of the New Haven Colony is described with a learning and spirit which render it one of the very best monographs in the whole catalogue of American historical literature. With his strong taste for historical enquiries, and having been identified, for more than half a century, with the New England churches, it is quite natural that he should wish to set forth, in a consecutive and complete narrative, the story of their beginnings. He has performed his task with the literary art, the clearness of arrangement, the vigor and felicity of diction, which might be expected from so experienced and accomplished a writer. A vivid yet enlightened and discriminating sympathy with the character and aims of the Pilgrim founders, is obvious on every page. Scattered along the volume are philosophical remarks indicative at once of a broad catholicity and a sagacious, penetrating observation of religious phenomena. Dr. Bacon disclaims a familiarity with "the remotest sources of history," the manuscript, black-letter documents to which the antiquary resorts. But, inasmuch as the materials relating to the Plymouth settlement (with which he mainly deals) are to be found in print, and as he is entirely conversant with these, he was amply equipped for his undertaking. Especially was he qualified by his power to interpret facts some of which are a puzzle to writers less acquainted with the various systems and the occult features of ecclesiastical polity. If this volume contains little that is absolutely new, it has the signal merit of presenting a minute, graphic, and therefore entertaining as well as instructive, narrative of the rise and early fortunes of the Separatists who landed at Plymouth, and laid the foundations of Christian civilization in New England.

In the introductory chapters, Dr. Bacon concisely sketches the primitive polity of the churches planted by the Apostles in the Roman Empire; the gradual rise and the transforming influence of the hierarchical idea and polity; the culmination of this development in the Papacy of the Middle Ages; and the effect of the Reformation on church government. The churches of the Reformation—the Church of England pre-eminently—were national churches. Dr. Bacon points out the diverse agencies which produced the Reformation in England, and narrates the rise of Puritanism, and its conflict with the more conservative Tudor type of Anglican Protestantism. Thus he reaches the beginnings of Separatism, or that advanced type of opinion which rejected the National Church altogether, and strove to substitute local churches, self-governing, and each of them united by a mutual, voluntary covenant of its members. One of the principal features of Dr. Bacon's work is the clearness with which he sets forth the distinction between the Puritans proper—the great original Puritan party, who, like their antagonists, were advocates of a national church, with its whole system of parishes and tithes—and the Separatists, or come-outers, who escaped from England to Leyden, and thence crossed the ocean to Plymouth. The settlers of Massachusetts Bay were of another stripe. They were Puritan members of the Church of England, who struggled in vain to alter its government and worship according to their ideas, but who had looked upon organized dissent with reprobation. But finding themselves in Salem, far from the bishops and from crown and parliament, they proceeded to shape their church polity to suit themselves. The result was that they found themselves at one with the Plymouth settlers, who had come over before them. The voyage across the Atlantic had extinguished their differences. Dr. Bacon's volume terminates with the establishment of the Salem Church, on the basis of a covenant—a church within the parish—and with the interchange of fraternal civilities between this new church and the brethren at Plymouth. They even, at Salem, ordained their ministers anew, as pastors of that particular flock; adopting the idea, which the Pilgrims maintained, that a minister has no being except as the officer of a particular congregation, by whom he has been elected to his place. The "new departure"—to use the modern phrase—of the Puritans of Massachusetts Bay brought them into close harmony with the followers of John Robinson. Thus the peculiar New England Church polity arose.

To Robinson, far more than to any other man, were the Pilgrims indebted for wise counsel and guidance. He was a well-educated and, for that day, most liberal-minded man. His career forms one of the most interesting portions of Dr. Bacon's history. That he was prevented from following his congregation, or the portion of it which emigrated to Plymouth, is an event which descendants of the Pilgrims have cause to regret. The persecution of the first Separatists—Penry and others—under Queen Elizabeth, is the topic of extended description. The interviews of these bold Radicals with Whitgift and Aylmer, at some of which Burleigh was present, are depicted with dramatic fidelity. On the whole, after a careful perusal of Dr. Bacon's work, we can congratulate the veteran author on having completed a contribution of permanent value to all students of American history, and especially to such as are fond of exploring its earlier period.

The Wild North Land. By Major W. F. Butler, C.B., F.R.G.S., author of 'The Great Lone Land,' etc. (Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. 1874.)—Major Butler is a professional traveller; one of that class, of which the majority are Englishmen, who are perpetually seeking some unexplored and unknown region; travelling rapidly through it with more or less hardship and adventure; returning home to write a book about it, and immediately starting off again—possibly to the very antipodes of the last journey. An apt quotation in this book describes his class: "I am become a name for always roaming with a hungry heart." Long research and the gathering of detailed and minute knowledge of a country form no part of their occupation; in fact, when once a locality has been visited by a score of white men, it loses its charm for them, witness Major Butler's depreciation of the Yosemite Valley as compared with the Peace River Pass in the Rocky Mountains. Had Major Butler been the first traveller through the wonderful gorge of the Yosemite, how differently it might have impressed him. The present book is a narrative of a journey from the Red River of the North across the Saskatchewan to Athabasca Lake and the waters flowing to the Arctic Ocean; thence west along Peace River, an almost unknown stream 1,200 miles in length, to and through the Rocky Mountains; and thence down Frazer River to the Pacific coast near Vancouver's Island. This journey of 2,500 miles was accomplished between October and the following June; 1,400 miles of it by dog-sledges, and the rest by canoe and on horseback—a journey of privation and hardship, requiring great fortitude and endurance, especially when its chief motive was the love of roaming and the knowledge gained had only a remote value. The pleasure of such a journey lies in its very hardships and novel adventures (with which this book abounds), and in the fascination of a vast desolate country, tenanted only by widely scattered Indians, buffaloes, and moose—a fascination difficult to explain to dwellers in cities, but more or less well known to every one who has travelled for days across the unending prairie.

The author's animosity to his American cousins and their ways crops out in various amusing forms; but it prompts some remarks about Northwestern

explorations and boundary lines which can hardly pass unchallenged. While granting the value of the early English explorations of Mackenzie and others, and of those still earlier explorers, the French, it must be remembered that the first white men upon the upper waters of the Missouri and the Columbia —the two great east and west rivers of the continent—were Americans, Captains Lewis and Clark, in 1804; and it may well be questioned if the information which that expedition brought back has not proved more valuable than that of all the English explorations in the Northwest up to that date. As for "American duplicity" in regard to boundary lines, a sufficient answer to Major Butler's insinuations is found in the transactions of the English concerning San Juan Island in 1856. And the Americans were certainly not to blame for being the first to discover (by an expedition in 1806), that the forty-ninth parallel passed through neither the northwest point of the Lake of the Woods nor the head-waters of the Mississippi, as described in the treaty of 1783; nor subsequently for negotiating a treaty in which the boundary was still the forty-ninth parallel, and from it by the shortest line to the northwest point of the Lake of the Woods. Major Butler speaks of this as "the unfortunate selection of an astronomical boundary line," but a little reflection and our present knowledge of the country show it to be a remarkably happy selection; for the forty-ninth parallel is the nearest astronomical line to the great watershed of the continent, between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains. This watershed twice crosses the forty-ninth parallel, and is within 50 miles of it for over 500 miles of its length; leaving in British Territory all the waters of the Saskatchewan, except a few miles of its head-waters not navigable, and similarly the waters of the Missouri in our territory. West of the Rocky Mountains, it is no less happy, as it gives us nearly all the Columbia River, and to the English the whole of Frazer River.

The book, however, is chiefly filled with the narrative of the incidents of the journey, and gives a most interesting account of the daily incidents and adventures, the large animals and few men, that one meets in travelling over the great northern plains.

RECENT GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS.

Forty-second Congress, Third Session. House of Representatives. Miscellaneous Document, No. 107. Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, showing the Operations, Expenditures, and Condition of the Institution for the year 1872. 8vo, pp. 456. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1874.

This report presents an account of the work done by the Smithsonian Institution in carrying out the mission of Mr. Smithson "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," giving in their order the list of officers; the report of the secretary, with the statistics of the collections, exchanges, etc.; the report of the Executive Committee, exhibiting the financial affairs of the Institution; the proceedings of the Board of Regents; and a general appendix, consisting of original and selected matter. The financial exhibit is all that can be desired, the expenditures being kept carefully within the income, which amounts to $46,916, and the expenditures to $45,420; leaving a small balance to be carried to the credit of the succeeding year. The publications of the Institution in 1872 embraced some important works, among them one upon the 'Rainfall of North America,' by Mr. Schott; on the 'Fresh-water Algæ,' by Dr. H. C. Wood; on the 'Orbit of Uranus,' by Prof. S. Newcomb (for which he received the gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society of London and a corresponding membership of the Academy of Sciences of Paris); a 'List of the Families of Mammals,' by Prof. Gill; a 'List of the Scientific and Literary Establishments of the United States,' and other articles. Under the head of Exchanges, it is stated that nearly all the scientific institutions and individuals of America maintain their communication with correspondents in the Old World through the Smithsonian Institution; the printed list of the foreign establishments sustaining such relations embracing almost two thousand names. Returns received from abroad for other institutions are sent directly to them on arrival. Those coming to the Smithsonian Institution itself are transferred, as has been the case with the whole of its library, to the Library of Congress, in which nearly 80,000 volumes have been thus deposited. A statement is given of the amount of meteorological work accomplished by the Institution in 1872. This department, our readers may remember, has since been transferred to the Signal Service Bureau of the War Department. Under the head of the "National Museum," which is in charge of the Smithsonian Institution, many valuable additions are enumerated, with a specific list of the donations; and there is also an account of the distributions of duplicate specimens to various establishments throughout the world.

A special feature of the volume as usual consists in the many papers relating to American ethnology—in fact, one-fourth of its space is occupied with this subject. The articles include the translation of a paper by Paul Broca, on the "Troglodytes of the Valley of the Vézère"; on "Ancient Aboriginal Trade in North America" and on "North American Stone Implements," both by Dr. Charles Rau of New York. Several papers on ancient mounds, etc., all well illustrated with numerous figures, copious indexes, systematic and alphabetical, add to the value of the book. The Report of the Institution for 1873 is, we learn, to be published in the course of a few months.

**** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Abbott (J. S. C.), American Pioneers and Patriots (Capt. Kidd)	(Dodd & Mead)
Alger (H., jr.), Risen from the Ranks	(Lee & Shepard) $1 50
Bagg (J. N.), West Springfield Centennial	(West Springfield)
Beecher (H. W.), Lectures on Preaching, 3d Ser	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 1 50
Norwood, Illustrated	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 2 00
Bogardus (Adam H.), Field, Cover, and Trap Shooting	(J. B. Ford & Co.) 2 00
Bigelow (J.), Life of Benj. Franklin, 3 vols	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Butler (W. A.), Lectures on Ancient Philosophy, 2d ed	(Macmillan & Co.) 5 00
Crowell (Dr. E.), Identity of Primitive Christianity and Modern Spiritualism, Vol. II	(G. W. Carleton & Co.) 2 75
D'Anvers (N.), Elementary History of Art	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 4 00
Diaz (Mrs. A. M.), The Schoolmaster's Trunk	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 00
Elliot (G. H.), European Light-House Systems	(Government Printing-office)
Fennell (R. F.), Ancient Greece	(John Allyn) 1 00
Forbes (Prof. George), Transit of Venus	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

OCTOBER 19, 1874.

THE week has been comparatively free from any features calculated to disturb the different markets. Rumors of failures were current nearly every day, but as they have become so frequent of late, and generally turn out to have no foundation in fact, very little attention was paid to them, and no effect whatever was produced upon the market for commercial paper, which, after all, is the best test which can be had of the confidence among business men.

The money market has been a shade firmer, and most of the call loans upon Stock Exchange collaterals have been made at 3 per cent., the lowest being at 2½ per cent. Commercial paper of the best grade has been very scarce. Prime names running three to four months are quoted at 6 to 7 per cent.

Cable advices on Thursday reported an advance in the Bank of England discount rate from 3 to 4 per cent. So large an advance was unexpected, although the continued loss of bullion led to the expectation that an advance of ½ per cent. was likely. The Bank lost £573,000 during the week.

The weekly statement of the city Clearing-house banks on Saturday shows a considerable loss in both specie and legal tenders, which, notwithstanding a reduction in liabilities, in the shape of deposits, to the amount of $3,348,500, is sufficient to cause a loss of nearly $3,000,000 in the surplus reserve.

The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Oct. 10.	Oct. 17.	Differences.
Loans	$281,377,800	$282,275,200	Inc... $897,400
Specie	16,946,700	15,007,800	Dec... 1,938,900
Legal tenders	62,394,200	60,697,000	Dec.. 1,697,000
Deposits	233,471,200	230,122,700	Dec... 3,348,500
Circulation	25,115,800	25,060,500	Dec.. 55,300

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Oct. 10.	Oct. 17.	Differences.
Specie	$16,946,700	$15,007,800	Dec.. $1,938,900
Legal tenders	62,394,200	60,697,000	Dec.. 1,697,200
Total reserve	$79,340,900	$75,704,800	Dec.. $3,636,100
Reserve required against deposits	58,367,800	57,530,675	.....
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't	20,973,100	18,174,125	Dec.. 2,798,975

The stock market has been less active than usual, although the week's business foots up a very fair amount. The tendency of the market has been downward. Erie has been active and the fluctuations wide, the price in this market being governed by the London quotations. The extreme range in the fluctuations of the stock was between 27⅛ on Wednesday and 31¼ on Friday, the week's business amounting to 181,300 shares. Besides Erie, Western Union, Lake Shore, Union Pacific, and Pacific Mail have been the speculative favorites, while the rumors which have been indulged in as to the payment of the November interest on the bonds of the Toledo and Wabash Railroad Company led to speculation in the stock of that Company, which advanced or declined as the chances of success in procuring the money to meet the interest were reported. During the week the price of Wabash declined from 32¾ to 31, with a reaction of ⅞ per cent. on Saturday from the lowest point, the announcement then being made that the interest on the bonds would surely be paid.

The highest and lowest sales for the week ending Saturday, October 17, 1874, have been as follows:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wed'day.	Thursday	Friday.	Saturday	Total.
N. Y. C. & H. R...	101¼ 101½	100¼ 101⅜	100⅜ 101	100⅝ 101⅜	101⅜ 101½	100½ 101⅜	5,135
Erie	29⅜ 30⅜	24⅜ 30⅛	27⅛ 28⅜	27 28⅜	29⅛ 31¼	28⅜ 31	181,300
Lake Shore	79¼ 80⅜	78¼ 80⅜	73¼ 79½	78⅛ 78⅝	78⅜ 79⅜	78½ 79½	190,400
Rock Island	x99⅜ 99½	98⅛ 99⅜	97⅝ 98½	97⅛ 98½	98¼ 98⅜	98¼ 98½	11,700
N. J. Central	 104	.... 104½	.... 104¼	.... 103⅜	.... 104½	.... 104½	400
D., L. & W.	.... 106⅜	 107	106⅜ 107	107⅛ 107¼	.... 107⅜	.... 107⅜	5,760
N. W. st. Com.	38¾ 39¼	38⅜ 39	37⅛ 38⅝	37⅛ 38½	38¼ 38⅜	38¼ 38⅝	45,000
Do. pfd.	55 55½	55 55½	 55	 54	....	....	600
St. Paul Com.	33¼ 33½	33 33¼	32⅝ 32⅛	32⅜ 33⅜	33¼ 33½	.... 33¼	14,600
Do. pfd.	 53	 53	51¼ 51⅜	.... 51½	....	....	700
Wabash	32⅜ 32⅞	31⅜ 32⅝	31 31⅝	31¼ 32⅛	31⅜ 32½	31⅜ 31⅞	87,400
C. C. & I. C.	10½ 10⅝	10½ 11	.... 10½	10 10½	10¼ 10⅜	10⅜ 10⅝	7,200
O. & M.	27⅜ 28⅛	27⅜ 28⅛	27¼ 27½	27 28⅛	27⅜ 28½	28⅛ 28⅜	29,000
Union Pacific	35⅜ 36⅜	35½ 36⅜	33⅝ 35⅜	35 35⅜	35⅜ 36	35¼ 36	110,000
W. U. Tel., x	79½ 80¼	79¼ 80¼	78⅜ 79⅛	78⅛ 78⅜	79 80¼	79¼ 80⅜	205,500
Pacific Mail	47½ 48⅜	46½ 48¼	46¼ 46⅝	46⅜ 47⅛	46⅜ 47⅜	46⅜ 47⅛	91,700

Government bonds have been in good demand, the savings-banks and corporations and individuals, limited by law as to the investments they may make, being the principal buyers. The amount of bonds offering is extremely limited. The following are the latest quotations to-day:

	BID.	ASKED		BID.	ASKED
Coupon 6's, 1881	118⅛	118⅝	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1867	117¾	117⅞
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1862	113	113⅛	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1868	117¾	117⅞
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1864	116⅛	116⅜	Coupon 5's, 10-40's	112	112⅛
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, M. & N.	117	117⅛	Coupon 5's, of 1881	112¼	112⅜
Coupon 6's 5-20's, 1865, J. & J.	116⅜	116½	U. S. Currency 6's	118	118¼

A fair week's business was transacted in railroad mortgages. Prices of the better class of bonds, although very high, have been well maintained. Investors having no use for their money in any other way, prefer paying the seemingly high prices for undoubted security, instead of taking any chances in buying bonds about which there is the least doubt. At a recent auction sale of a large amount of undoubtedly good railroad bonds, there was a large attendance of buyers, and the prices obtained for round lots of bonds were, in some instances, as much as 2½ per cent. higher than those at which small lots of the same bonds were offered at the Stock Exchange.

The gold market requires very little comment, the sales having all been between the extreme limits of 109⅞ and 110⅛, while on Wednesday and Friday the sales were all at 110. The advance in the English bank rate and the result of the elections in some of the Western States have tended to keep the price steady. The amount of gold now in the city banks is so small—about $15,000,000—that it could be easily handled by a combination of speculators, should the short interest in the market be of sufficient importance to render a squeeze in cash gold profitable. The loaning rate during the week has been "flat"—that is, the borrower of the gold receives no interest upon the currency which he gives the owner of the gold as security. The Secretary of the Treasury has given notice that the November interest upon the public debt will be paid on and after 25th instant without rebate. This may have the effect of preventing for the present any manipulation of the market calculated to distress borrowers of gold. The larger part of this interest, however, belongs to Europe, and the Bond Syndicate have bought up a large amount of these coupons to turn into the Treasury on account of their contract in the new 5 per-cent. bonds.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 29, 1874.

The Week.

THE election in this State which takes place next Tuesday will be very important for two reasons. It will decide the fate of twelve amendments to the State constitution, which we have discussed elsewhere, and will have a serious influence on the fortunes of the Republican party, both by the return of members of Congress, and by stemming or swelling the tide of discouragement set in motion by the recent Republican losses in Ohio and Indiana. But it is only honest to say that at this writing the Republican chances are small, and the Democrats are not unreasonably jubilant, and are disputing over the size of their majority, which the more sanguine put at 50,000, and the less so not very much lower. It is conceded on all hands that the only strong name on the Republican ticket is General Dix, and towards him there is a good deal of disaffection on the part of the managers. Of the Republican platform, the less said the better. The causes of this unhappy plight of the Republican party are of course numerous. The principal one is the undue confidence and elation caused by the victory of 1872. It was said by one of the chiefs that it gave the party an eight years' lease of power for certain, and it was ascribed to the burning eloquence of Mr. Roscoe Conkling. It was argued, therefore, that all that was needed when trouble again arose was to call in Mr. Conkling once more. The fact was that it was due to the ludicrous character of the opposition to General Grant, and that Mr. G. F. Train could have produced nearly as good "a line of light" as that which, according to his admirers, Mr. Conkling left across the State. The result has been the display of extraordinary recklessness in all departments of the Administration, and utter indifference on the part of the majority in Congress to the leading questions of the day. The Treasury was handed over to Mr. Richardson, the South to Attorney-General Williams, the State of Massachusetts to Ben Butler, and the party so totally neglected its principal duties that it had nothing to begin the canvass with this year but trumped-up "outrages." The gleam of hope emitted by the McEnery "rebellion" soon passed away, and the party has now little left in the way of capital but a heap of exposed falsehoods. The very most has been made of the third-term talk by the Democrats, and it has probably fatally injured General Dix. It might have been stopped by a few words at the Utica Convention, but Mr. Conkling was so occupied with "midnight assassinations" and "reigns of terror" that he actually strengthened it by his allusions.

A large and successful meeting of the Republicans was held on Monday evening at the Cooper Institute, and speeches were made by General Dix and Judge Pierrepont. The resolutions adopted view with regret the record of the Democrats in everything they have done, and with pride and satisfaction the record of the Republicans. Most unbiassed people, we suppose, in reading General Dix's straightforward speech will feel inclined to vote the Republican ticket, though how the same persons will feel after looking over Judge Pierrepont's language will be another question altogether. But even an unbiassed voter must admit that Tilden's war record is against him, and that not much could be done towards firing the popular heart with a desire to "crucify" Dix, by the production on a transparency now of the well-known Chicago resolution, "This Convention does explicitly declare, as the sense of the American people, that, after four years of failure to restore the Union by the experiment of war, during which, under the pretence of a military necessity or war power higher than the Constitution, the Constitution itself has been disregarded in every part, and public liberty and private right alike trodden down, and the material prosperity of the country essentially impaired, justice, humanity, liberty, and the public welfare demand that immediate efforts be made for a cessation of hostilities, with a view to an ultimate convention of all the States or other peaceable means, to the end that at the earliest practicable moment peace may be restored on the basis of the Federal Union of the States."

The Democrats have also held a great ratification meeting, and had speeches from Seymour, Kernan, and Governor Parker of New Jersey. The resolutions denounce with great earnestness the increase of "rag currency," Custom-house corruptions, gag-laws, "anti-revenue" tariffs, and, above all, "the significant silence of the President, whose single word might send back to their public employments the 80,000 office-holders who are plotting for his third term." Governor Parker promises that if the Democrats get control of the Government they will establish justice, make the country prosperous, stimulate thrift, bring money out of its hiding-places, protect the negro, but at the same time not protect him too much, and advance the value of real estate "so that the man of moderate means need not fear the coming of the sheriff"; and he expresses the hope that no personal feeling or local grudge may prevent the people of the State from securing these advantages. The Republicans, however, and the 80,000 office-holders will prevent it if they can.

The turn which the election will take in Louisiana will depend, apparently, very much on how much fraud Kellogg conceives himself to be in a position to commit. During the past week the Attorney-General of the State has delivered an opinion, in which he declares that several thousand citizens naturalized by the Second District Court are not legal voters, the court not having had jurisdiction. It is said, however, that these voters, who are understood to be Conservatives, will be allowed to vote separately, the question of counting their ballots to be determined afterwards. The negroes have begun to fall away from Kellogg, and with a fair election there is little doubt the Conservatives would carry the day. There is a point in fraud, too, to which it is agreed even Kellogg would not go; but where that point is, or how he is to know when he reaches it, are matters involved in obscurity. The troops are kept employed in street manœuvres, which the Conservatives maintain are designed for the purpose of intimidation, while the Radicals say that they are nothing but necessary daily exercise. One of the officers has succeeded in distinguishing himself by procuring the arrest of a large number of citizens under one of the Ku-Klux or Enforcement Acts, and the situation now looks as if Kellogg's best hope would be to arrange matters so as to leave the result of the election in doubt, in which case he, being still in office, and sustained by troops, would be able by appeals to Congress, wars of races, and Ku-klux outrages, to keep himself in for sufficient time to receive a fat mission, or a senatorship, or something of the kind. His hold upon Louisiana seems, however, to be fast relaxing.

The President is still continuing his infamous plots for the subversion of the liberties of the country. Perhaps he shows his subtlety in nothing so clearly as in this—that unlike most usurpers he is working to get himself renominated without any votes. Dix says that he will have nothing to do with a third term, and there are reasons for believing that Morton and Blaine are devoting their minds to the consideration of questions connected with a first rather than a third term; the Southern carpet-baggers are afraid to mention it, the Democrats have never advocated it, and a strong faction of the Liberal-Republicans is said to be in favor of no more than half-a-

term for any one office-holder. Nevertheless, the President is at work, and during the past week has struck another foul blow by removing some tainted office-holders in Texas. This is supposed to have been done for the sake of conciliating Senator Flanagan, who got the men their places. Seriously, however, the President seems to be awakening too late to the connection between Southern misgovernment and his own Administration. His interference against Moses in South Carolina and his present descent upon the corruptionists in Texas seem indications of this.

The question of ritualism has been receiving fuller discussion during the last week or two than it has yet met with in the official bodies of the Episcopal Church. The matter was first brought up in the case of Dr. Seymour, who had been elected Bishop of Illinois in place of the late Dr. Whitehouse, and was presented to the General Conventon for confirmation. Dr. Seymour's connection with the Episcopal Seminary in this city, and his possession in this way of considerable influence on the younger clergy, of course have made his sayings and doings sufficiently conspicuous to afford abundant materials for debate. But curiously enough, no attempt was made to defend ritualism; his friends occupied themselves in disproving that he was a Ritualist; and in fact the new movement was found to have no direct defenders in the body. Nothing we believe was made out against him, but enough small things were said or suggested to lead to his rejection. At this writing the Convention is engaged in debating a canon against ritualism, which is perhaps as necessary work as it could do, as there is little question that if the Church cannot make an end of ritualism, ritualism will make an end of the Church's strength and influence.

Judge McKean, of Utah, achieved for himself a few years ago a brilliant though momentary reputation by refusing to issue certificates of naturalization to foreigners adhering to the doctrines of polygamy, on the ground that they could not have the proper sort of character or principle for American citizenship. The judge has again come to the front—this time dragging the editor of the Salt Lake *Herald*—which journal had insinuated against him that he was in the habit of making descents of a predatory nature on mining property—before the Grand Jury, and requiring that body to indict the *Herald* if the story were false, and himself if it were true. From copies of the *Herald* still allowed to circulate, it does not appear that the judge's orders have had a chastening effect on that newspaper, for it now denounces him for gagging the press, and in no very indirect language hints that the administration of justice in McKean's court is a "put-up" affair. Meanwhile, operations for the suppression of polygamy are actively going on, proceedings of several sorts having been begun which involve Elder Ricks, Cannon (delegate to Congress), and Brigham Young. Cannon was elected to Congress by means of the female vote; he is now prosecuted for polygamy. Ricks's case is singular. According to the best accounts, being drawn on the grand jury, he swore that he was not living in polygamy, but could conscientiously find true bills against those who were. But on the following day, evidence being forthcoming to show that he had five wives, the elder replied by falling back on the great principle of the common law that he was not bound to criminate himself, but that it was the business of the Government to find out whether he had five wives or not. According to the Springfield *Republican*, he is described as being "the beau-ideal of an orthodox Mormon," with the "mountain meadow face," a man who would "divide his last biscuit with the traveller at night and cut his throat in the morning, to the glory of the church."

On the 3d of next month elections will be held in some twenty-five States and Territories, of which the result will determine the complexion of the next Congress, and also some other things. In Michigan, the election day this year, according to the *Woman's Journal*, will be "the most important day in its possibilities that has dawned upon America since the Declaration of Independence," for it will be the day on which "the men of Michigan, by their votes, will establish or defeat impartial suffrage and equal rights for women." A very stirring appeal it is that we find in the columns of the *Journal* to the nobler sympathies of the Michigan male voters, reminding one in its ringing notes of some of the best efforts of General John Cochrane in one of his proclamations issued on the eve of a Liberal-Republican victory in the State of New York: "Ignored by every party organization, embarrassed by insufficiency of means, assailed by the unscrupulous defamation of political demagogues, the suffragists of Michigan are strong in their principles. They appeal to the good men of all parties to establish a true republic upon the soil of the peninsula." There is, as the author of this appeal justly says, only one way to carry the State, and that is by persuading a sufficient number of male voters to vote affirmatively on the adoption of the suffrage amendment. The sky looks black and cloudy indeed, the wind howls in the rigging, and the ship of state is driving on a lee shore; but we infer from what the *Woman's Journal* says that a vigorous attempt will be made to keep her off the rocks.

In South Carolina, we believe, there is no active agitation for woman suffrage; indeed, in few of the Southern States since the war have there been many indications of a desire for this reform; though if, as the ladies say, one of its immediate effects would be the purification of politics, the South is just the place where they ought to be most eager to introduce it. But the minds of both Conservatives and Radicals there are occupied with other things. Governor Moses has been at last driven into guaranteeing the people of his State a fair election, by changing the election commissioners in every county. This move is hailed with great satisfaction by the Conservatives, who now have hopes, with the aid of the bolting Republicans, of carrying the State. Chamberlain does not seem to be making a successful campaign, and though he has recently published denials of most of the specific charges against him, he does not succeed in persuading any one that his reputation is in a good condition for political use—and this, after all, is a *sine quâ non* for a good reform candidate.

The *Interior*, a religious paper published in Chicago, says "the *Nation* reads the religious press a severe lecture for advertising the Northern Pacific Railroads." The *Nation* never did anything of the kind. It found fault with them for secretly taking pay for puffing railroad bonds in "their money and editorial columns." We have never said one word against the advertisements in any paper as long as they were not disguised or indecent. Nobody is deceived by an advertisement, or, if he is, a publisher is responsible for it. It is not advertising but concealed brokerage that is reprehensible. The *Interior* further says that, "if they were to believe the *Nation* and other secular papers, they knew that ministers, widows, etc., were being subjected to a gigantic system of swindling, and yet they kept quiet"—that is, in the case of the Northern Pacific. Here again the *Interior* talks like a sinful, wicked paper. The *Nation* never pretended to know anything about the prospects of the Northern Pacific Railroad, and therefore never said one word about it. It refused to take the responsibility either of advising people not to buy the bonds or to buy them. It refused an invitation to go over the road and see its enormous capabilities, because if accepted, the invitation would have entailed an obligation to express an opinion. We will now, however, tell the religious papers how to avoid trouble with widows and orphans about bad investments. They must watch the course of the *Nation* closely, and do as it does—that is, totally leave off puffing bonds, stocks, or any species of vendible commodity, or helping any commercial enterprise by editorial commendation. If they really want "to save wicked men and overthrow the power of the Devil," this is the way to begin, for we can assure them there is nothing gives the Devil more satisfaction than a "Publisher's Department" filled with lying puffs paid by the line, and put forward as the advice of a simple-minded Christian who wants his friends to get the worth of their money. Some papers have also circulated

the story that Mr. Bowen of the *Independent* has sued the *Nation*. This must amuse Mr. Bowen as much as it does us. We have said nothing in the remotest degree actionable. Mr. Bowen has the contract of which we have spoken, and knows himself that our account of it is rather under than over the truth. Why, then, should he sue us?

If there can be said to be any news from Spain, it shows the condition of the Republic to be getting worse and worse. It would appear now that the attempt to relieve Pampeluna was a failure Not only did Morioues suffer severely on the march back, as we mentioned last week, but his contribution to the stores of the garrison was small, and the place is now more closely invested than ever. There are rumors of a new and desperate movement on the part of the Republicans within a few weeks, but there is also a counter rumor that the Carlists are at last preparing to cross the Ebro in force, and one is perhaps as likely as the other. The recent article in the Government paper, the *Politica*, recommending foreign intervention, has created much excitement, and has strengthened the belief in other countries that Germany is in some manner behind Serrano. He has been remonstrating with both France and England for allowing supplies to be sent to the Carlists, and has been treated civilly and somewhat apologetically by the former, but Lord Derby has handled him very roughly on behalf of England, and, in fact, advises him to get the Spanish navy to be efficient—a task which we suspect is beyond Serrano's powers.

The great subject of interest in Germany is the arrest and imprisonment of Count Arnim. The Cologne *Gazette* has published what purports to be a full, true, and particular account of it. It appears that the Count's sympathies, and perhaps opinions, were on the side of the Legitimists during his residence in Paris under the Thiers Ministry, while Bismarck, who took a more purely German view of the matter, was satisfied that a Legitimist restoration would be dangerous to peace between the two countries. This led to a coolness and withdrawal of confidence on Bismarck's part, but the Count was still allowed to remain at his post until his unsuitableness became more clearly manifest, and then it was determined to translate him to Constantinople. In the interval between his leaving one post and taking another, however, his successor in Paris discovered the absence of certain papers relating to the Papal question, and Arnim acknowledged that they were in his possession, and surrendered them. Further search revealed the absence of many more, some of which the Count denied all knowledge of, and others he admitted to be in his possession, but refused to surrender. The judges were then appealed to, and it is under their orders that he has been arrested, and his house searched. The main question on which they will shortly pass is whether the missing papers are private and personal letters or official despatches. The affair has derived additional gravity from the fact that the purloining of despatches, and their publication by diplomatists for personal purposes, has of late been unfortunately common among European diplomatists. The Duc de Gramont was guilty of it, and so were Count Benedetti and M. Rouher; and General La Marmora used some confidential papers in defence of himself against the German Government, which led to a savage remonstrance from Bismarck. But there seems to be no good ground for believing that Count Arnim has any materials for startling revelations about Bismarck, as the Ultramontanes have been trying to flatter themselves. The original number of missing papers was one hundred, and they relate to the Count's mission both in Paris and at Rome during the Council of the Vatican.

In France there is still much disputing over the meaning of the elections to the Councils-general, and much hard struggling on the part of the Republicans, as here, to make it seem that wherever the Monarchists or Imperialists made any gains it was owing to "local issues." The fact is they have made some gains between them, and united have a majority over the Republicans. But it is plain enough that there is no very sensible change in provincial opinions on the leading questions of government. The local notables are not much more favorably regarded for being Republicans, or less favorably regarded for being Legitimists or Bonapartists, than they were a year or two years ago. That burning eagerness for a republic which is said to reign in the hearts of the French masses, and which makes some people so angry with MacMahon and the Assembly for not proclaiming it at once, has thus far in fact not been revealed by any of the ordinary channels. We hear of it from M. Gambetta, and from several English and American newspapers, but the French country people keep mum about it in the strangest way. MacMahon's dealings with the press excite more and more dissatisfaction. He suspends on ludicrously small grounds, and pretends that he can stand no criticism which does not treat the Septennat as the only needful and for the present only possible government. The press is occupying itself largely, in the present ticklish condition of home politics, with drawing fearful pictures of the way in which Germany is going to dominate England and other foolish nations which allowed her to get the better of France. But there is no more outlook in French politics than there was a year ago. The Legitimists, who are so sorely puzzled to know what to do with the Comte de Chambord, are trying as a last resource to get him to come and live in France, believing apparently that this might bring him to his senses.

But scanty particulars of the civil war in the Argentine Confederation have reached us, and these by Cable. The leader of the insurgents is General Mitre, who assumed command, by manifesto, on the 12th instant, the day of the inauguration of the new President, Dr. Nicolás Avellaneda. The elections which resulted in this choice were bitterly contested, and the frauds which were alleged to have occurred were made the pretext of revolt, which broke out about the first of the present month. The city of Buenos Ayres was speedily beset by land, and the rebels, though not allowed to remain in the port of Montevideo, have kept a small navy afloat, which has given the Argentine Government much anxiety. Numerous instances of defection from the Government ranks are reported; and the capital, in which public opinion appears to be divided, has been thrown into a state of moral and financial panic. Thus far no engagements of any importance have taken place, and there have been even rumors of compromise, in which President Avellaneda was to sacrifice his office. We count it among the encouraging signs, however, that he followed up his entrance upon his duties with a proclamation calling upon all law-abiding citizens for support; and that his predecessor, Sarmiento, has taken command of the troops defending Buenos Ayres—precisely where we should have expected to find him. What intensifies the struggle is the fact that the Presidential term is six years; and in a different sense perhaps from what he intended, Dr. Avellaneda's words at a banquet given him in August seem likely to prove true, when he said: "The power and efficacy of our institutions have not been so sorely tested by the electoral conflict as they have been by the result." Stript of personal considerations, the war is, in fact, like our own civil war, one between a national and a particularist, a legal and a revolutionary, a North-American and a South-American party. With this issue the degree of popularity of the President has no concern, and the question of fraud at the polls takes at once a subordinate place. The mixed population of a capital in which Italians outnumber every other nationality except the Spanish-Americans, and in which the foreign-born residents make a close approach to one-half the total, complicates the problem immensely, or rather is a premium on the success of revolt, since the triumph of law and order depends upon the successful maintenance of the capital. One thing is certain, that something more than six years of a wise and useful administration like that of Sarmiento's, and than such an advance in civilization as is implied by four thousand miles of telegraph, is needed to make the country of Rosas a stable, steadily progressive republic.

THE WORKING OF THE FORCE ACT.

WE think those of our readers who are inclined to the opinion that it is safe and well to hand the government of the Southern States over to the Attorney-General and the army, would do well to go back a little and examine the arguments by which negro suffrage was imposed on the South as a condition of reconstruction. We were among the number of those who advocated it, and we did so on two grounds, justice and expediency. That is to say, although we were in favor of an educational test, we thought it would be unfair to exact it of the blacks without exacting it of the whites, particularly as the blacks were at that time objects of great contempt and aversion to the whites. But the reason which seemed most powerful of all was the belief that by arming the blacks with the ballot we should furnish them with the means of protecting themselves against white aggression, and thus relieve the General Government from the necessity of interfering in Southern affairs in a way that might eventually prove dangerous to all State independence. It was urged, and with great force, by the friends of negro suffrage that it would be impossible to stand guard over the black man without an army of three or four hundred thousand men and enormous expenditure of money, and that, therefore, by far the cheapest and safest thing to do was to enable him, as a voting citizen, to obtain deferential treatment from the various political parties, and to influence the choice of judges, sheriffs, and other administrative officers. We said that though this might not secure him at the outset against violence or intimidation, it was sure to do so before long; that a million of voters must speedily become objects of adulation to politicians and office-seekers; and that this protection for the freedman would be secured in the regular American way, and we should be saved the necessity of centralizing the government, and introducing arbitrary practices into our administrative system.

After nine years' experience of the working of negro suffrage at the South, we see only one thing to regret, and that is, that the admission of the negroes to the franchise was not made gradual, and through an educational test. This probably might have been done without as much difficulty on the score of inequality as we then thought we saw, and it would have saved Southern society from the tremendous shock caused by the sudden and indiscriminate admission of the newly-emancipated slaves to a share in the Government. But we say this in the interest of the whites. As regards the security of the blacks, the fondest hopes of those who demanded the suffrage for them have certainly been realized. In those States in which there is a clear white majority, and the government is in white hands, everything has turned out much as was anticipated. The negro enjoys as much protection from the laws as the whites, and can use his vote with just as much effect as the whites, and, as far as we can learn, has nothing to complain of except inability to get office—a grievance with which it is difficult to have much sympathy. In Virginia, we believe, he is not fairly dealt with in the matter of common schools; but, as regards this, we should give him precisely the same advice we should give Irishmen who wanted a share of the school funds for their church schools, or Germans who wanted free lager, or any other class of the community suffering from any disability—"Argue and protest and vote until you get what you conceive to be your rights." On the other hand, in those States in which the blacks are in a majority, the blacks have themselves become, in the hands of white knaves, oppressors of the worst sort, and have brought society to the verge of destruction. Here, in like manner, we advise the unfortunate whites to argue and protest and appeal and vote until *they* get their rights. In short, we urge upon both blacks and whites a thorough trial of the American theory, on the ground that order and peace will somehow, sooner or later, be evoked from free discussion and free voting, and that occasional violence and outrage are not sufficient reasons for giving up the experiment of free government, and falling back on martial law.

Now, our firm belief is that this experiment would have succeeded if the Republican party had chosen after reconstruction to let the South alone. What has placed, or is placing it in peril, is the fact that after the carpet-baggers had gone down there and arrayed the blacks into a party and revealed to them the secret of their power, the chiefs in Washington took it into their heads to perpetuate, or at least prolong, the hold of the Republican party at the South, and thus supply a counterbalance for possible reverses or defections at the North, by additional legislation enormously increasing the power of Federal interference. Not only were the marshals and collectors allowed to become the confederates or supporters of the thieving carpet-baggers, but their authority was greatly enlarged, and the number of contingencies calling for Federal meddling with State affairs considerably increased by the passage of the Force Bill in 1871. We fully reviewed this legislation on the 20th of April in that year, and pointed out its tendencies and dangers. We showed, and we think conclusively, that it was an artful attempt to give the Administration at Washington complete power of police in all the States, and the United States courts jurisdiction of all classes of offences. If any reader will take the trouble to turn to our files of that date, and will then look at what is now passing at the South, he will find that all our previsions as to the use which might be made of the act are being fully realized. It is, in short, being used as an electioneering engine of extraordinary efficiency. By an ingenious and novel use of the words "conspiracy" and "rebellion," and by treating the constitutional prohibition directed against certain kinds of State legislation as if directed against certain offences committed by individuals, it hands the whole State police over to the United States marshal, if he chooses to assume it. That is—and here is the place where the dexterity of the act as a political measure most clearly appears—the Administration is not charged with the duty of keeping the peace of the State at all times, but only at such times as it chooses to interfere. A murder, for instance, is committed in the month of August—we are now citing a case of actual occurrence. In an ordinary year the State authorities would be left to hunt down the murderer; but committed this year, with the election coming on in November, the United States marshal intervenes, treats the crime as a violation of the Force Act, or "a denial of the equal protection of the laws," and himself arrests the assassins and such persons as he may deem conspirators with him, and pronounces the killing of the man in August as an attempt to hinder him from voting in November. In fact, the statute is so vague in its wording, and may be made to cover such a large variety of offences, and is so largely independent of overt acts for its taking effect, that it can be used, and is being used now at the South, in Alabama and Louisiana, as a means of spreading terror and confusion among the enemies of the Administration. We do not believe that any constitutional government has equal means of intimidation, and used by such men as now fill Federal offices at the South it may make an election a mere farce.

One of the strongest objections to this state of things, were the purposes of the Administration never so pure and its officers never so honest, would be (as we have often said) that it prevents the negro voter from receiving the educating effect of the working of real political machinery. A political system which depends wholly, as ours does, for its success and permanence on the faith of the people in the general reasonableness—or, in other words, in the possibility of creating majorities by persuasion—cannot be worked by men who have not learnt the art of persuasion; and rude, ignorant men, new to civil as well as political life, can only be taught the art through practical experience of the necessity of it. This experience we are doing all we can to prevent the negroes from acquiring in the very States in which it is most necessary that they should have it—namely, those in which they are in a majority, or are nearly equal in number to the whites. The minute they come in collision with the whites, and the necessity of forbearance and conciliation on their part arises, down we come with our Force Act, and our marshals, and our infantry and cavalry, and begin to snap up all their more troublesome opponents as "rebels" and "conspirators," and lock them up in jail. In fact, there is hardly one of the lessons in the art of government which American jurists and politicians have

been preaching to the rulers of the Old World for the last ninety years, which we are not now ourselves disregarding at the South, and hardly one of the advantages which we have claimed for our system of divided powers over the European system of centralization which we are not now repudiating.

One sees already the evil effect of the act on public sentiment at the North in the way in which it is promoting the habit of substituting loose, vague, Spanish-American phraseology for the precise and accurate description which has been the glory of Anglo-Saxon politics for ages, and which has proved the best safeguard of Anglo-Saxon freedom. The officer who telegraphed to Kellogg the other day that "intimidation reigned supreme" at Breaux Bridge, had clearly learned his lesson in the new nomenclature. Instead of charging men in the old style with having said this and done that on such a day and at such an hour, we now begin to pursue them, in the style of the French procureurs, for "exciting to hatred and contempt of the Government," as they say, or, as we phrase it, for depriving citizens of "the equal protection of the laws." Even careful and able writers are catching this most dangerous infection. Judge Ballard has most righteously ruled in Kentucky that the Force Act does not take effect under the amendment to the Constitution until a State passes an act violating the amendment. In other words, he simply says that laws in this country are always directed against specific acts of omission or commission, capable of rigid description, as the only true safeguard against despotism. A man is to be punished when he does this or that; the President is to call out the militia when certain physical phenomena, for which there is a well-known legal designation, appear; and so on. But *Harper's Weekly*, replying to Judge Ballard, maintains pleasantly that the Force Act takes effect, not when a State through its legislature does something, but when "its ruling sentiment" or "controlling public opinion practically nullifies laws which are verbally equal." This is not addressed to the public of Guatemala, be it remembered, but to that of the United States; and we may therefore ask the *Weekly* how it would describe, *in court*, "the ruling sentiment," or "controlling public opinion of a State"? How do we know when this "ruling sentiment" "practically nullifies a law"? What is "the practical nullification of a law"? In what does it consist? Is it the refusal of juries to find verdicts of guilty? If so, how many juries? Is it the refusal of police to arrest or of district-attorneys to prosecute? If so, how many such refusals amount to a "practical nullification"? Is it true that the government of a State ought to be set aside in this country whenever the President does not like its "ruling sentiment"? Are we prepared to allow him to define the phrase "controlling public opinion" for himself? If so, how does the government of Alabama differ from that of the Department of the Bouches-du-Rhône or of the Province of Barcelona? Where do we find any support for the belief that a free government can last long after public officers have been released from the necessity of basing their official proceedings on overt acts? What should we think of a law which provided that all persons wanting in candor and elevation of character, and producing an impression of selfishness and narrow-mindedness, should be imprisoned for six months with hard labor? What solid objection could you make to it? Would it not be a good thing if such persons were shut up, harassed, and generally discouraged? In short, we advise all persons who are reading ancient or mediæval history, in order to get at the nature of the subtle and slow process by which popular governments have been destroyed, to lay down their books and study the utterances of the Administration press in our own day, and the nature of our policy at the South. The work will be made all the more profitable by a perusal of what the founders of this Government thought of the dangers to which it, like all other governments of the same class, would probably be exposed.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENTS.

THE amendments to the Constitution of New York which are to be adopted or rejected next week are in a remarkable predicament. They have been regularly proposed by a non-partisan commission. They are supported by the press and by several private bodies of citizens who are not in any way connected with politics, and who have no conceivable motive for supporting them except the public good. Even the Bar Association, which has declined to recommend them formally, as being outside its legitimate sphere of action, has let it be seen that the private feelings of the members are in favor of rather than against them. No man of any prominence has dared to oppose their adoption, and on the day of election every polling-place will have a box to receive ballots on one side or the other. Besides this, the amendments, which mainly deal with the abuses of special legislation and the debts of municipal corporations, are not merely unobjectionable—they are what the people of this and other States have been crying for for some years. To take one glaring case: it was by a series of outrageous acts of special legislation that Tweed got hold of the treasury of this city in 1870, and there is nothing that we know of in the constitution to prevent another Tweed from repeating the same trick with the same besotted city ten years hence. There can be no question, however, that the new amendments, which relegate local affairs to local bodies, and restrict legislation at Albany to matters of general concern, would have a very decided preventive effect. As to the municipal-debt question, there is perhaps no Eastern State in which the abuses of power on this head have occasioned more trouble than in New York. If you go into the interior of the State, you will meet Grangers and the friends of Grangers by the dozen who will assure you that village after village and county after county have been bankrupted by wholesale subscriptions to stock of corporations, and it is only a few years since a vigorous attempt was made all over the country to get these subscriptions held invalid. That particular effort failed, for it was an attempt to get the law altered by irregular and unconstitutional means, but the proposed amendments contain a clause expressly adapted to secure the desired end (Art. VIII. Sec. 11): "No county, city, town, or village shall hereafter give any money or property, or loan its money or credit, to or in aid of any individual, association, or corporation, or become directly or indirectly the owner of stock in or bonds of any association or corporation; nor shall any such county, city, town, or village be allowed to incur any indebtedness except for county, city, town, or village purposes. This section shall not prevent such county, city, town, or village from making such provision for the aid or support of its poor as may be authorized by law."

This is thoroughgoing, and will effectually prevent any of those curious financial transactions between railroad corporations and counties, cities, towns, and villages which are said to result so disastrously to the farmer. But this is not all. For a long time there has been a growing feeling throughout the country that the contraction of accumulating debt by the States themselves is an evil, and, according to a carefully compiled list recently made, the constitutions of twenty-two States now prohibit the loan of State credit or money to corporations for internal improvements or any other purpose; six virtually prohibit the creation of public debt by the legislature for any purpose whatever; and nine prohibit in their fundamental law the engaging in any works of internal improvement in the name of the people. We do not need to enumerate these States by name, for the fact is notorious; and another fact that is notorious in New York is that the history of the great internal improvements of the State—the canals—has not been such as to inspire anybody with much faith in the honest supervision of the expenditure of funds raised by taxation for the purpose of benefiting private schemes. The canals are now a nursery of fraud, and the canals belong to the State. What they would produce if they were private enterprises and borrowed the credit of the State, we can faintly guess by imagining what the Erie Railroad would have become by this time were Fisk still living and in partnership with Gould, Tweed still at the head of the government of the city, and the gentlemen who make laws at Albany selected by the three.

Under all these circumstances, it would seem antecedently probable, if it be really true that we have a popular government, that the amendments would be adopted. There could not be a better illustration of the singular relation existing between the voting body in the State and the political class than in the fact that there is at the present moment an almost universal suspicion that the amendments are not to be allowed to pass. It is not that the Democratic party is opposed to them, or that the Republican party is opposed to them, but that there are a number of persons in both parties whose private interests are opposed to their adoption; "there is money" in their rejection and there is no money in their adoption. The *Tribune*, in discussing the status of the amendments, very truly says: "The canal contractors, the lobbyists, the venal men who aspire to make merchandise of their votes at Albany, and the enemies of reform because it is reform, are not few in number, not lazy, and not unacquainted with the tricks of politics"; and it pathetically asks the various reforming bodies, among others the Chamber of Commerce and the Grocers' Board of Trade, whether they have made arrangements to have ballots in favor of the amendment ready for voters in every voting district of the State. There is something painfully suggestive in the thought of the Grocers' Board of Trade and the Chamber of Commerce being obliged at their own cost to provide the voters of a State with ballots in a regular election, because the leaders of the two parties are believed to be scheming to prevent the public from expressing their opinion. Except in the newspapers, these amendments have not been openly discussed by any political organization, so far as we know. The State conventions have carefully avoided support of them; yet every one knows that they have been discussed in secret, that managers have expressed their opinions *pro* and *con.*, and that it largely depends on that expression of opinion which way the election goes. No one denies the importance of the amendments.

It is not, however, the local importance of these amendments with which we are so much concerned, as the light which their fate will throw on the condition of popular feeling throughout the country on the question of constitutional reform. We have called attention several times in these columns to the fact that we are now in the middle of what may be considered our third period of constitution-making. The first was that in which the framework of the Federal Government was devised; the second, that of the ultra-democratic constitutions, securing "responsibility to the people" by means of universal suffrage and the elective system; the third is that in which State after State, without attempting to attack the suffrage, or even generally the elective system, has sought by means of restrictions placed upon representative bodies, such as the legislatures or local municipal governments, and by means of strengthening the hands of the executive, to place checks and restraints upon those bodies whose proceedings the so-called reformers of twenty years ago made dangerous to liberty. The restraints on special legislation, and on the creation of State, county, town, and village debts, proposed now in New York, are not the devices of dreamers to effect a theoretic perfection in the machinery of government; they are the practical proposals of practical men, directed against practical abuses of the government; against that most insidious form of tyranny and oppression which springs out of corrupt license. In other States the reforms have been carried, and much good has been done. It seems, however, from the example of Ohio, and from what is now said of New York, that there is some reason for fearing that the wave of constitutional reform has spent its force. It was generally believed that the Ohio constitution was lost, not because it was not in the main a good instrument, but because of a general feeling of distrust and repugnance to any scheme of reform. In New York, notwithstanding the machinations of the politicians, the people can certainly carry the amendments, if they desire it. The question is whether they really do desire it. The Democrats are now congratulating themselves on their recent victories in the West, and with good reason. There seems no doubt that there as elsewhere a profound feeling of disgust with the Republican party has been developed. Our chance of getting something better than the Republican party into power depends, however, very much on whether this feeling is one of blind, brutal hostility to the actual possessors of the offices, or whether it comes from a rational desire for improvement. The way in which the Ohio constitution was treated makes us rather doubtful on this point, and we shall look with much interest to see what light is thrown on the question by the fate of the amendments here. If they are lost, there is one thing quite certain, that the party which carries the State will get the credit of having defeated them.

THE RITUALISTIC MOVEMENT.

THE General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in this country, now sitting in this city, has just passed nearly a fortnight in trying to find out whether a candidate for a bishopric was or was not tainted with the ecclesiastical disease known as "ritualism," and, is now trying to legislate formally against it. Contemporaneously with this discussion, the late Prime Minister of England has been discussing "ritualism" in a magazine, and the whole English press, including even the *Economist*, has been commenting with great solemnity on his article. In this country there has actually been a secession from the Episcopal Church on account of ritualism; and the probability of a split in the English Church through the same agency is just now a problem which occupies the minds of English politicians almost, if not quite, as fully as the question of popular education, for a split on this ground would most likely be followed closely by the disestablishment of the English Church, which would be an event of great political as well as religious importance, and the effects of which would be felt all over the world.

Mr. Gladstone's view of the movement is, that it is simply too much of a good thing, or, in other words, that in so far as it is æsthetic it is perhaps beneficial, both by associating art more closely with public worship among a race singularly unartistic in its tastes and conceptions, and by bringing that powerful means of reaching the untutored imagination, the symbol, more prominently into use, and that what is to be complained of is that it is being pushed to an extreme. There is no doubt that it was mostly æsthetic in its origin. The Tractarian uprising at Oxford in 1832 diffused among all classes a new view of the English Church, and led indirectly to a revival in church architecture and decoration. The interiors of a vast number of the English churches were restored and beautified, and a great many new and handsome ones were built, and the defacements in the shape of pews and plaster introduced by the eighteenth-century Erastians were swept away. When the churches had been restored, the clergy began, not unnaturally, to feel that their own robes were hardly in keeping with their new surroundings, and they began to look about for a good excuse for putting on more picturesque vestments. This they found in the Rubrics of the Book of Common Prayer, which prescribe "that the ornaments of the church and of the ministers thereof, at all times of their ministrations, shall be retained and be in use as they were in this Church of England, by the authority of Parliament, in the second year of King Edward VI." There were a great many strange rites and a good many strange ornaments in use in the second year of the reign of King Edward VI., and accordingly, when the young ministers had found them out, worshippers all over England saw their churches transformed before their eyes into places which, to a great many of them, were not distinguishable from what the fiery old Reformers used to call "Popish mass-houses."

This was the ritualism of Mr. Gladstone's youth, and thus far it is comprehensible enough. Since the days when he first figured as a church enthusiast it has gone a good deal further, and has become not quite comprehensible. The early Tractarians could not quite reconcile themselves to the idea that church services were nothing more than prayer, praise, and exhortation, for this put them on a level with those of a dissenting meeting-house, and de-

prived them of what was to them the essence of religious acts—mystery. And yet prayer, praise, and exhortation were all that could be made out of them unless the minister had some special function to perform in which the people could not share. So the sacrament of the Lord's Supper was gradually changed from its evangelical eighteenth-century character of a piece of pious commemoration into the miracle known in the Catholic Church as "the sacrifice of the mass," by which the priest changes the bread and wine into the real body and blood of Christ, and offers him up once more as a propitiation for sin. This point once reached, the Ritualists had what they most needed—a great mystery, on which all the services turned, and which converted the minister into a "priest," and made the congregation witnesses rather than auditors or participants, and justified almost any amount of splendor in dress or ceremonial. Nothing is more curious in the performances of the more advanced Ritualists, however, than their struggles to get rid of the last remnant of the evangelical régime—the use of the English language. There is nothing they more envy the Catholic priests than their possession for professional purposes of an unknown tongue so as to mark distinctly the exclusion of the congregation from any mental co-operation in the proceedings, and there is something almost comic in the way in which they endeavor to make the simple Liturgy of the English Church, the noblest and most impressive English perhaps which this generation ever uses, entirely unintelligible to the laity, like the Latin of the mass, by mumbling or chanting it, in an undertone, and with an outlandish pronunciation.

The movement has been greatly stimulated in England by the entrance into the church of a body of clergymen of inferior education, both social and literary, to those who were formerly supplied by the universities. The increased demand for ministers created by the growth of population, and the diminution in the supply of university men caused by the increasing attractiveness of secular pursuits and the spread of rationalistic opinion at Oxford and Cambridge, have compelled the bishops to ordain of late years large numbers of men educated anywhere and anyhow, who are called "literates," and whose zeal is apt to outrun their discretion. Their presence in the church has not only caused a very great abatement of the sober-mindedness and the love of middle courses of which "the learned and judicious Hooker" set the example, and which used to be a marked characteristic of the English clergy, but it has produced a diseased craving for the exaltation of the clerical order from which the old clergy were entirely free. In fact, sacerdotalism was kept down in the English Church by somewhat the same influences which kept down militarism in the English army. In the latter, the officers always plumed themselves a good deal more on their social than their military position; they liked better to be considered "gentlemen"—that is, members of a certain social caste—than "officers." In like manner, the clergy always shrank from becoming a class apart, and the plainer ones liked to hunt, and shoot, and dine, and be good fellows with the squires, rather than simple ghostly advisers. The new-comers have no such weaknesses. Outside their profession, they have little that entitles them to consideration, so they labor fiercely to magnify their office, and are producing in the English Church, for the first time in its history, a spirit of fierce fanaticism, which renders its relations to the state more and more perplexing.

The spread of the contagion to this country has of course nothing very surprising in it. The predisposing conditions: the sacerdotal ambition, æsthetic tastes, and deficiency of common sense—the most valuable of the regulative faculties—are found here as well as in England, and the spirit of imitation is even stronger here than in England. But it is, it seems to us, needless to fear that the movement is now really Romanizing in its tendencies. The Ritualists love liberty as much as other people, and know very well that if they once entered the Papal domain, instead of drawing goat-carts in a pleasant park, they would be put to the rudest drudgery of the farm and the quarry. Moreover, the taste for celibacy has not yet shown itself among them, and the surrender of marriage, either actual or prospective, is a sacrifice which the great body of them are less and less disposed to make. So that the probabilities are that they will stay where they now conceive themselves to be, in a restored and purified Anglican Church, where one has all the delights of Catholicism without its restraints or discipline, and without the responsibility for the aberrations of the Italian element in the Papal Government which Catholics in all Germanic countries now find so galling.

One naturally asks, when one watches the performances of the Ritualists, how it is that this reactionary movement should achieve so much success at a moment when rationalism, under the direction of men of science, is making such serious assaults on revealed religion. But it has to be observed that the scientific men really hurt the Catholics and Ritualists less than the Evangelicals or Broad-Churchmen. It is not so much the belief in the existence of a personal God that Tyndall and Huxley shake, as the authority of the Bible, and the way they do this is by inspiring distrust of or contempt for all literary evidence as arrayed against what they call the evidence of nature. Now, Catholics and Ritualists are not seriously concerned about the authority of the Bible. They have not to do battle for the cosmogony of Moses, or the strategy of Joshua, or the morality of David and of Sisera. The Oxford Tractarians, in fact, surrendered the Bible almost at the first shot, and took their stand, as do their successors, on church tradition. They believe things because they have "always, and everywhere, and by all been believed." The Old and New Testament might go, they say, and the church still stand. It knew and taught all that needs to be taught about Christ before the New Testament existed; so that the doctors are delivered from a deal of uncomfortable warfare over the authenticity of Scriptural history and biography and geology. Then it must be remembered that scientific men, and people of a rationalistic turn generally, enormously overrate the popular thirst for pure truth, just as philosophical politicians overrate the popular desire for good government. Scientific men are very apt to suppose that people must be shocked and disabused by the failure of evidence. As a matter of fact, they are nothing of the kind. "Credo quia impossibile" describes not simply the state of mind of monks, but of a very large proportion of mankind, at least in matters pertaining to religion. As long as the faculties of wonder and awe exist, there will be a craving for a mystery to excite them. Tyndall only finds this mystery at the "boundaries of experimental evidence," but the greater portion of his fellow-men find it a long way on this side of that line, and are often even willing, in order to save them the weariness of the way, to have it, at least partially, prepared before their eyes.

THE DECORATIONS OF THE NEW PARIS OPERA.

PARIS, October 9, 1874.

AMONG the many monuments which will mark the era of the Second French Empire, none will deserve as much attention as the new Opera of Paris, which is seen on the boulevard des Italiens, opposite the rue de la Paix and the Vendôme Column. This building will have cost, when it is finished, fifty millions of francs at the lowest computation; it is the work of a M. Garnier, a young architect of very great merit. The façade of the Opera is built of stones and marbles of various colors; gold has been used in its ornamentation very profusely. To many people, it looks too gaudy; its proportions have also been much criticised; but the details are very fine, and there is much beauty and grandeur on the two sides of the Opera where common stone has been used. The conception of the whole is altogether very original, and would be judged to better advantage if unfortunately the gigantic Opera was not on too low ground, and surrounded with enormous hotels which tend to diminish its size. On a slight elevation, the Opera would, with its immense Apollo on the highest point of the rotunda, look like a temple of art.

I will not speak to-day of the architecture of the Opera, but simply of the series of pictures which are to decorate its great *foyer*. These pictures, which number as many as thirty-three, most of them of enormous size, are the work of M. Baudry, who has spent the last five years in working at them without intermission. His studio was in the Opera building itself while it

was in process of construction. I sometimes paid him a visit through the wilderness of stones and ladders; he lived almost like a monk in his convent, and often had his breakfast brought to him from a neighboring restaurant. He devoted himself completely to his gigantic task. Baudry had spent five years in Rome before his reputation began: one, I believe, of his first works when he returned to Paris was the decoration of a ceiling of the hôtel of M. Fould, who was then Minister of State. This hôtel now belongs to the Duc d'Aumale, who bought it on his return to France. The whole manner of Baudry is already to be found in this charming ceiling, where the only figures are children, with various attributes in their hands. These children are on an azure ground: they are not the fat Cupids of the Boucher school, with their folded muscles, their perpetual smiles, and their fat cheeks; they are young *ephebi*, no longer children and not yet men, admirably adapted for the expression of masculine strength and beauty. What struck me most when I saw these pictures of Baudry's for the first time, was the deep Italian feeling which pervaded them; they reminded me forcibly of the pictures of that happy era of art when Raphael made the decorations of the Farnesina. But when I visited the studio of Baudry, in the upper part of the new Opera, I saw that he had aimed at the very highest point of art. Here were on all sides magnificent copies of the Sybils of the Sistine Chapel, and of the colossal figures of that almost superhuman work of Michael Angelo. These copies were the chief work of Baudry while he was in Rome; they are studies rather than copies, and would form by themselves a collection worthy of any museum.

How was it that with a genius naturally drawn to grace and elegance, as was shown in Baudry's first pictures and portraits, he gave himself up wholly to the pensive and sombre genius of Michael Angelo? He lived in the Sistine Chapel, he studied the powerful lines, the strange coloring of the great scenes taken from the Bible. And when he felt that he had identified himself to a certain extent with the ideas and the modes of working of Michael Angelo, when the time came to create something of his own, the irony of fate had nothing better to offer him than the decoration of an Opera. Such decorations must perforce be allegories, and almost all allegories have one terrible defect: they need explanation and interpretation. The great advantage of religious subjects, besides their elevating influence on the mind, is their transparency, their simplicity. They speak to the child as well as to the old man; to the most illiterate as well as to the most cultured persons. Go to Monreale in Sicily, to St. Marc in Venice, to all the churches in the world, you will find everywhere the great and familiar images which are, so to speak, the moulds of our mind, the forms of our ideal. It is not so with allegories: most allegorical pictures are incomprehensible, and they are all the more so the more deeply the artist has gone into his subject. If he happens to be a scholar, well versed in the 'Metamorphoses' of Ovid, in the old classics, then the allegory becomes so complex and archaic that it is to most minds a mere riddle. Baudry has not completely avoided this danger; he knows too much for a painter, as the public after all wants very simple subjects, with beautiful forms and fine colors. Raphael was quite right when he made so many Madonnas; the repentance of Magdalen will always be a favorite subject. The pictures of the Stanze are already a little complex; the Dispute of the Holy Sacrament, the Miracle of Bolsena, require a word of explanation; so does the School of Athens; but as soon as the subject is understood, how very simple and easy you find all its developments. In the Sistine Chapel, all is clear. I know that some critics have tried to build extraordinary theories on the arrangement of some figures and subjects in the great work of Michael Angelo; I believe that they have, as the French say, *cherché midi à quatorze heures*. If the Sybils are mixed with the prophets, there is nothing extraordinary or new in this combination; you will find it in all the Christian churches of the Renaissance; tradition gave the old Sybils a place among the prophetic minds, and everybody knows how long the memory of Aristotle was linked with the teachings of the Church.

I will first notice two series of figures in the great work of Baudry, because in my opinion they are the best. The first consists of eight colossal Muses, which will fill eight great panels. You must not look here for the sublime expression of the Sybils, with their features as hard as destiny, their eyes looking into futurity; but the free attitudes of the Muses, and their draperies, with bold and large folds, their simplicity, are a happy reminiscence of the pictures of the Sistine Chapel. The faces, alas! are a little too modern, too fashionable, if I might use the word; but some are charming in their way. They are pretty Parisiennes, and might dress at Worth's if they left off their long tunics and their peplums. The rules of symmetry have excluded one of the nine Muses, and Baudry sacrificed the Muse of Memory, Polyhymnia, for reasons which he has not confided to me. Urania, the Muse of Astronomy, is one of the most striking—very different from the famous Astronomy of Raphael in the Stanze.

The series of the boys, if you will allow me the expression, is also very remarkable; groups of young *ephebi* personate the national music of the world. They are completely naked and in the most various attitudes. The anatomy of these fine juvenile bodies is most beautiful, and there is a delightful variety in these figures, which are all on a blue ground. Germania, for instance, represented by a young angel, plays on an organ, and is looking towards heaven; next to the young organist is another angel playing the theorbo. France is represented in this series of medallions by a martial trumpeter and a young drummer; Britain's instruments are the harp and the bagpipe; Italy has the violin, and so on. There are ten such medallions, and once in place they will form a sort of azure and heavenly zone in the system of the decoration.

I am not so enthusiastic over the huge complicated pictures which will complete this decoration. The great central ceiling represents the meeting of Harmony and of Melody, an appropriate subject for the Opera; about these two beautiful girls fly Glory with her trumpet and Poetry with her golden crown, on the winged horse Pegasus. The most beautiful part of this enormous picture is the border, formed by a painted balcony which supports a variety of young Genii, naked boys in the most diversified attitudes, surrounded with flowers and birds. I do not much like the two pictures representing Tragedy and Comedy; they are altogether too complicated. Who could recognize, without a long explanation, Melpomene on the sacred tripod with an eagle at her feet, Fear, Pity, and Fury? Baudry has varied the attitudes as much as Michael Angelo. His Fury, with torch in hand, falls head foremost. There is the same painful complication in the picture of Comedy. A faun falls down on the head of a spectator, and Thalia brandishes her rod over him; Wit throws a dart at him; and Love laughs over the whole scene.

These three pictures form the ceiling proper; on the vaults which will unite the ceiling to the wall are to be twelve large pictures; the Muses and the medallions will cover the wall. I have not spoken yet of the twelve pictures of the vaults. These have offered great difficulties to Baudry, on account of the laws of perspective. Some of these pictures are very fine. There is not much difficulty in understanding the Judgment of Paris; it is one of those happy subjects which have tempted many painters; and it is no small praise to say that Baudry has treated it in an original manner. I prefer his Paris and Mercury to the goddesses. Paris is particularly fine; he is in a meditative attitude, and the lines of his body have a wonderful nobility. There are also beautiful forms in "The Shepherds." The scene is in Sicily; young men are disputing the prize of pastoral music; a young woman is milking a sheep to make a libation to the gods. She is drawn in the best style of art. I cannot describe all the subjects. The Parnassus is an immense composition; there is another called "The Poets," with Homer in the centre. Marsyas, who defied Apollo, and played on the rustic flute better than the angry god, is on the point of being flayed. A group of soldiers, under the leadership of Bellona, are led by musicians to an assault. David plays on the harp before Saul. Saint Cecilia is asleep and dreams of heavenly concerts; angels play round her. Orpheus and Eurydice are preparing to leave the dark domains of Pluto. The Corybantes dance round the infant Jupiter with their cymbals. The Menads tear Orpheus to pieces and dance wildly round him. Salome dances before King Herod.

The impression left by this gigantic work is on the whole one of great satisfaction. There are hundreds of naked figures, and there is nothing indecent or immodest. You receive a sensation of beauty, of force, of vigor; the imagination is drawn into a noble sphere. The coloring is much criticised, but by people who are more accustomed to oil-painting than to frescoes. Baudry has tried to imitate in oil the tones of the Italian frescoes, and he has done it successfully. It requires some education of the eye to enjoy fresco-painting; but the *ton* of the fresco is much better suited to the decoration of palaces, especially of the lofty vaults, than the darker *ton* of oil-painting. I will say one word more only: Those who will not be able to admire Baudry's pictures at the Opera, will do well to look at the magnificent photographs which Goupil has taken of what must be called the greatest work of the modern French school.

Correspondence.

HOW WILL THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT DECIDE THE GRANGER RAILROAD CASES?

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your recent article entitled "The Right to Confiscate," strong as it is, might have been stronger by extension, as I propose to show. When Frederic the Great proposed to take away the Mill from the old miller of Potsdam, the latter told the monarch he could not take it, no matter how

much he desired it, "for," said he, "there are now judges in Berlin.' In the appeal which the railroad companies of Wisconsin have made to the United States Supreme Court against the assumption of a right on the part of a legislative body to confiscate corporate rights and corporate property at their own will and pleasure and without making compensation, the case of the old miller and Frederic the Great to a certain extent repeats itself. The matter at issue in both cases is the same—namely, an attempt on the part of sovereignty to take advantage of its power to work an act of arbitrary oppression and tyranny; and the question of present interest is, Will the attempt fail, in the latter as in the former case, because there are judges in Washington as there were in Berlin, before whom sovereignty itself, whether limited or absolute, will not be allowed to work injustice? Reviewing the case from a strictly legal standpoint, and in the light of legal decisions, which thus far, in the public prints at least, have been apparently overlooked, the question, although not passed upon specifically, would nevertheless seem to be decided in the affirmative, and in fact for the following reasons to have become in the nature of a *res adjudicata*.

Thus, in the first place, it may be considered as adjudicated *that a charter is an executed contract*, the language of the United States Supreme Court in the case of the Holyoke Company *v.* Lyman (15 Wallace, p. 511) being as follows: "Charters of private corporations duly accepted, it must be admitted, are executed contracts, but the different provisions, unless they are clear, unambiguous, and free of doubt, are subject to construction, and their true intent and meaning must be ascertained by the same rules of interpretation as other legislative grants."

Second. This point the most determined advocate of the policy of the Wisconsin Legislature may freely concede, but at the same time answer, that the fact that the constitution of the State provided, previous to the granting of the railroad charters in question, that the State might at any time alter and amend them, renders the judgment of the court above cited inapplicable. We are, therefore, brought to the next consideration, namely, How are charters in all their provisions to be interpreted which, by State constitutions, are made subject to alterations and amendments?

Charters being conceded to be executed contracts, this question would seem to have been fully answered and decided some years since by the Supreme Court of one of the Granger States (Minnesota) in the case of Goener *v.* Schroeder (8 Minn., p. 307), in which the court held that a statute giving a subsequent legislature the power to change, impair, or modify a contract *inter partes*, which is valid when made, is not law, and therefore does not enter into the contract. In this case the legislature gave a mortgager a specified time (fifteen months) to redeem mortgaged premises, or such other extended time as the legislature might thereafter designate, and a subsequent legislature did extend such period of redemption. But the court held that the extension could not be enforced in reference to a mortgage made previous to the subsequent enactment of extension. Judge Story, writing upon the same point ('Story on the Constitution,' vol. ii., p. 275), also uses language as if he had a question involved in the Wisconsin cases directly before him, for he says, "that if we adopt the principle that a State may enact laws that all subsequent contracts shall be subject to be impaired by subsequent legislative action, the constitutional provision against impairing contracts will be nugatory." This reasoning of Judge Story would, therefore, seem to be conclusive against the power of a State to alter and amend contracts which are legal and valid when made; and the Minnesota case and the reasoning of Judge Story conjointly would also seem to make it clear that Granger legislation regulating freights and fares of railroads will be only applicable to railroads or parts of railroads constructed subsequently to such enactments, and cannot apply to any roads or parts of roads previously built where rights have become vested rights and contracts have become executed contracts.

Third. Independent, however, of this reasoning, it is obvious that a conceded power to alter and amend given in one provision of a grant cannot be construed in such a manner as to destroy the entire grant or charter, or the evident intent or whole scope and purpose of such grant. It is a familiar principle of law that in a deed or grant of real estate all reservations inconsistent with this grant are null and void. A grant or conveyance of land, for example, coupled with a provision or reservation that the grantees shall not sell or lease the land, is good as a grant, but the reservation is interpreted to be inconsistent with the grant, and therefore void, for the reason that the right to sell or lease is an attribute of ownership, without which ownership cannot exist. It is a matter also, not only of law but of common sense, that a reservation in a grant or charter cannot be greater than the grant itself, or override the obvious intent of the grant. The rights of property exist irrespective of any charter. The right to collect remunerative tolls or fares is not a prerogative right, but a natural and common-law right. It is the natural right of all common carriers arising from the natural right of such persons to receive and collect remuneration for services rendered. Prerogative rights, on the other hand, granted under a charter, are rights which do not accrue to natural persons, but are such rights as are peculiarly given by legislators to corporations: as the right to a common seal, the right to sue and be sued collectively, the right of exemption from personal liability of stockholders for corporate debts, and the like. It follows, then, that the limitation or reservation of powers under a charter can only limit the prerogative rights that have been specially granted, and empower such legislation only as is not hostile to but promotive of the objects of the grant and the interests of the corporators or stockholders.

It is to be presumed that the framers of constitutions or the makers of laws, in authorizing or creating corporations, contemplate that the objects of the corporation shall be consummated. The constitution of Wisconsin authorizing railroad charters must be construed to authorize the construction and operation of railroads for remuneration; for otherwise no such corporations would have been formed or any railroads built—and this is the construction which the legislatures of Wisconsin, moreover, have always heretofore recognized, in granting to railroads charters whereby they are authorized to establish their own freights and fares. Now, can a legislature under such grants change the object and purpose of a charter? Can a legislature change a railroad, chartered for the purpose of transporting passengers and freight for remuneration, into a great private pauper Grangers' association, or charity, for gratuitous rides and transportation; and this, too, not for the benefit of the State at large or for a strictly public purpose, but for the exclusive benefit of private parties living in immediate proximity to the road—thus converting a railroad into a private or local charity, to the manifest injury of other localities in the State which do not participate in such benefits or discriminations? Was it the object of the corporation to construct a free railroad and give every man a free ride? Nearly all the churches in the country are organized under charters by special or general laws, subject to legislative alteration or amendment. Will it be assumed that a legislature, in consequence of such reservation, can regulate the pewrents of such churches and the salaries of the pastors; or change a Catholic church into a Jewish synagogue, or put a Unitarian clergyman into a Trinitarian pulpit? Can a State for public purposes use the property of chartered churches without compensation? Can benevolent institutions founded under charters (with reserved rights to alter and amend), for the benefit of particular religious sects, be changed so as to become the instrumentalities for benefiting other religious denominations not approved of by the founder? Would not the logical results of the Granger doctrine—*i.e.*, the right of a legislature to alter and amend charters to an extent capable of defeating the original object—warrant an interference with all the religious and benevolent institutions of the land at the will of legislators, in case religious bigotry and intolerance should ever reassert itself as in past ages? But the interference with the administration of a given religious denomination to the extent of changing its faith and purposes is not a more radical change than the diversion of a railroad from the purpose of remunerating its stockholders to the becoming a benevolent free railroad. Or, to take a different class of illustrations, can a legislature, under the reserved right to alter and amend (coupled, if you will, with the plea of paramount public good), regulate or establish the prices of the manufactured products of chartered manufacturing corporations? Can it regulate the advertising rates or subscription prices of the New York *Tribune*, *World*, *Times*, *Journal of Commerce*, or other like incorporated newspaper companies, on the plea that these journals are monopolies, and that their stock is unreasonably remunerative? Can it divert the waters of a chartered mill, without making due compensation for such diversion? And yet wherein is the difference between arbitrarily diverting or abating streams which have been gathered up and forced to flow in particular channels at great expense, for the purpose of propelling machinery to spin and to weave, and arbitrarily reducing the freights and fares of a railroad; for are not the latter, equally with the former, streams which propel the machinery, and which have not only got to flow, but flow in sufficient quantity to prevent the railroad and mill machinery alike from becoming useless or unprofitable?

But upon all the points here suggested the United States Supreme Court has already given unmistakable evidence of its opinion, and thus clearly indicated what is likely to be its decision in the railroad cases under consideration. The opinion thus referred to, and which thus far does not seem to have attracted public attention, will be found in the 15th of Wallace, p. 498, Miller *v.* the State; and the language embodying the opinion is as follows:

"Power to legislate, founded upon such a reservation in a charter to a private corporation, is certainly not without limit, and it may well be admitted that it cannot be exercised to take away or destroy rights acquired by virtue of such a charter, and which, by a legitimate use of the power

granted, have become vested in the corporation; but it may be safely affirmed that the reserved power may be exercised, and to almost any extent, to carry into effect the original purposes of the grant, or to secure the due administration of its affairs, so as to protect the rights of the stockholders and of creditors, and for the proper disposition of the assets.* Such a reservation, it is held, will not warrant the legislature in passing laws to change the control of an institution from one religious sect to another, or to divert the funds of the donors to any new use inconsistent with the intent and purpose of its charter, or to compel subscribers to the stock, whose subscription is conditional, to waive any of the conditions of the contract." †

This language of the Supreme Court, therefore, seems to establish the position that changing a remunerative railroad corporation into a benevolent railroad corporation, or changing a Catholic corporation into an Episcopal one or changing a church corporation into a race-course or lottery corporation, is not an alteration or amendment of a charter, but the creation of a new corporation for new purposes. There can be no objection to creating corporations to afford free rides, or free freights, or cheaper fares and freights than now prevail. But can a legislature compel persons to become corporators or participants in these new benevolent enterprises? Again, benevolent enterprises, chartered *de novo*, usually exempt the corporators from any personal liability; but corporations instituted originally for affording remuneration to stockholders, and then made benevolent institutions against the will or purpose of the corporators, may entail upon the stockholders a personal liability in addition to the loss of all their corporate property; as, for example, in Minnesota, whose constitution provides that all stockholders in corporations shall be personally liable to the amount of their stock; and, if there is no repeal of the law of imprisonment for debt in Minnesota, they might also be incarcerated for the benefit of a benevolent institution established in direct opposition to their wishes.

Fourth. It is also pertinen there to allude briefly to the application and bearing of the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States on this question.

The logical result of the recent Granger railroad legislation is, that the stockholders in railroads are not the owners of the roads; but, on the contrary, that the roads are the creatures of the State legislatures, and that of necessity the creator must, under all circumstances, be paramount to and capable of controlling the creature. Railroads are, however, notwithstanding this supposition, the creation of labor and capital. These have been contributed by the stockholders and not by the legislators or the public. Whoever has made these contributions, therefore, owns or ought to own the roads, and has alone the right to exercise and enjoy the attributes of ownership, one of the chief of which is the right to prescribe rates of freight and fare. An assumption of right on the part of a legislature to fix arbitrarily rates of freight and fare which are not remunerative is therefore an assumption of ownership, or the appropriation of private property, without rendering an equivalent. Furthermore, an agreement by all parties concerned to permit such property to be appropriated without consideration is null and void, inasmuch as it is not a contract in any constitutional or judicial sense, and therefore cannot be enforced by any process of law, by which alone, according to the Fourteenth Amendment, can any citizen be deprived of life, liberty, or property. And what consideration has the State of Wisconsin given for the assumed right to appropriate a railroad from the very moment that its construction has been completed?

Before the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment there was no provision in the Constitution of the United States which could restrain any State of the Union, if it saw fit, from seizing and appropriating the property of any of its citizens without making compensation; a point which was made the subject of a decision in the Supreme Court of the United States in 1833, in the case of Baron *v.* the Mayor of Baltimore (7 Peters, 243). In this case, the city of Baltimore, in the exercise of its corporate authority over its harbor, so diverted certain streams of water that they made deposits of sand and gravel near the plaintiff's wharf, and thereby prevented the access of vessels to it. A writ of error was taken from the judgment of the Maryland Court of Appeals, refusing damages, to the Supreme Court of the United States, on the ground that this decision violated the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which prohibits the taking of private property for public use without just compensation; the plaintiff further contending "that this amendment, being in favor of the liberty of the citizens, ought to be so construed as to restrain the legislative power of a State as well as that of the United States." The court, however, by Chief-Justice Marshall, held that this Amendment to the Constitution "is intended solely as a limitation on the exercise of power by the Government of the United States, and is not applicable to the legislation of the States"; which was equivalent to saying, that if the several States chose arbitrarily to take or confiscate the property of any of their citizens, there was no higher sovereignty to restrain them. But since the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, which provides that *no State* shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, a State legislature has no power arbitrarily to assume ownership or exercise the attributes of ownership over property which it does not own or possess; it having been well settled by both the United States Supreme Court and the highest State courts, that a legislative act appropriating, injuring, or destroying private property, without compensation, is not "due process of law." (Murray's Lessee *v.* Hoboken Land and Improvement Co., 18 How., 272; Taylor *v.* Porter, 4 Hill, 140.) And in the case of Bartemeyer *v.* Iowa (18 Wallace, 133), the Supreme Court of the United States seems not only to recognize the direct force and effect of this amendment in respect to the taking of property, but also the conclusion that indirectly but inevitably follows: that any arbitrary interference with the right of any person to use and enjoy property is equivalent to the arbitrary taking of the property itself—thus confirming the case of Wynehamer *v.* The People (3 Kernan, 466), in which the New York Court of Appeals, after defining property to be the rights of an owner to possess, use, enjoy, and dispose of a thing, logically added that whatever subverts such rights annihilates property to an owner, even though, as a chattel, the property has neither been seized, nor physically destroyed, nor even diverted from his possession. Therefore, the Fourteenth Amendment, as soon as adopted, became a direct prohibition against the hostile legislation recently adopted by Western States towards railroad property.

To recapitulate, therefore: A charter is an executed contract, and cannot be impaired by any legislation that is hostile to the purposes of the grant; nor can the ownership of the stockholders in a road be arbitrarily invaded by changing the clear objects and purposes of the grant, nor by any assumption of power on the part of a legislature which is tantamount to the exercise of ownership, without a violation of that clause of the Fourteenth Amendment before quoted, which is copied from the Magna Charta; and without equally violating the same principle embodied in the commandment from which Magna Charta and the Fourteenth Amendment alike derive their force, viz., "THOU SHALT NOT STEAL."

DAVID A. WELLS.

* Commonwealth *v.* Essex Co., 13 Grav, 253; Miller *v.* Railroad Co., 21 Barbour, 517.
† Railroad Co. *v.* Veaz *v.*, 39 Maine, 581; State *v* Adams, 44 Missouri, 570; Zabriskie *v.* Railroad Co., 3 C. E. Green, 180; Sage *v.* Dillard, 15 B. Munroe, 357.

Notes.

AT the late Woman's Congress in Chicago, the discussion of improved methods of wearing the present female costume excited a great deal of genuine interest. We observe that the Ladies' Dress Reform Association of Boston has employed Mrs. A. G. Woolson to edit a work on this subject, of which Roberts Bros. will be the publishers.——Lafayette College has just received, as a gift from the Swedish Administration of the Iron Office, a complete collection of the iron ores of Sweden; a duplicate of one given some years since to the Royal School of Mines in England.——An association for the spread of free-trade doctrines has been founded in Florence, under the title of *Società Adamo Smith.* It embraces a large number of professors of political economy in the various universities of Italy, and not a few senators and deputies of the kingdom.——We have received from B. Westermann & Co. Vol. I., Part 8, and Vol. II., Parts 6 and 7, of 'Ritter's Geographisches-statistisches Lexikon'; Parts 21 and 22 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas,' whose contents have already been described; No. 25 of the third series of Westermann's illustrated *Monatshefte* (published at Brunswick), in which the most noticeable article is one on Carlyle by Julian Schmidt; and the first number of the *Deutsche Rundschau,* of which we shall speak presently.——A brief and authentic account of the origin of the names of the several States and Territories in this Union is to be undertaken by a committee of the American Antiquarian Society, consisting of Rev. E. E. Hale, Hon. J. Hammond Trumbull, Rev. H. M. Dexter, Rev. George E. Ellis, and Hon. P. C. Bacon.——A handsome catalogue of the Montpensier Collection and of other pictures loaned at this time to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, has been published. A frontispiece we take to be a heliotype copy of Murillo's "Vierge aux Langes." The *Athenæum,* overlooking the ownership of these paintings, alludes to them as if they belonged to the Museum, and were the rather worthless beginning of its collections.——Harper & Bros. have just published the eighth edition of Mill's 'System of Logic.'——A timely map of Formosa is given in the October number of the *Geographical Magazine* (John Wiley & Son), together with a map of the Dominion boundary from the Lake of the Woods to 107° W., illustrating Captain Anderson's paper on the Boundary Survey read before the British Association. A sketch-map in the text shows the route and discoveries of the Payer and

Weyprecht Polar expedition. The best map of Hayti that we have yet encountered is published in Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for Aug. 26 (L. W. Schmidt).——'Epochs of American History' is announced by Estes & Lauriat, Boston. The work will be in five parts at a dollar each.——Richmond & Patten, New Haven, will publish 'Honest John Vane,' by J. W. De Forest; and 'Thoughts on School and College Education,' by President Noah Porter.——A Life of the late Rev. Dr. Ezra Gannett, by his son, Rev. William C. Gannett, is to appear in December, with the imprint of Roberts Bros.

—Mr. Charles Lanman has addressed a memorial to Congress, in which he asks compensation for Government infringement of his copyright in his well-known 'Dictionary of Congress.' The infringement is of long standing, having occurred in 1867, after three editions of the Dictionary had been issued, by order of Congress, at the public expense (for which the author received as a royalty one dollar per copy). This mode of publishing having been discontinued by Congress, and Mr. Lanman having declined an offer to dispose of his copyright to the Government for $50,000, the official *Congressional Directory* in 1867 began to adopt "almost literally" his plan of giving biographical sketches, which it had never before undertaken to do. We do not understand that Mr. Lanman's biographies were bodily appropriated, though he seems to imply that something approaching this was done. The grievance lies, of course, and it seems to be sufficient to call for redress, in borrowing the idea which constituted the chief value of the Dictionary, and alone made the copyright worth taking out. As these facts must be easily susceptible of proof, and as Mr. Lanman states that his private publishing of the Dictionary since 1867 has been unprofitable, we should expect Congress to admit his claim for damages, or to accept his alternative and at last purchase the copyright.

—A neat volume of about 150 pages, published by vote of the town of West Springfield, Mass., contains an account of the centennial celebration which took place there on March 25 of the present year. It contains the excellent historical discourse delivered on the occasion by the Rev. Thos. E. Vermilye, the poem read by Mrs. Ellen P. Champion, and the sayings and doings of various other persons in the Town Hall and at the subsequent dinner. An appendix gathers up the letters received and reminiscences contributed, together with the several acts of incorporation, lists of town officers, genealogies of the leading families, etc., etc. Four of these families are immortalized in the following doggerel, in vogue a hundred years ago:

"'What time o' dee?' says Walter Cooley;
'Eleven o'clock,' says Judah Bagg;
'Time to repent,' says Parson Lathrop;
'Time enough yet,' says Heman Day."

The Baggs still flourish in West Springfield, one of them, Mr. J. N. Bagg, being the compiler of this memorial, in which Parson Lathrop's portrait serves as a frontispiece. The two churches in which this minister officiated are figured in woodcuts, the first being a veritable architectural curiosity; and there are cuts also of the primitive school-house and the first town-hall, and, quite as worthy as the rest, the old elm in Shad Lane, which the procrastinating Heman Day shouldered and set out on his twenty-first birthday, January 27, 1776. The present girth of this noble tree, at three feet from the ground, is 24½ feet. In 1829, according to Mr. George B. Emerson, it was 18 feet, and the rate of growth which he then calculated for it was four inches in circumference per annum. Since that time the rate has been less than two inches per annum. The full age of this elm is now about 110 years. The West Springfield family which has made the most noise in the world is that of Wade, "Honest Ben Wade" being the one great man whom the town can honor as a mother her son. He was, as we learn here, the youngest child but one of James Wade, a shoemaker and common soldier, who fought in the battles of Lexington and Bunker Hill, and was a long time a prisoner at Halifax—a good pedigree. West Springfield was originally part of Springfield, and became a distinctly incorporated town in 1774—the event celebrated. In 1790, it had the largest population of any town in (old) Hampshire County, and till 1810–1820 it still surpassed Springfield in this respect. Its territory has been divided off, so that more than one-half of it has gone to Holyoke and Agawam; and the farming district which is left numbers scarcely more inhabitants than in 1790 (2,606 now, 2,367 then). Its history has been a quiet one. It was one of the centres of the Shay insurrection, "a large force of the insurgents being collected here under Luke Day, who gave," says Dr. Vermilye, "the most complete description of a demagogue I have ever heard: 'I will do as I please, and other people must do as I say.'"

—The late Dr. Nathaniel Bradstreet Shurtleff, who died in Boston on the 17th instant, and whose loss has been markedly felt in his native city, was, for his generation at least, more nearly a typical Bostonian than any public character that could be mentioned. He had certainly none of that snobbish exclusiveness which is considered by novelists not to the manner born the mint-mark of the genuine Bostonian; nor did he represent, on the other hand, that radicalism, social and political, which with equal accuracy is identified with Boston. In politics he was a conservative; in his daily intercourse with his fellow-men, in affability and accessibility, in the absence of all pretence, he was thoroughly democratic. He was born in 1810, at the "North End" of the town, and it is said that he had six paternal ancestors in the *Mayflower*, not to speak of the Puritan blood also which came to him through his mother. He graduated at Harvard College in 1831, in the same class with Wendell Phillips and John Lothrop Motley. Shortly after his entrance upon the practice of medicine, and close upon his marriage, he took up his residence on Beacon Street, where he lived for forty years, and long after the encroachments of business had made the location an undesirable one. For three years, 1868–70, he was mayor of the city. This, it must be allowed, was a fairly typical Boston career. The traits for which Dr. Shurtleff was eminent were his devotion to historical pursuits, his public spirit, and his active participation in all those institutions and measures which have secured for Boston, above any other American city, a consistent, rational, and homogeneous development. His presence (not his words, for he was an indifferent speech-maker, and preferred to be silent) was as necessary in the celebration of any local event as that of the mayor himself. His industry was untiring, and he was most generous in sharing the fruit of his studies. He was for a great many years a school-committeeman, secretary of the Board of Overseers of Harvard College, trustee of the Boston Public Library, and member of a score of learned societies. His literary works embraced a 'Topographical Description of Boston,' several genealogies, an 'Epitome of Phrenology,' a 'Perpetual Calendar for Old and New Style,' and, as editor, the 'Records of Massachusetts Bay,' in 6 vols., the 'Records of New Plymouth,' 12 vols., and the 'General-Court Records.'

—"The Question of Races in the United States" was the subject of a paper by Dr. Joseph P. Thompson, formerly of this city, now of Berlin, read before the Association for the Promotion of Social Science at Glasgow during the present month. Dr. Thompson has actively employed his time while abroad in seeking to spread just conceptions of the character of his countrymen and the real nature of the present phase of American politics. This, his latest utterance on home affairs, indulges in some well-founded speculations on the influence of our foreign population upon the future of the race and of the country, but more especially discusses the existing relations of black and white Americans at the South, and the dangers which seem to menace us on account of them. In the material condition of the South, so far as it is not affected by politics—for instance, in the increased production of cotton—he finds evidence of steady improvement, and concludes of course that "if the political element of the problem could be withdrawn, the so-called 'conflict of races' would be greatly modified, if, indeed, it would not wholly cease." Fusion through amalgamation, as in the case of the foreign immigrants, he considers quite improbable, and without precedent on a large scale in so marked a contrast of color. Regarding, therefore, the facts as they are, he offers four suggestions for relieving the pressing difficulties of the South which have grown out of the misrule and oppression attendant upon the necessary policy of enfranchising the ignorant blacks. One is that the Government stop interfering by legislation or otherwise on behalf of the negro as such, and confine itself to keeping the peace when duly invoked. Another is that the blacks be taught that they must depend on themselves. A third, that the whites, by doing justice to the negro in all their actions, remove all suspicion and apprehension from his mind. The fourth suggestion is the most novel and ingenious, but will, we fear, be deemed impracticable. It is nothing less than that "blacks and whites of competent intelligence have the courage to accept the penalty of the Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution, and to disfranchise themselves for the National Congress for the sake of securing good government at home." This is to be done by fixing a standard of intelligence and character for the privilege of the suffrage—reversing, in other words, the almost uniform tendency of our democracy for half a century. "To show their honesty and impartiality in such an educational test, the whites should agree to elect to office a fair proportion of blacks who already meet the test, and to admit all persons to vote as fast as they reach the standard, at the same time making education compulsory. Many a white man at the South would be disfranchised by the same rule." A convention of native Southerners to consider such a reform as this, which could not fail, if carried out, to react upon the North, would form an epoch in the history of the Republic, and offer the highest possible contrast to the late wretched gathering at Chattanooga.

—The respect once entertained in this country for the quarterly reviews of Great Britain received a rude shock from their views of our civil war, it

being difficult to believe that such blunders as they made could be due to pure ignorance. But the July number of the *Edinburgh Review* contains a piece of astronomical history which, in the number and extraordinary character of its blunders, almost rivals the celebrated article on our finances which appeared in *Blackwood* some seven years ago. The writer has forgotten, if he ever knew, that gravitation acts as the inverse square of the distance, and describes it as inversely proportional to the distance itself—a statement which might pass as a single slip of the pen were it not that he enters into a calculation to prove his proposition from the motion of the moon; and, making a blunder in his calculations, brings out a result to agree with the new theory. He then proceeds to inform us that the largest "irregularity" in the moon's motion, and the first one discovered, was the "evection," that Tycho Brahe discovered the "parallactic inequality" and the "annual equation," that an inequality of two hundred and forty-three years was found by Airy, was traced by Hansen to the action of Venus, and is now received as real, while another of two hundred and seventy-three years found by Hansen is considered doubtful—propositions every one of which is incorrect, either in whole or in part. The only one which has anything in its favor is the discovery of the annual inequality by Tycho. It was indeed shown by his observations, but Flamsteed was the first to indicate its real nature.

—In the *Polybiblion* for September we find mention of a number of recent French works to which the attention of our readers also may well be directed. M. Taxile Delord's 'History of the Second Empire' has now reached its fifth volume, which opens with the year 1867 and ends with the dismissal of Rouher, the formation of the Ollivier ministry, and Napoleon's concession, delusive and short-lived, of new liberties to France. One of the most curious revelations is that concerning M. Villemessant's secret connection with Rochefort's *Lanterne*, while all the time professing in the *Figaro* to be one of the conservative supporters of the Government. 'The Relations of the Family and of Education to the State of Society in France' is the title of a work by M. Henri Baudrillart, who enumerates among the causes of the present social demoralization the novel theories about the equality of the sexes and the emancipation of woman. Count Gasparin, however, in his 'L'Ennemi de la Famille,' insists that the greatest enemy of the family is the Catholic Church; a thesis which naturally does not find favor with the *Polybiblion*. The family is also the subject of the second volume of Baron de Portal's 'Politique des lois civiles, ou Science des législations comparées,' in which it is urged that the family should be cherished as the counterpoise of the democratic tendency to foster individualism and civic egoism. A critique of 'The Old Faith and the New,' from the Hegelian standpoint, has been published in French ('Strauss: l'Ancienne et la nouvelle Foi'), by Professor Vera, of Naples. M. Gaston Feugère's 'Study of the Life and Works of Erasmus' receives high praise. The epistles of Erasmus have been most diligently used by his biographer, who styles him, not inaptly, the Voltaire of the Renaissance. In a bibliographical note the author gives a valuable chronological list of works pertaining to his subject, from 1527 to 1873. An English poet has found a discriminating admirer in M. Léon Boucher, whose 'William Cowper, sa correspondance et ses poésies' has commended itself to the Paris Faculty of Letters. A work which has been judiciously preserved from dulness by means of anecdotes, citations, etc., is Tell's 'French Grammarians,' from the beginning of grammar in France down to the latest productions. It undertakes nothing less than the careful analysis of from four to five hundred different works, dating back as far as 1520. A bibliophile who adopts the pseudonym of Louis Dangeau, and whose library he asserts to consist of but one author—Montesquieu—has used his complete collection of the works of this author, in all editions, to prepare a bibliography, of which only a hundred copies have been printed. Each edition mentioned is accompanied by a note upon its character and value. M. Dangeau announces that the descendants of Montesquieu's youngest daughter are about to give to the light his hitherto unpublished productions; and that he himself will shortly edit a complete edition of Montesquieu's works, no doubt in such a manner as to discourage any subsequent attempt in this direction. 'The Normans in Canada,' by M. Gosselin, is the result of researches among the archives of the native city of La Salle. M. Bonnange's 'Projet d'un Catalogue universel des productions intellectuelles' has been put in practice in several of the Government offices in France, and has won a warm eulogium from Littré. We judge it to be the system of card catalogues now and for many years past adopted in all our great libraries.

—The first number of the German *Revue des Deux Mondes* bears a general outward resemblance to its model, but maintains a Teutonic individuality, nevertheless, in its title—"Rundschau" being substituted for the Gallic "Revue"—and in its print, which is German and not Roman text. When we come to compare its contents with those of the French fortnightly for October 1, we must certainly award the palm of scholarship and literary excellence to the latter. It seems as if anxiety to escape the dreaded charge of too much *Gründlichkeit* in the new monthly prompted the choice of the first articles, and led to a very marked preponderance of light reading matter. To Berthold Auerbach was assigned the honor of furnishing the opening novel, and we cannot say that the choice was a happy one. His story is short and unsatisfactory; and the stiffness of its characters, as well as the court-like atmosphere in which they move, are much more suggestive of the defects of the author of 'Auf der Höhe' than of the charming simplicity of his 'Dorfgeschichten.' Anastasius Grün, who but lately in his beautiful song from the Veldesersee (in Carniola) showed himself worthy of his reputation as Austria's greatest poet, contributes an extract from a poem of his, 'Zum Concil, 1414,' which relates an incident in the journey of Pope John XXIII. through the Tyrol. The poem is labored in expression and description, and disappoints the author's admirers by an unusual ruggedness of versification, such as—

> "So an Leib's- wie Seelenspeise."
>
> "Von Geweiht' und Ungeweihten."
>
> "Was ich segn', ist nur die Zukunft."

Professor von Sybel, in a valuable essay on "Die erste Theilung Polen's," attempts the vindication of Frederic the Great from the charge of having for purposes of territorial aggrandizement planned the division of Poland. In spite of Frederic II.'s well-known memorial sent to his ambassador at St. Petersburg in 1769, Von Sybel maintains that the division was not the result of a plan preconcerted by any of the parties, but an expedient suddenly suggested by the danger of a general European war. According to Von Sybel, it was Joseph II. who by the occupation of the district of Zips precipitated the crisis. "Der Zug nach Sedan," by Colonel J. von Verdy du Vernois, adds nothing new to the literature of the Franco-Prussian war, but is interesting as the account of an eye-witness to the capitulation of Napoleon III. and the events immediately preceding it. The colonel was chief of staff of the first army-corps, and General von Moltke dictated to him the first draft of the capitulation. Kaulbach's letters to his friend, Edward Schüller, give evidence of the painter's high literary culture and even of considerable poetic talent. "Botanische Probleme," by Professor Ferd. Cohn of Breslau, is a somewhat pretentious epitome of the history of botanical science, and concludes with a plea for a more general appreciation of the value of natural sciences in public instruction, which at the present day seems a waste of words. We doubt whether two novels, however admirable, ought to appear in a single number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, but we confess to a preference for Theodor Storm's "Waldwinkel" over Auerbach's production. It is a well-executed story of the dreamy and psychological character so much in vogue among German novelists. There are book reviews, strongly national in tone, by Friedrich Kreyssig, and no fewer than three articles on the stage, the one from Vienna being by Professor Eduard Hanslick, probably the best musical critic in Germany. The political review, which is limited to Europe, is well done; but good taste would have suppressed some harsh remarks on the political condition of France. We notice a few errata, such as Kirchhof for Kirchhoff, "chips from a *g*erman workshop," and the un-Polish ending of "y" given to Czartoryski, Poniatowski, and other Polish names in Professor von Sybel's article. E. Steiger and Stechert & Wolff are the New York agents for this monthly.

—Corssen's first delivery on the 'Language of the Etruscans' occupie more than a thousand pages. While few readers can have yet found time to master it, we find its main positions stated in the *Athenæum* and *Academy*s —more fully in the latter. As the result of thirty years' labor, the learned author holds that the Etruscan is an Aryan language and old Italian dialect, which suffered much through long phonetic decay. All the important inscriptions in it he translates, arranging them according to their nature and the linguistic forms which characterize them. His second volume will contain in detail the proofs of the theory advanced in the first, and will give a complete grammatical analysis of the language, with "a discussion of the vexed questions relating to its origin, its affinities, the period of its development, and the age of its remains." Mr. Isaac Taylor's elaborate work on 'Etruscan Inscriptions' is set aside very quietly and amusingly. Mr. Taylor, it will be remembered, constructed an elaborate argument, assigning to the Etruscan a Finno-Altaic (Turanian) origin, on the hypothesis that certain dice discovered in 1848 contained six numerals in place of figures or pips. These he interpreted as follows:

> mach=1 ci=2 zal=3 sa=4 thu=5 huth=6;

and he raked together sixteen other so-called Etruscan numerals, of which eighteen, says Corssen, "are no Etruscan words at all, but mere rags of words and letters put together at random by Mr. Taylor, who is not so far master of Etruscan epigraphy as to be able to read or divide Etruscan words

correctly. Out of the remaining four words, *huth cis sa mach*, three are pronominal forms, the last a proper name." Corssen proceeds to write and interpret the inscriptions on the dice as follows:

Mach thuzal huth cisa
Magus donarium hoc cisorio fecit;

or, Magus carved this offering. "The dice were an offering, and, like other votive offerings, never intended for practical use." Corssen gives, after Grotefend (1828), a preliminary list of twelve Etruscan numerals, and their resemblance to the Latin at once appears. We give the first six only: 1. *Eka, Un*-i; 2. *Tei*-s; 3. *Tri*-na-ch-e; 4. *Chvar*-thv; 5. *Cuin*-te; 6. *Ses*-th-s.

—Any one captivated by Mr. Boyd Dawkins's easy ethnology of the Basques, in the *Fortnightly* for September, would do well to read Herr Virchow's remarks on "The Primitive Inhabitants of Europe" (No. 193 of the series conducted by himself and Von Holtzendorff). When Mr. Dawkins argues for the extension of the Basques from Spain into Great Britain and Belgium, supporting his theory upon the discovery of skeletons of the Basque type in these countries, one sees that a chance would very likely arise for doubting whether these were skeletons belonging to the Basque race, if the observations upon them had been made by such an investigator as Herr Virchow, who is prepared to affirm after a study of skulls found in caves in Belgium, though referrible only in part to the reindeer period, that they may be divided into at least four different groups. The two writers do not have the same subjects in their essays: Virchow even does not allude to the other's theory, and does not quote his authorities; but he is led in his discussion of the ancient inhabitants of Europe, as known from the earliest historical notices, and (*e.g.*, in the case of the Aryans) as inferred from the evidence of philology, to discuss the difficulties in the way of philological and ethnological researches apart from a certain history. Thus, at the outset, while Mr. Dawkins makes Iberians and Ligurians cognate, Herr Virchow says we know nothing about the Ligurians, and it is impossible to pronounce upon their affinity. We do not speak of Herr Virchow as an authority beyond dispute. A few of his observations seem remarkably careless to meet in a scientific discourse, and his essay would be the better in clearness if he had had some one theory to discuss as Mr. Dawkins has; but for its caution, although here and there it may be excessive, the essay deserves reading. —No. 196 of the same series is an essay by Friedrich Helbig on 'The Legend of the Wandering Jew, in its Poetical Transformation and Growth,' chiefly as this has been effected on German ground. The suggestion of a writer in 1848, that the Wandering Jew would be a fine man for the Universities to struggle to enroll in the list of their professors of history, appears to have been well worked by Andersen and Heller. Heller and Hamerling are the latest exploiters of the legend. Heller's poem is a panorama of the history of the Christian ages in verse; while with Hamerling the original character of the legend, Ahasuerus, the Jewish shoemaker of Jerusalem who would not suffer Jesus to rest by his door when he sank down there as he was being led to his death, is transformed into humanity always dying and yet eternal —if one may say "ewige Menschheit" in these days of Darwinism.—Dr. H. M. Richter's 'The Piccolomini' (No. 201 of the same series) details the true history of Octavio Piccolomini's career in contrast with Schiller's free treatment of it. The poet, who has handled the general incidents of Octavio's life and times to his pleasure, has trusted almost wholly to himself in his Max Piccolomini. The latter, as a Piccolomini, is altogether the poet's creation. Count Max Waldstein, Wallenstein's brother-in-law, was entrusted with the care of Wallenstein's wife and daughter; he had the influentia position at court said in the poem to belong to Max Piccolomini; he tried to keep Wallenstein in favor at court; and he was the commander of the model regiment, the most powerful in the army and the finest. These traits which appear in Max Piccolomini are historical; but otherwise Max is a free invention. This in opposition to Baron Weybe-Eimke, who has written an essay maintaining the historic originality of Max Piccolomini, and in agreement with E. Piccolomini.—Another number (204) of the series, Franz Engel's 'The Life of the Soul and of the Senses under the Tropics,' might be commended as an exercise in reading to students of German somewhat advanced and in private classes, if one did not consider a good deal of the rhetoric stilted; but if the last quarter of the discourse were omitted, and the judicious teacher were to make the proper observations upon the author's philosophical and other speculations, we should think the aspects of tropical nature and life here generalized would prove quite interesting.

THE PROTESTANT REVOLUTION.*

LUTHER is the hero of the Reformation, but Luther is not the representative of the whole of the movement which Mr. Seebohm happily terms the Protestant Revolution. He represents the religious side of the Reformation; Erasmus represents the intellectual side of the revolt against the system of the Middle Ages. Had it been possible for these two men and their disciples to have acted in perfect union, the Revolution would have attained a success which, in fact, only partially fell to it. One of the great merits of Mr. Seebohm's most remarkable little work, which contains more that is of value than is often to be found in elaborate histories of far greater size, is that it makes clear both the points of similarity and the points of essential difference between the school of Oxford and of Wittenberg. His only fault is that, while he is just to Luther, his heart is with Erasmus. He clearly feels some regret that the Reformation did not fall under the guidance of the scholar rather than of the enthusiastic monk. The feeling is one certain to be shared by a host of modern readers, for Erasmus was the broad churchman of his day, and is naturally admired by the divines and liberals of the nineteenth century. The question why it was that the Reformation fell under the leadership, not of Erasmus and Colet, but of Luther and Calvin, has more than an historical importance, since it throws some light on problems of the present day. In spite of his almost avowed bias in favor of the Oxford Reformers, no fairer guide through the intricate paths of the Reformation can be found than Mr. Seebohm. His work, if carefully studied, makes clear both the claims of Erasmus on our gratitude and the reasons why they fall short of the still greater claims of Martin Luther. Up to a certain point, Erasmus and Luther may be fairly considered as laborers in exactly the same cause. Each of them hated priestcraft, each of them saw how great were the evils brought on mankind by the condition of the Church, each of them wished to attack what each considered the main source of these evils. Each reformer held that true religion consisted not in ceremonies, but in a return to the principles of Christianity. If it be said that Luther contemplated only religious reform, it must be remembered that a reform of religion which placed the Bible in the hands of the people virtually involved a reform of education. If, on the other hand, it be thought that the efforts of Erasmus were directed to what a later age would have called the "spread of enlightenment," it must be borne in mind that his idea of enlightenment was to lay open, to learned and simple alike, the real character of the New Testament divested of all the traditional interpretation by which scholastic theology had concealed its true meaning. Not only may it fairly be said that Erasmus went a great way on the same path as Luther, but it may also be urged that in so far as he differed from Luther he deserves, in the judgment of modern readers, to be preferred to the reformer whose fame has so completely eclipsed his own.

One of the essential points which divided Luther from Erasmus was that the German priest believed heart and soul in doctrines which, by a convenient anachronism, may be termed "Calvinistic." "It is well to remark," writes Mr. Seebohm, "that these Augustinian doctrines (of Luther's) were, in fact, part of that scholastic theology from which the Oxford reformers were trying to set men free. In not accepting them they differed from Luther, but they and Luther had one thing in common—they alike held that religion did not consist in ceremonies, but was a thing of the heart." When Luther read the edition of the New Testament by Erasmus, "he discovered that there was a great difference between Erasmus and himself; that Erasmus did not accept those Augustinian doctrines on which his own faith was built. He knew that Erasmus was doing a great work towards the needed reform, and this made it all the more painful to find that in these points they differed. He was 'moved' by it, but he wrote to a friend: 'I keep it to myself, lest I should play into the hands of his enemies. May God give him understanding in his own good time.'" "This is a fact which in justice to both should never be forgotten. Luther was conscious of it from the first, and it had this future significance, that if Protestantism, as it afterwards did, should follow Luther and adopt the Augustinian theology, Erasmus and the Oxford reformers never could become Protestants." Now, on this, the vital point of difference between the two Reformers, almost every liberal-minded man of the present day will give a verdict in favor of Erasmus. The Augustinian theology has ceased to be the power which it was during the era of the Reformation. Modern theology is for the most part grounded on the very principles for which Erasmus contended. More and more it becomes clear, even to clergymen and divines, that a whole mass of theological speculation is merely the result of scholasticism, and must fall to the ground with the system from which it springs. When Erasmus published his edition of the New Testament, "he realized a great object which Colet had long had in view—viz., not only to draw men away from scholastic theology, but to place before them, in all the freshness of the original language and a new translation, the living picture of Christ and his apostles contained in the New Testament." In other words, the aim of the Oxford reformers was exactly the same as the aim of all the liberal divines of the nineteenth century. Erasmus, moreover, though a scholar, was free from the professorial weakness of wishing only to appeal to men of education and

* 'The Era of the Protestant Revolution. By Frederic Seebohm.' London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.

culture. "I wish," he says in his preface to the New Testament, "that even the weakest woman should read the Gospels, should read the epistles of Paul, and I wish that they were translated into all languages, so that they might be read and understood not only by Scots and Irishmen but also by Turks and Saracens. I long that the husbandman should sing portions of them to himself as he follows the plough; that the weaver should hum them to the tune of his shuttle; and that the traveller should beguile with their stories the tedium of his journey." Erasmus, again, and his school, possessed a width of view far beyond that attained by most of the reformers of their age, or, indeed, of subsequent ages. At a time when princes were everything, and the people little or nothing, they maintained that governments and nations existed for the sake of the whole commonwealth. They deprecated war, they urged the necessity of general education. They caught at least a glimpse of the doctrine of complete religious toleration; thus More in his 'Utopia' "describes the Utopians as giving full toleration to all varieties of doctrines and differences of creed, and pictures all worshipping together in one united and simple mode of worship expressly so arranged as to hurt the feelings of no sect among them, so that they might join in it as an expression of their common brotherhood in the sight of God."

Luther, on the other hand, commands the admiration but hardly obtains the sympathy of modern students. His theological doctrines have ceased to exert a wide influence. He shared to the full the superstitions of his age. He did not know what toleration meant. In all his conduct you can see that he is at bottom a German peasant. His mode of teaching was effective in its time, but does not suit the taste of the present day. You never get rid of a certain boorishness and roughness of manner which offends all the canons of modern good taste. If "sweet reasonableness" could have reformed the world, Erasmus and his friends ought to have been the leaders of their time. That they were not so must be manifest even to those worshippers of good taste who look upon the Protestant reformer as a Philistine. Mr. Seebohm is too wise a man to share the prejudices of such superfine critics. But he is obviously rather perplexed, and, so to speak, somewhat aggrieved at the fact that the Reformation was guided not by the rational wisdom of Erasmus, but by the dogmatism, the enthusiasm, and boldness of a preacher whose language is occasionally so strange that a calm critic like Hallam feels that "it almost justifies the supposition that there was a vein of insanity in his very remarkable character." Yet candid enquirers will find little difficulty both in accounting for the success of Luther and in perceiving that, on the whole, he deserved more than any other teacher to be the prophet and hero of his generation. It must, in the first place, be conceded that Luther's success was in a measure due to his defects. The views of Erasmus were in some respects too far in advance of the age to exert their due influence. "The Oxford Reformers aimed at leaving people open to form their honest judgment on various points of theology and practice according to their own consciences, and urged that people with different opinions and practice might be members of the same church, have charity one towards another, and agree to differ without quarrelling." It is easy enough in the nineteenth century to perceive that such teaching embodies a great deal of important truth, but the truth it represents was not of a kind to be easily understood in the sixteenth century. Sir Thomas More himself could not in practice adhere to his own doctrines of toleration. Luther's scholastic system was far better suited for the age. Reformers called upon to combat an infallible church needed for their support the strength of a dogmatic creed and the absolute belief in an infallible book.

But though the very defects of Luther's views were in a degree a source of his strength, it is a grievous error to suppose that he succeeded where Erasmus failed simply because the Oxford Reformers were in advance of their generation. The school of Wittenberg triumphed, and deserved to triumph, because Luther was in the right on what was after all the essential question of the time. He perceived that the papal system was false, and that no reform could be permanent which did not involve a breach with the Papacy. Erasmus believed, and no one can wonder at the belief, that the Papacy might be reformed. The belief was natural enough at the time, but the experience of centuries has proved that it was erroneous. The outrageous abuses which called aloud for removal in the time of Erasmus have been mostly either kept down or done away with. Pius IX. and his cardinals are as decent and respectable a body of ecclesiastics as the world has seen. But Pius IX. and the system of which he is the head are fully as great an obstacle to the progress of truth, of liberty, of toleration as were the popes and cardinals of the sixteenth century. It may even be said with truth that the modern Papacy is far more consciously opposed to progress than were the corrupt or licentious popes who excited the indignation of Luther or the satire of Erasmus. The dogmas of the Council of the Vatican would have excited the astonishment and perhaps even the laughter of Alexander VI. or Leo X. On the other hand, Protestantism, like the Papacy, has proceeded in its course of rational development. Luther's teaching was not tolerant, but it has ultimately produced the reign of toleration. Luther was obviously too indifferent to the political rights of the people. But wherever Protestantism has flourished, liberty has flourished also. Look at the matter from whichever side you will, and the fact becomes apparent that to overthrow the power of the Papacy was to take away the corner-stone on which the whole mediæval system of religion, theology, and society depended. To attempt to reform the Papacy was to attempt to reform that which from its very nature might be destroyed but could not be ameliorated. What was needed was not reform but revolution. Erasmus was a most sagacious reformer; but Luther, in the strength of his religious enthusiasm and of his hatred of what he saw to be palpably false, dared to be a revolutionist. Such daring, in nine cases out of ten, leads simply to failure, because a man may well have the boldness to venture on revolution without the insight to perceive what is the fundamental change which the time requires. In the one case in which the revolution succeeds, the leader deservedly becomes the hero of his age.

SPENCER'S DESCRIPTIVE SOCIOLOGY.*

MR. SPENCER set out very fully in his work on the 'Study of Sociology,' published last year, what was his idea of the mode in which sociological investigations should be pursued. His theory is substantially this: Mankind, as well as the rest of the universe, is governed by law. This is impliedly acknowledged even by those who refuse to admit it in terms, in the confident predictions they constantly utter as to the manner in which individuals will, under certain circumstances, behave, or to the consequences which will flow from such-and-such lines of conduct or from such-and-such legislation. Now, if we take an individual infant, we find we cannot predict all the special facts of his career—that is, what he will be, or how long he will live, or what kind of character he will have. No reading of biographies will help us to any conclusions of the slightest value on these points. Coming down, however, to facts somewhat less special, we find we can predict with some confidence. He probably will not attain eminence in any field of activity before the age of twenty, and about that age he will probably desire to marry, and so on. Coming down to facts of physical and mental growth, structure, and function, and development, we find that we can predict them with greater or less degrees of certainty. Mr. Spencer holds that there is a strong analogy in all these particulars between individual men and those aggregates of individual men we call societies. What ordinary biography is to anthropology he thinks the ordinary history is to sociology. In other words, the ordinary history gives one no better understanding of the constitution and probable future of an aggregate of men than biography gives us of the constitution and probable future of an individual man. "The kind of relation which the sayings and doings which make up the ordinary account of a man's life bear to an account of his bodily and mental evolution, structural and functional, is like the kind of relation borne by that narrative of a nation's actions and fortunes its historian gives us to a description of its institutions, regulative and operative, and the ways in which their structures and functions have gradually established themselves." In other words, to be able to attain that amount of certainty in prediction with regard to a nation's character and career which we have accomplished with regard to individual men, we must study the facts of its growth, development, structure, and function—that is, its anatomy and physiology. Nevertheless, the morphology and physiology of society do not correspond exactly to the morphology and physiology of man, but to those of all living organisms, or to morphology and physiology in general. Society is not of one type or grade, but of several, and has to be studied in a variety of groups and classes. There are fish, and reptile, and quadrumanal as well as bimanal societies, Mr. Spencer would say, though with certain traits of structure and development running through them all.

Accordingly, he feels that, in order to study sociology to any purpose, there must be made, what does not exist, and what historians have never thought of supplying, a collection of the facts which constitute their anatomy and physiology, and the investigation of which is necessary to a knowledge of the laws of their structure and growth. It is in order to supply this want, or rather to make a beginning of supplying it, that Mr. Spencer has entered on the enormous work of which the first two parts lie before us in folios of seventy pages each. Mr. Spencer has now been engaged on it since 1867 with a corps of competent assistants. It is to consist of three great divisions, each dealing with one group of societies: 1. Uncivilized societies; 2. Civilized societies, extinct or decayed; 3. Civilized societies, recent or still

* 'Descriptive Sociology; or, Groups of Sociological Facts, classified and arranged by Herbert Spencer. Nos. I. and II. English, Ancient Mexicans, Central Americans, Chinchas, and Peruvians.' New York: D. Appleton & Co.

flourishing. The first instalment of the civilized societies recent or still flourishing, and the first of civilized societies extinct or decayed, have now appeared. The first of the uncivilized societies will appear in the course of the coming year.

Let us take, in order to give the reader some idea of the manner of execution, Table I. of Part I., dealing with the English society during the British and Roman periods. The first question to be answered is, What were the environments or surroundings of the society?—that is, under what circumstances, not of its own creation, did it live? This is answered by a summary description of the soil, geology, and climate of the island—this being the "inorganic environment"; next, by description of the flora and fauna, as the "organic environment"; and next, of the neighboring tribes or societies, as the "sociological environment." Then comes the question what kind of men composed the society at the period in question, and this is answered by giving their physical, emotional, and intellectual characteristics. The Table devoted to the structural traits is divided between the "Operative" and "Regulative." Under the former head we have some account of the kinds of production in which the society was engaged, and of the manner in which labor was organized and directed. Under the head of "Regulative" we have some account of the various customs and institutions in which the religious, moral, and political ideas of the society found expression—civil, military, and ecclesiastical. These include marriage; the government and education of children; the civil government of the tribe; its preparation for war; its worship, and the machinery for worship; its funeral rites; its rules of social intercourse, modes of dress, and other habits and customs. Passing to its functional traits,we find under the head of "Regulative" its æsthetic and moral ideas and language; under the head of "Operative," the process by which it manufactured or exchanged, or produced in any way, the products of its industry, such as land-works, houses, clothing, utensils, weapons, and ornaments. By running down the Tables, you follow the growth of the society; by running across them, you get an idea of its structural and functional condition at any given period. Looking at them as mere suggestions, it is safe to say that a student who took them as guides in a course of historical reading would find his notion of what constituted history almost reversed; that is, he would find the class of facts of which nearly all histories are now composed relegated to a position not simply subordinate but almost insignificant; and another class which historians only notice incidentally, if at all, spread over the whole field. The column of "events" which every table contains has indeed about the same bearing on the others as the short sketch of the living history of a subject in the dissecting-room—his age, calling, and cause of death, if known—might have to the examination which followed.

Of course the question which rises to the lips of every one who sees these Tables, after he has got over the first impression of surprise and admiration created by the evidences of enormous labor which they exhibit, is, how trustworthy are they? and when one asks this, one comes upon the weak points in all attempts to treat sociology as a science. The analogy borne by the morphology and physiology of society to morphology and physiology in general is plain enough; but in investigating the latter we examine the organisms themselves, either wholly or in part. They are under our eyes. We handle them, dissect them, treat them with chemicals, investigate them with the microscope. The structure and functions of animals and vegetables we learn, in short, from the physical examination of them and not through testimony about them. In informing ourselves, on the other hand, about the growth and functions of society, we are almost entirely dependent on testimony, and that, too, testimony of an exceedingly defective kind—the chronicles of credulous and hasty historians, and the narratives of ill-trained or unscrupulous travellers, or the incidental allusions of soldiers or geographers. If anybody will look, for instance, at the materials from which the Tables relating to Roman Britain have been constructed, he will find that they consist largely of extracts from histories which are themselves largely conjectures of more or less ingenuity, based on meagre inscriptions and the results of a few excavations, or on Cæsar's scanty allusions in his account of his own campaigns. This difficulty, of course, diminishes as the observers grow in number and accuracy and the volume of literature swells, or, in other words, as we approach our own time; but it must be admitted that as regards uncivilized societies, and extinct or decayed civilized societies, and the early period of civilized societies, it is very serious. There is, too, one great source of error in all attempts to analyze a society distant from our own either in time or in manners, arising out of the danger of taking incidents to be symptomatic or general which are really isolated and exceptional. Cases of this occur constantly in our own day, in the accounts given by travellers of the manners of foreign nations, in spite of the great facilities for correction afforded by the multiplicity of accounts and by the busy criticism of the periodical press. The dangers to accuracy arising from it in dealing with remote ages and stages of civilization, in which the records of any kind were so scanty that collation is hardly possible, may be readily imagined. In short, an effort to base a science on literature must necessarily be tentative and unsatisfactory. This is no reason for not making it in the present case, and Mr. Spencer is not answerable for the imperfections of his materials, nor any the less entitled to praise and encouragement because they are imperfect; but the matter deserves mention for the benefit of those ardent disciples who in every field of investigation are prone to outrun the master and be quite sure and impetuous where he hesitated and groped.

THE *NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW* FOR OCTOBER.

IF the article in the current number of the *North American* called "An Episode in Municipal Government" were not signed Charles F. Wingate, we should have inferred from internal evidence that Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., had had something to do with its composition, dealing as it does with a subject—the history of the New York Ring—which he has made his own, and having a style bewilderingly like his. Any one who wishes, at the present stage of the Reform movement, to be consoled for the apparent shortcomings of Messrs. Havemeyer and Green, or any despondent Liberal-Republican who refuses to be comforted because General Dix has or has not declared himself against the Third Term, will do well to refresh his memory by looking over this article, which will carry him back to the good old times of a few years since, when the chief-magistrate of the city was Hall, and its finances were in the hands of two gentlemen, one of whom was known as "Slippery Dick," while the other described his theory of the art of government in these words: "I keep my eyes wide open when election comes along, stick my arm down as far as it will go, and pull it out as full as it will hold"; and when at the head of the judiciary in one of the richest and most important jurisdictions in the United States were George G. Barnard, Albert Cardozo, and John H. McCunn. The story of the rise of the Ring has been often told, nowhere better, on the whole, than in this article, which is to be followed by one or two more, giving the history of some of the Ring's proceedings and their downfall. The writer of the article has evidently had opportunities of acquainting himself with the ins and outs of his subject, and his portraits of the gang are very vivid. For some reason (as we believe we have seen stated in one of the earlier articles of the *North American*), events which happen in New York lend themselves to a certain kind of narrative-writing much more readily than those which take place in New England, the Western Reserve, or the Valley of the Mississippi. Fraud and crime happen in every State and Territory, but New York fraud and crime are always the most interesting and, if not picturesque or romantic (being indeed generally too brutish to be romantic, and too vulgar to be picturesque), certainly the most sensational. The Hartford and Erie frauds, the railroad history of Vermont, the building of the Pacific railroads, or the recent financial history of South Carolina, teem with corruption and crime; but perhaps because New York is the largest city in the country, and because there is a feeling that it is really, if not nominally, the capital, there is, not precisely a subtle charm, but a rank fascination about the lives and adventures of our great men, our Fisks, Barnards, Cardozos, McCunns, Tweeds, Sweenys, Halls, and Connollys, which will not be resisted.

In an article on "Lombard and Wall Streets," Mr. Gamaliel Bradford discusses some of the questions raised in Mr. Bagehot's recent book on the money market, and indulges himself in what appears to be rather a Quixotic tilt at the latter's theory of deposits. We say Quixotic, because whatever may be the value of Mr. Bradford's speculations as to the true nature of deposits, the practical lesson which he derives from his speculations—that "the first step towards specie payments will be to place the Secretary of the Treasury in Congress"—would probably strike the ordinary reader as having no very close relation to the main question, whether deposits are the savings of the community deposited in the banks, or whether they are mere creations of currency. It is only fair to say, however, that a connection does in Mr. Bradford's mind exist.

The remaining articles are on the "Modern Type of Oppression," by Mr. D. A. Wasson; on "Exact Science in America," by Mr. Simon Newcomb; and on "Retrogressive English" (a review of Oliphant's 'Sources of Standard English'), by Mr. Fitzedward Hall. Mr. Wasson observes that—

"There are two kinds of liberty, unlike in character and often opposite in effect. The one consists in the mere absence of restraint; the other, in such an order and discipline as shall make the relations of men wings rather than fetters, salutary, serviceable, productive, rather than a means of demoralization and degeneracy. Now, it is apparent that the attention of the modern world has for some time been devoted chiefly to the first-named, that is, to the liberty which consists in being left to follow one's personal inclination. The stress of effort for a century has gone to the removal of social restraints, as, for example, in that setting aside of restrictions upon the liberty of assemblage, of speech, and of publication which, if complete

only in England and America, has more or less taken place in all civilized lands. These changes constitute an important amelioration, and it is by no means with a design to disparage them that we remark upon the peculiar and somewhat exclusive character of modern reform. The century has done well to deliver itself from many restraints, which, however appropriate to the moral conditions of an earlier age, were only hindrances or impertinences in ours. Liberty in the customary sense, that is, the free initiative of the individual, contributes greatly to impulse, energy, enterprise, zest, and thus is the proper correlative of a capable social discipline: combine the two, each at its best, and the highest productivity of civilization is provided for. Our time, however, has set its heart upon one of the two, to the temporary neglect of the other. We disestablish, displace, abolish, make room for 'the voluntary principle,' and meantime hold it for the highest merit of government, not that it should be wise, capable, steadfast, able to secure for the nation the liberation of social health, but that it should be in the nature of a weather-vane, well poised and oiled, to turn with every wind."

The object of this article is to show that as a century ago society was in danger from not having liberty enough, it is now in danger from having too much license; that we are nowadays in no likelihood of oppression at the hands of kings, priests, or nobles, but from that kind of tyranny which "exists where, in the absence of a sovereign, sanitary control, liberty becomes lawless and a canker; where egotism, unrestrained, runs riot; where private interest, abandoned to its own conduct, becomes predatory; and where, to crown all, government itself, amid the great factions of private force, resembles a weak nation between powerful and contending neighbors, forced into an alliance now with this, now with that, and strong enough to afford either a decisive reinforcement, but never strong enough to maintain its independence, still less to impose peace."

Mr. Newcomb gives some remarkable information on a subject often talked about, but little understood, the comparative condition of the higher sort of scientific study—the study of those who devote themselves to science in its purer forms without hope of profit or reward—here and in Europe. Mr. Newcomb says that in mathematics if we look for publications of original investigations we find an utter blank; that of mathematical journals designed for original investigations, such as exist in nearly every country in Europe, "we have none and never had any"; that outside of New York, the Eastern States, and the city of Baltimore, even the standard writings of the great mathematicians are inaccessible, except by private purchase; that "if the reader will visit the Royal Library at Berlin, he will find among the dictionaries and other works kept for constant reference in the public reading-room a set of Crelle's *Mathematical Journal*, the volumes of which are among the best-thumbed there; and if, as he looks at them, he will reflect that our National Library does not possess the volumes at all, he will need no further illustration of the relative state of mathematical science in the two countries." These, however, are but hints at the facts he gives; the general conclusion that "we are a generation behind the age in nearly every branch of exact science," which Mr. Newcomb thinks the average citizen will agree to, he does not believe ought to be attributed to the backwoods character of so much of American life—to the fact that we have been so busily engaged in hewing wood and drawing water, and developing our mines and railroad system—but rather to the want of effective organization and incentive. Mr. Hall's paper is, like all his writing, entertaining and instructive. In fact, what with the book-notices and articles, we have not seen for a long time so good a number of this able and valuable publication.

History of the German Emperors and their Contemporaries. Translated from the German and compiled from authentic sources. By Elizabeth Peake, author of 'Pen Pictures of Europe.' Illustrated. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 587.)—If Miss Peake had been contented with the plan which she has sketched in her preface of taking the portraits of the emperors in the Kaisersaal at Frankfort, and making their personalities the basis of a sort of biographical history of Germany, she would have made a welcome and altogether creditable book. The parts of her work which are in execution of this plan are very well done; the portraits of the emperors are well engraved, and their lives are on the whole well told. The book is worth having, if it were only for this series of portraits, which are, of course, good likenesses for modern times, and for earlier times have a certain historical value from the costumes, suits of armor, etc. Unfortunately, our authoress has been carried away by that fatal passion for completeness which has spoiled so many promising histories, and must needs crowd her pages with dry chronicles after the following fashion (p. 379): "In 1607, under James I. of England, the colony of Virginia was founded at Jamestown. In 1614, John Smith explored the coast from Penobscot to Cape Cod, and named the country New England. In 1620, the Plymouth Company landed one hundred English Puritans, etc., etc." There is an immense amount of detail like this, from the history of every country under the sun, much of it quite as irrelevant as the above. Considering the amount of detail, however, there is a very great degree of accuracy. The author has industriously used the best authorities of easy access, and has for the most part discreetly, and very properly, avoided matters of special erudition. Still we notice a few points of greater or less importance in which she is at fault. Page 21, we have the division "into hundreds, communes, and manors" ascribed to Charlemagne, just as the similar organization in England is wont to be ascribed to Alfred. Page 25, we have Louis the Pious "trusting his German more than his Frankish subjects"—an incorrect distinction in terms, although the author's meaning is easily seen. We have such use of French terms as Frisons (p. 60) for Frisians. The Salic Law is said (p. 57) to have been "first alleged against Edward III.," whereas it was at the death of Louis X. that it was put in operation. The old exploded story of St. John of Nepomuk is related (p. 171); of the three popes before the Council of Constance, one is said (p. 177) to have resided in Spain; on p. 199, we have the reign of Ladislas Posthumus and the succession of Matthias Corvinus in 1457, and then comes, as if in due order (p. 200), Ladislas III. of Poland (or Uladislaus I. of Hungary) and the battle of Varna in 1444; on p. 327, William III. is called grandson of William the Silent.

There is an index, very good as far as it goes, but it does not appear to give half the names contained in the body of the work.

Nimrod of the Sea; or, The American Whaleman. By William M. Davis. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.)—It is but fair that purchasers of this book should know what time it covers. Full dates are not given in the text, nor are the clues by which they may be determined frequent, and few readers will know whether Mr. Davis's voyage is an old or a recent one. We have filled out the dates of the journal, and some of them are as follows: Mr. Davis sailed from New London for the Pacific Oct. 11, 1834, touched at the Hawaiian Islands in Jan. and March, 1836, and at Callao in May, 1837; and got home to New London in March, 1838. Readers who have an acquaintance with these places may verify, as we have done, the above dates. For the rest, the story is of an old-fashioned whaling voyage, spiced with various whalemen's adventures "in the form of yarns." The book is a readable one, but in interest and in fulness of information it is inferior to Herman Melville's 'Moby Dick,' which describes the sperm-whale fishery at a later time than that of Mr. Davis's journal, and with an accuracy not less remarkable than the poetic and imaginative faculty which has made the work a classic among sea-tales.

The Mormon Country. By John Codman. (New York: U. S. Publishing Co. 1874.) *A Woman's Life in Polygamy.* By Mrs. T. B. H. Stenhouse. (Hartford: A. D. Worthington & Co. 1874.)—Both of these books profess entire impartiality of treatment. At the ethical quality of Mr. Codman's impartiality we can make a guess by the aid of the following passage (p. 198), apropos of the Pacific Railway: "The hands of Oakes Ames were never soiled by any dirty lobby transactions. His great object was to build a railroad that has united the East and the West and made our country one and indivisible. To effect this he did not hesitate to directly approach members of Congress in the most approachable way. He knew that 'where the treasure was there would the heart be also' [*sic*]. He finished his work, and now lies beneath a simple tombstone in the churchyard of a New England village." Acrid criticism, on the other hand, is the forte of Mrs. Stenhouse, and her book may be taken as an antidote to the bane of Mr. Codman's laxness. She calls it 'The Story of a Life's Experience in Mormonism,' and it is a not wholly uninstructive record. But both of these books are a confused jumble of impressions and facts, and are nearly as devoid of the higher intelligence as the average Fourth-of-July oration.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

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The bank statement for the week ending October 24 was unfavorable, and reflects the shipment of currency which for some weeks has been going South. The loss of legal tenders and specie is shown by a corresponding loss in deposits. The statement analyzed shows that the surplus reserve has been reduced $2,334,325 during the past week. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Oct. 17.	Oct. 24.	Differences.
Loans	$282,275,200	$281,873,500	Dec.. $401,500
Specie	15,007,800	13,585,200	Dec.. 1,422,600
Legal tenders	60,697,000	58,830,800	Dec.. 1,866,200
Deposits	230,122,700	226,304,800	Dec.. 3,817,900
Circulation	25,060,500	25,013,500	Dec... 47,000

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Oct. 17.	Oct. 24.	Differences.
Specie	$15,007,800	$13,585,200	Dec.. $1,422,600
Legal tenders	60,697,000	58,830,800	Dec.. 1,866,200
Total reserve	$75,704,800	$72,416,000	Dec.. $3,288,800
Reserve required against deposits	57,530,675	56,576,200	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	18,174,125	15,839,800	Dec.. 2,334,325

Government bonds have been firm, and prices at the close of the week show a slight improvement over those at the close of the week previous. Dealers report difficulty in supplying large orders which come from savings-banks, trustees of estates, and others limited by law as to the character of their investments.

The gold market has been firmer in tone, although prices have advanced but a small fraction since last Monday. The following gives the daily range of quotations for every day during the past week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Oct. 19	110	110	110	110
Tuesday, Oct. 20	110⅛	110¼	110	110⅛
Wednesday, Oct. 21	110⅛	110¼	110⅛	110⅛
Thursday, Oct. 22	110⅛	110¼	110¼	110⅛
Friday, Oct. 23	110⅛	110¼	110	110¼
Saturday, Oct. 24	110⅛	110⅛	110	110

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 5, 1874.

The Week.

THE election returns show in all quarters an overwhelming Republican defeat. For magnitude and importance, there has been nothing like it since the elections of 1860. In this State, in which the Republican majority was some 55,000 in 1872, the Democrats elect Tilden by a majority of from 30,000 to 45,000; and as the vote polled this year is probably not very far from that of two years ago, the indications are that from 80,000 to 100,000 voters have, in this State alone, changed their votes from Republican to Democratic. In the city the result of the voting shows that a great deal of discrimination was exercised, and that the regular tickets were not by any means voted blindly, the votes polled for Ottendorfer, 24,000, and Wales, 37,000, showing that Wickham, the Tammany candidate for mayor, who is elected by a total vote of 70,000, might possibly have been defeated by a united opposition; the only candidate in the city on whom the opposition to Tammany was as a matter of fact united—Jones—being elected Register by about 10,000 majority. Jones's opponent was the notorious "Jimmy" Hayes, one of the men implicated in the Ring frauds, and the election of his opponent shows that Tammany, now that it has carried the day, will have to behave itself better than formerly, if it wishes to retain power. As we go to press, the returns for Congress and the Assembly are not sufficiently clear to say more than that in all human probability both sets of elections have gone Democratic, thus securing a Democratic senator from this State next winter. More remarkable, however, than the victory in New York is the Democratic success in Massachusetts, that State electing Mr. Gaston Governor by about 10,000 majority, and making it probable there also that a Democrat will replace Mr. Sumner's *locum tenens* next winter. On Butler's defeat, though it has taken place in a way which neither we nor probably any one outside his district expected, we profoundly congratulate our readers and the country, for it shows that neither money, nor influence, nor impudence, nor unblushing rascality has yet destroyed the value of the ballot as a means of self-protection in the hands of the honest and self-respecting part of the community. It should not be overlooked that his defeat has been accomplished by the Democrats on a strictly hard-currency platform, the principles of the party both in Massachusetts and New York being not merely unobjectionable but admirable. In Mr. Dawes's old district the Democratic candidate is elected, and General Banks goes back to Congress. Butler's friend, Ayer, is also probably defeated. The detailed returns from the various States are not yet complete, but the general result is that in the next Congress the House will be either decidedly Democratic, or else evenly balanced.

The Republican newspapers admit an overwhelming defeat, and the *Times* attributes it, no doubt correctly, to the indifference displayed by the party leaders to public opinion. "They have apparently believed," it says, "that the people would quietly submit to anything and everything, and that the party which they represented was indestructible. Nothing short of the events which we record this morning could have opened their eyes to the truth. If a newspaper warned them in a friendly but firm spirit against the policy of blundering which they were pursuing, it was treated with a mixture of the insolence and arrogance which they exhibited toward all opposition. . . . It will be the lot of the President to discover, in common with many great men who have gone before him, that foolish flatterers and venal newspapers cannot turn aside the current of public opinion." Should the next Congress turn out to be pretty evenly divided, it will give the President more power in the way of obstructing legislation than he has had since Johnson's time, and, on the whole, this will not be a bad thing. Of the "third term" we shall probably hear no more. Of the value of the revolution as a rebuke to corruption and recklessness there can be no sort of question; whether it will give us positive improvement depends on the use the Democrats make of their power during the next two years. They have a great opportunity, as great as any party ever had. Let us hope they will use it with more wisdom than they have of late years displayed. In the meantime, we trust that Conkling, and Butler, and Cameron, and Dawes, and the rest, will not despair of popular government; let them remember that the country is now, as it was last year, in the hands of the majority of the people.

The steady improvement of the tone of the press is beginning to have a depressing effect on campaigns in this city. In a heated canvass we always used not merely to count upon the "ball of discussion" being kept in motion, but on a pretty steady stream of language of an ingenious if not novel kind, known to the editorial world, when looked at from the point of view of amicable approval, as *persiflage;* but when regarded by the hostile and irritated victim, as "foul-mouthed billingsgate." But latterly there has been a terrible falling off. At the opening of the campaign we did observe a disposition on the part of some of our contemporaries to let us know a few of the real facts about one another, and at one time we hoped that the difficulties between the *World* and the *Mail* might lead to a general resumption of hostilities. The *Mail* had committed an offence, according to the *World*, not so much against that paper as against the truth, and the *World* felt itself obliged to take measures to prevent a repetition of the offence, by warning the editor, whom it calls "Major Bumbleby," to desist from these practices on pain of having his "ears and epaulets cut off." We have seen one or two references also to "that brutal sheet," the *Times*, in the *World*, and to the *World* in the *Times*, from which we learn that the former is still edited by a "representative of Whitechapel," that it "invents a new lie in behalf of General Dix every day," and that it supported the Tweed Ring for a long time—though it is some consolation to learn that the republication of Mr. Tilden's pamphlet, or part of it, completely answered its purpose "as a refutation of the forty daily falsehoods" which the *Times* has been "revamping or inventing," and "puts that most mendacious and brutal sheet under the pump"; while, on the other hand, we find that as "the *World* people" "never had any personal character to lose," it is not surprising that they can "afford to do without it," and also that in 1868, had it not been for money furnished by parties unknown, by whom "the sheriff was paid off," the *World* would now be in the hands of its creditors. These and similar revelations have led the *Tribune* to protest against the lies which fill the air, but that fastidious sheet, with a reserve which in the old times would not have been tolerated, keeps itself out of the *mêlée* altogether.

The Springfield *Republican* has frequently been very angry with the *Nation*, and has spoken of it with jerky unkindness because of the severe view we have occasionally taken of the character of Mr. Dawes. Indeed, it is hardly three months since it rebuked us for elevating Mr. Garfield above Mr. Dawes. Within the last week, however, it has been itself compelled to abandon the latter. It says all the severe things we have ever said of him, and many more of its own. In fact, it gives him up as a bad job, and says that he is entirely untrustworthy, and is his own worst enemy, which is perhaps the hardest thing one can say of a man, for it means that until he can get rid of himself there is no chance of his improving. The cause of this onslaught was the delivery of a speech by Mr. Dawes, which was, we admit, thoroughly repulsive, sophistical, tricky, teeming with evasion, suppression, and misrepresentation—the speech, in

short, of an unscrupulous criminal lawyer to a general-sessions jury He was as full of reliance on "outrages" as Moses or Kellogg or Pinchback. He even said that the poor colored man at the South went to bed every night trembling for the morrow. Either he did not believe this, or he did. If he did not, what are we to say of his morality? If he did, was there ever such assurance?—for he was praising the Republican party, and yet gave this as the result of ten years of Reconstruction. Since then he has gone rampant into Butler's district, and been stumping for him vigorously, in spite of his inflation, repudiation, and other enormities, saying that the main question for New England Republicans was to send an unbroken delegation to Congress—that is, a delegation including Butler. Nevertheless, we were thought to be too hard on Mr. Dawes when we accused him of going off to Berkshire "on business" solely to avoid his plain duty in the Simmons case. We are not sorry on the whole that he has thrown aside the little restraints and disguises which have so long imposed on our Springfield brethren. We sha'n't have any weeping over his "grey hairs" any longer. He now at last appears openly and plainly in his real character—that of a light-headed, unstable politician, without moral weight or tenacity, or clear moral perceptions, or any grasp of principles, or any creed but the latest party platform, or any outlook beyond the party lines.

The passage of the controlling interest in the Chicago *Tribune* out of the hands of Mr. Horace White, who has held it for some years, into those of Mr. Medill, is an event of some political importance, owing to the prominent part the *Tribune* has played for some time back in opposition to the Administration. Mr. Medill's intention is, it is announced, to bring the paper back into the regular Republican ranks, and although he announces that it is to be "independent" still, he is an editor of the old school, with somewhat different notions of the meaning of that term from those now prevalent. He is going to assail abuses, it is said, but "within the party lines." What this means one might best learn by going to see the virtuous Mr. Dawes stumping the Essex District in Massachusetts for the most notorious inflationist and corruptionist and most unprincipled politician in either the Republican or Democratic parties. In fact, "reform within the party lines" may mean prayer and praise in the church pews, but it may apparently also mean card-playing on the altar. Mr. White's management of the paper raised it to the highest rank of journalism, in the best sense of the term, as well as to the greatest commercial success; though it was marred by one serious mistake, which nothing but ability prevented from proving disastrous. The support of Mr. Greeley was the worst blow "independent journalism" could have received, both because it was a sacrifice of private judgment and of plain political principle to party rules, and because the "independence" was still a novelty which the public had hardly begun to understand. This error led to another of less consequence—the support of the Granger folly about railroads—based though it was on the grossest economical delusions and the plainest contempt for morality. Its use of fine words, such as "extortion" and "monopoly," and its disregard of the existing party organizations, led the *Tribune* as well as other Liberal Republicans into the belief that something in the nature of a healthy opposition might grow out of it. Mr. White, we fancy, became sensible very early that this was a mistake. Mr. Medill is an able and well-informed man, but he is narrow and one-sided, and has a large stock of half-truths, of which he will doubtless make the *Tribune* a vigorous exponent.

The Joint Committee of the two Houses of the Episcopal Convention adopted on Saturday a canon by which it is provided that "if any bishop have reason to believe, or if complaint be made to him in writing by two or more of his presbyters, that within his jurisdiction ceremonies or practices not ordered or authorized in the Book of Common Prayer, setting forth or symbolizing erroneous or doubtful doctrines, have been introduced by any minister during the celebration of the Holy Communion (such as the elevation of the elements in the Holy Communion in such a manner as to expose them to the view of the people as objects toward which adoration is to be made; any act of adoration of or toward the elements in the Holy Communion, such as bowings, prostrations, genuflexions, and all other like acts not authorized or allowed in the Book of Common Prayer), it shall be the duty of such bishop to summon the Standing Committee as his council of advice, and with them to investigate the matter." And that if after this investigation it appears to the bishop and the Standing Committee "that ceremonies or practices not ordained or authorized as aforesaid are setting forth or symbolizing erroneous or doubtful doctrines," the bishop shall admonish the minister of the parish, and, if he disregards this admonition, that he shall be tried for a breach of his ordination vow.

We have carefully avoided hitherto saying anything on the subject of the safe-burglary trial now going on at Washington, because of the difficulty, which still exists, of writing intelligently about it. Of all the many dark holes and corners investigated at Washington last winter, there was none darker than that of this burglary, which was said to be, on the one hand, an attempt to get rid of damaging evidence, and on the other an effort by means of a sham attempt to get up a feeling of sympathy with those against whom the crime purported to be committed. Add to this that the principal witness for the Government, Zirruth, is, on his own statement, a rogue, who has been so suspected by his fellow-rogues that they have been following him about the country, and trying to spirit him out of it, and that the court trying the case has been obliged to take public cognizance of an attempt in the local press to interfere with the course of justice (some of the papers accusing the court of an intention to prevent a fair trial), and that the court and counsel do not get on at all well together, and we have a confusion compared to which the De Golyer contract or the Crédit-Mobilier swindle are plain sailing. It ought not to be forgotten either that one or two of those deeply involved have been very careful to keep out of the way of judicial process, so that the jury have a difficult task before them.

A recent report on the revenues of the English universities, and the manner of their expenditure, shows that a very, some think a scandalously, large proportion is devoted to fellowships, each worth about $1,500 a year, awarded by competitive examination, the holders of which make no return for them whatever in the shape of labor; in fact, they are prizes for past proficiency, and nothing more. But, as the *Pall Mall Gazette* points out, even this mode of disposing of the money is a reform made in 1854. Previous to that period fellowships were given, without examination, to persons born in a particular diocese, educated at a particular school, or belonging to a particular family. But then the fellow of that period usually remained in his college until he took a church living, which he all but invariably did; each college at the two great universities having a number of livings in its gift, which always went to its fellows. Since 1854 this is all changed. Young men of ability are now reluctant to take orders and enter on ministerial duties, not only because rationalistic views have made much progress among them, but because the controversies by which the church has been agitated of late years, controversies about clothes, and genuflexions, and ornaments, and ceremony, seem contemptible or ridiculous. The question whether a priest can perform such a little miracle every day as turning bread and wine into flesh and blood, which lies at the root of church disputes, is one which men of brains will not busy themselves with. Accordingly, fellows nowadays, as soon as they get their fellowships, hurry into some of the manlier and more robust callings, and use the income to help them over the earlier and more difficult years, while they are working their way into practice and fame. In fact, there is something suicidal in the dawdling of the Episcopal Church, both here and in England, over the mode of dealing with the Ritualistic brethren, and in the affectation of respect which many people display for the absurd mediæval notion that a young "priest" can make invisible changes in physical phenomena.

The details of the elections of the Councils-General in France have come out by the last mail, and they contain the result, after the second ballotings, in 86 cases, of 1,431 elections out of a total of 1,436. Of these 1,431 members elected, 672 are Republicans, 604 Monarchists, and 155 Bonapartists. The Republicans have made a total gain of 25, though their fortune has varied in different places. But the Monarchists have a majority in 44 councils, the Republicans only in 38, and in three the two parties are equally divided. The elections are said to have been on the whole very fair, and it is difficult to avoid seeing in them a valuable means of political education. Never before have Frenchmen had an opportunity of debating and voting in this peaceful way on the form of the government. The fears of coming foreign complications still cloud French politics, and increasingly so. The relations of the country with Germany are marked still by deep suspicion on both sides, which is aggravated by the enormous addition to the numerical strength of the army which is contemplated by some pending Prussian legislation, and by the unexpected sauciness of the Spaniards with regard to the aid afforded to the Carlists across the frontier. The demand of the Duc Decazes for "a bill of particulars" on the point has been met by a long note specifying a great many cases of what Spain considers violation of neutrality, and ending with the very unusual and really menacing demand that the French officials in the Southern Departments should be removed.

The note alleges that Carlist volunteers are permitted to pass the frontier; that Don Carlos's wife is allowed to live in France, close to the frontier; that when Don Carlos came into France he was not caught when he might have been; that uniforms of the French Garde Mobile have been freely sent into Spain for Carlist use; and that French vessels lying in the Bidassoa serve as depots for Carlist supplies. Of course many of these complaints are unanswerable, as the frontier is 250 miles long, and is mountainous, and is peopled by the most expert and daring smugglers in the world, and would require a large army to watch it on the French side, when the Spaniards are able to do little or nothing on theirs. But, reasonable or unreasonable, people naturally say that such hard remonstrances would hardly come from a power which cannot keep 35,000 men in the field, if it were not sure of strong backing from some other quarter. The Duc Decazes has, however, assured the Permanent Committee of the Assembly that there is no cause for alarm, that the note is quite harmless, and that the roughness of its tone must be ascribed to a foreign writer's want of skill in the use of the French language.

Additional "statements," and particularly one made evidently by a person in Count Arnim's confidence in the *Vossische Zeitung*, make his quarrel with Bismarck more intelligible. The Count appears to have stood very high in the Prince's confidence after May, 1872. Previously to that time he had been ambassador at Rome, and while there had furnished the advice on which Bismarck's policy towards the Papacy was based. He recommended the break with the Pope, and also the appointment of Cardinal Hohenlohe as minister in his own place, in the belief, which afterwards proved to be correct, that the Pope would not receive him, and that a total cessation of intercourse, which would be very convenient for Bismarck during the subsequent complications, would thus follow. After Count Arnim went to Paris, however, a coolness sprang up between him and Bismarck, not so much owing to differences of opinion on the French question as to the effect Arnim's view apparently produced on the mind of the King. Arnim thought he perceived that the result of Thiers's coquetting with Gambetta and the Radicals would be the permanent establishment of the Republic. About the same time the flight of Amadeus made him fear the establishment of a republic in Spain also, and he apparently believed the spread of republican institutions over so large a portion of European soil would be in some measure prejudicial to monarchical institutions in Germany; and this view, communicated by him, seems to have made some impression on the King's mind. Arnim's plan of dealing with France was, therefore, to delay the payment of the indemnity and continue the military occupation as long as possible, and in order to facilitate this to encourage as many changes in the French Government as possible. Bismarck, on the other hand, was eager for the establishment of the Republic as an assistance to him in his fight with the Papacy, and though he might have forgiven difference of opinion on the part of his subordinate on this point, he would not forgive the discredit which Arnim's communications to the court seemed likely to bring on his general policy. He, therefore, began to snub him, and to write letters of disapproval, which finally became insulting, with the view of driving him from his place. These letters, at least in the beginning, Arnim seems to have registered and numbered as part of the archives of the embassy, but subsequently concluded that they were private communications, and carried them with him when he had to quit his post. The question before the criminal court is whether they were really part of the public archives or not, and the Government relies on the registry book to prove that they were. The president of the court has published a letter denying indignantly that the action of the court has been in any way influenced by the Government, and has not been in strict accordance with the law.

The Berlin *Post*, replying to the opposition on this point, makes citations from the criminal code, showing that the mutilation, falsification, and obstruction of a public paper by any official charged with its custody is an offence punishable with imprisonment, and that the courts are armed with the power of preliminary arrest in all cases where a person accused with probable cause is likely to quit the country, or, if left at liberty, to "complicate the enquiry" by the destruction or suppression of evidence, and declares that the Foreign Office has played no other part in the affair than that of a prosecutor, like any private citizen. This is all drawn out by the taunts of the Ultramontane and Austrian press that Count Arnim had been arrested under a *lettre-de-cachet*.

A report of the proceedings of the Congress of German Economists held at Crefeld in August has been published. The Congress was well attended both by economists pure and by "practical men," and the discussions were both interesting and important. One of the principal subjects was railroad charges, and after long debate the following conclusions were reached, which we commend to the attention of Wisconsin moralists: 1. Charges for transportation on railroads cannot be withdrawn from the operation of the law of supply and demand; the cost of carriage being as much influenced by the situation of the market as the situation of the market by the cost of carriage. All interference on the part of the state, therefore, to reduce the tariff to the actual outlay, simply results in giving special advantages to certain branches of trade. A proper adjustment of charges can only be reached by leaving it to the carriers, who, however, ought not to be also proprietors of the road. 2. The restrictions imposed on the roads in the matter of fixing tariffs should consist simply in rules formulated with a view to the general welfare, and should consist of (*a*) the publication of all rates a certain period before their taking effect; (*b*) the application of the same rates to all classes of forwarders, leaving the company free, however, to discriminate in favor of freight offered in large quantities, or freight forwarded at regular intervals, or freight for returning cars, provided the same advantages are offered to all under the same conditions; (*c*) the fixing of a maximum which no company should be allowed to go beyond, and which should be revised at stated intervals. 3. The legislature should draw up the rules and rates under which the road should be used by carriers. It will be seen here that the Congress calls for a division of interest between the owners of the road and those of the rolling-stock as a means of bringing competition to bear on each road, but the carrying out of any such a plan as this would be full of difficulty. It will also be perceived that theft or confiscation forms no part of the German plan of reform.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE NEWSPAPERS.

THERE is something almost amusing in the efforts of the managing men of the Republican party to extract from the President a declaration of his unwillingness to accept a third term, and in his somewhat dogged determination not to make any such declaration. It is said, and we have no doubt truly, that he believes the outcry about a third term to be the work of the newspapers, and to have been got up by them solely for the sake of making a sensation, and that if he responded to it in any way, it would look as if they had been successful in "drawing" him, as the sporting men say. His state of mind about the third term we take to be precisely what his state of mind was about the second term, though somewhat different from his state of mind about the first. When he was first put in nomination, the Republican party was harassed by great anxiety about the attitude of the South. The proceedings of Andrew Johnson had created a vague alarm lest there might be something like a "new rebellion," or at least a resistance to Republican measures of security, and the experience people had had of Johnson made them desirous of seeing a determined man, of undoubted loyalty, put in charge of the Executive Department of the Government. The kind of administration the majority at the North called for at that time might, in fact, have been described by the phrase which the Legitimists invented last year in Paris for theirs—a "gouvernement de combat." For such a government the General of the Army was undoubtedly the fittest man; and General Grant, to whom the machinery of civil administration was a good deal of a mystery, accepted it modestly and cheerfully, as he would have accepted an order to report at New Orleans and take the command of the Department of the Gulf. By the time he came to the end of his first term, however, two changes had come over him, slight in their external manifestations, but still of considerable importance. One was in his estimate of himself as a politician, which had risen greatly, partly under the influence of gross flattery and partly under that of a closer view of the exceeding simplicity of the art of government as practised by party leaders at Washington; for, during the years between 1868 and 1872, it consisted mainly in impetuous semi-military legislation directed against the South, combined with a judicious distribution of offices.

Besides this, he had been made more impervious to the influence of public opinion by the attacks of the newspapers, which had been almost unequalled in the grossness and virulence of their personality. He had begun his political life, too, with the view of the newspaper and its functions which had been from time out of memory prevalent in forts and garrisons—viz., that it was an instrument for giving currency to lies and rumors collected by "runners" of great impudence and entire venality. To newspaper discussions of public affairs military men do not as a general rule pay much attention, and have little or no appreciation of their effect on public opinion, or of their importance as an expression of public opinion. Statutes and general orders they understand, for they see their results; but what is an "editorial" but a string of words, rolled off to-day and to-morrow cast into the oven? This view was confirmed and intensified in General Grant's eyes by the treatment of himself by a portion of the press, and by the success which attended his disregard of it. His second nomination seemed to him to prove positively that the newspapers were of no consequence, and that he really was himself a necessity to the Republican party, if not to the country. His ostentatious disregard of criticism can be explained in this way, and hardly in any other. The retention of Casey and Richardson, and the renomination of "Boss" Shepherd, were the acts of a man who had supreme confidence in his own judgment, and did not believe in the authenticity of any of the usual indications of public feeling. He felt confident that his doings would be approved by the party, for it had just returned him by a tremendous majority, and he felt confident also that nobody need mind what the newspapers said, for had they not covered him with mud without producing the least effect on his reputation?

The third-term question, we have no doubt, he approaches in somewhat the same state of mind. That is, he has no intention of trying to get a re-election, and he is not trying to get it. He does not think trying is necessary. He got his other two terms without making any effort, and why should he make any effort for this? If, however, Mr. Conkling should tell him that the party needed him for a third term, he would not throw any obstacle in the way of his being nominated, and would not be shaken by "newspaper clamor" against it. About political traditions, as the example of Washington and Jefferson, or the remoter effects on the structure of the Government of the disregard of a great precedent, he knows and cares nothing. When Conkling or Butler or Morton comes to have a talk about politics, they do not say anything about traditions or precedents, or Washington and Jefferson; what they say is, that A had better be put there, and B here, and that C would be useful in such a place, and that with such and such an arrangement of a custom-house, or such and such a disposition of a post-office, they will undertake to carry this or that State by such and such a majority. This sounds businesslike; he understands it; and believes that Conkling and Butler and Morton know what they are talking about, which is more than can be said, he thinks, of the editors who are prating about the danger of a third term. How can a third term be "dangerous" any more than a second? Does not everybody know that the notion that he is going to overturn the Government or change its structure is ridiculous? Then it must be remembered that he has the feeling about Washington and Jefferson which all men of a practical turn, with feeble imaginations and no taste for or habit of reading, have about persons long dead. All periods before his own probably seem nearly equally far off. Of course he does not imagine that Washington was a contemporary of Julius Cæsar, but he has probably a vague impression that he flourished about the same time with General Monk, and does not see exactly what his sayings or doings have to do with the affairs of our own day. Still less does he look forward and trouble himself about the probable growth of political tendencies. This, too, is a kind of work which is only done by trained imaginations, and he can hardly be said to have any imagination at all.

The fact is, that he is a man who was very useful at one period and in one sphere, who has been projected into another sphere and another period, presenting a new set of problems with which he is unfamiliar and with which he is not fit to deal; and the manufacture of "outrages" at the South, and the fussy, ostentatious execution of the Enforcement Act in which the Attorney-General is engaged, are simply parts of an attempt to keep alive the belief that the combination of circumstances which made a man like General Grant useful at the head of the Government still exists. It must not be forgotten that he is exactly the kind of President that the political class like, and in trying to keep him in power they are simply upholding a tradition inherited from the Southern politicians before the war. It will be remembered that the policy of the South towards the close of the slavery régime was to let the North have the honor of furnishing a President, provided he was a man who would not meddle, and he was required to surround himself with Southern partisans, and to leave to them the working of the machinery of administration in their own way. A state of things somewhat similar has grown up since the war. The machinery of administration, including the machinery for the selection of officers, has gained enormously in bulk, weight, complexity, and momentum. As has been often pointed out, the election of candidates is becoming more and more of a mere form, the real work of filling places being done by a small set of men sitting in secret, and the whole force of the administrative organization is brought to bear to enforce their decrees; and their decrees are carried out not because the voters are compelled to do what they say, but because the difficulty of doing anything else effectively is all but insuperable. To get up a respectable opposition now to a candidate for the Presidential chair put in the field by the party in power, is an undertaking almost as vast as making a new railroad. It needs the exclusive labor of hundreds of able men, the expenditure of two or three millions of dollars, a

power of organization such as only very few possess, and knowledge of the art of electioneering which can only be acquired by long experience. Moreover, it is the great aim and end of the political class to make this art as much of a mystery as possible, and to throw contempt on the attempts of mere professional men to practise it. They have, in fact, been so far successful that "bolting movements," however respectable morally, and however truly they may be considered the voters' protection against the caucus, become every day more and more ridiculous. People laugh, when they see them, as they would laugh if they saw Denmark declaring war, in ever so righteous a cause, against Germany, or a light-built, consumptive clergyman offering to thrash John Morrissey.

The kind of President that the political class like, therefore, is a man without views or opinions on the ordinary civil problems of the day, who is not likely to embarrass them by forcing troublesome questions on their attention, who will be willing to let them run the machine in their own way, and who yet stands well with the people on some ground or other. General Grant has served their purpose admirably thus far. He has the mental and moral characteristics—the reticence, the want of interest in "questions," the liking for "practical men"—which they need; and then he has at his back a great military reputation, and is singularly successful in the part of a "plain, blunt man," or of a "simple-minded, sagacious man," or of "an honest, well-meaning man, easily led astray, but quick to discover his errors and correct them"—parts which the masses find singularly attractive, and never tire of admiring. That the immense bureaucracy which now surrounds the President, and the wily, skilful chiefs who control it, should like to keep such a man in office is not wonderful; but the inconvenience to the community of having in such an office a person whose temperament and training make him so insensible to currents of public thought and feeling, so ignorant of the weight and direction of the great social and economical forces of our time, so sceptical about the existence of any sort of power which has no material embodiment, and so unfamiliar with the conditions of political progress, has been already plainly demonstrated. One may take this view of the matter, too, without in the least degree detracting from the value of General Grant's services to the country under different circumstances, and it is a view which relieves him from all responsibility for the "third-term pronouncements" of his adherents.

THE EUROPEAN ARMAMENT.

THERE is a bill before the German Parliament which provides for the organization of the Landsturm in battalions, and its addition to the regular force available for active service. It will include all able-bodied men who are not in the army, but the first class will only contain men under the age of forty-two, and the second class, which will contain all others, will probably not be organized at present, and perhaps would only be called out in the direst extremity. If the bill passes—or when it passes, perhaps one might more correctly say—the German army will reach, it is calculated, the enormous number of 1,800,000 men available for service in the field. It is, however, said to be doubtful whether even this force will satisfy the Government. The annual conscription now brings it 132,500 men; the French annual conscription, under the new law, brings in, however, 161,000; and the Russian, 145,000—and it is France and Russia which Germany now fears. All accounts agree that the French are working with great steadiness and success at the reorganization of their army. They will not have their full numbers within reach for some years to come—we believe six or seven—but the force now under arms is going through a process of drill and discipline, the effects of which are visible to the most careless observer in the bearing of both men and officers. Long days of hard work in field manœuvres, over rough country, have taken the place of the showy parades of Imperial days in the camp at Châlons and Satory. The fanfaron has gone from the officers, and the disorderly swagger from the privates. There has been a great weeding out of the military beaux of the Empire, and, in fact, the shadow of a great fear has settled on the army no less than on the nation. The question, they see plainly, is no longer whether French influence is what it ought to be, but whether France is to have any assured future among the nations of the earth. The Germans are, of course, not the men to overlook improvement in French morale, or to underrate the addition it makes to French strength.

On the side of Russia the prospect, too, is such as to give real grounds for uneasiness, however slight. It is not that the introduction of a system of general conscription into Russia has added considerably to the sum of her available forces, which makes the situation look grave. The military power of Russia has, as far as numbers are concerned, been ever since the beginning of the century terribly formidable, and, in spite of the emancipation of the serfs and the improvements in the soldier's condition which have been introduced by the present Czar, it is very doubtful whether the material of the Russian army is likely to be for the next fifty years any more valuable than it has been in point of courage, tenacity, and discipline. In fact, it is fairly open to question whether the better education and increased independence and self-respect of the serf will for some time to come exercise the fortifying influence on the military morale which the old soldiers of 1812 and 1854 drew from habits of rigid social subordination and superstitious veneration for the Emperor and Holy Russia. There is a period which may be likened to "slack-water" in social progress, containing the transition from one régime to another when the improvement in men's condition as citizens does not add to but perhaps rather takes away from their value as soldiers. The gains for Russia in our day, in a military point of view, come mainly from the extension of her railway system, which has within the last few years been very great. In 1871 she had 7,750 miles open for traffic, and this year she has 10,368 miles. Down to 1868 she had only 3,227 miles. At the time of the Crimean war she can hardly be said to have had any railroads at all. Now, without railroads her enormous population profited little in anything like offensive warfare. The very vastness of her area was a hindrance to her. The difficulty of concentrating troops and supplies at any point on her frontier rendered her hardly a match for a second-rate power possessing a denser population and better means of transportation. It was this that made it possible for the Allies, in 1854, to bleed her to the point of utter exhaustion at Sevastopol with armies which did not number one-tenth of her own force. But the railroads have wrought and are working vast changes in her control of her own resources. They are giving her some of the advantages which a man of great size and strength gets from training. She now not only has a vast force, but she is fast acquiring the means of massing it rapidly and moving it swiftly on the enemy.

She consequently forms a cloud in the German sky which any sign of *rapprochement* between her and France enlarges seriously; and there have been some signs of this lately. The treatment of Denmark by Germany in the Schleswig-Holstein matter evidently caused a slight shock of displeasure at St. Petersburg. There have been comments on it in Russian newspapers which are not pleasant reading. The Czar's letter, too, to Don Carlos, though a little thing, a mere nod of recognition, was a sign of the times. It might mean that republican Spain was not in as good odor in St. Petersburg as at Berlin, and that possibly Bismarck might not have everything his own way about the Pyrenees. Suppose anything should go wrong in the solution of the various problems now perplexing the European mind, could Germany, with Spain and Italy, make head against France and Russia, and what part would Austria and the Scandinavian countries play in such a conflict?—are questions which the Prussian Chancellor probably often asks himself; and they are not questions over which even the most fortunate man in his position can sleep soundly. It is hardly wonderful if, under the circumstances, Germany should be straining every nerve to increase her military strength. It will not be wonderful if the Government asks Parliament to remove the legal restriction which forbids more than one per cent. of the population to be kept under arms in time of peace.

There is of course something lamentable, from the industrial point of view, in the retention of so many young men on the European Continent, during the very flower of their youth, in an occupation so very unproductive as soldiering. But there is a large and growing school of social philosophers and politicians, in both France and Germany, who do not look at the matter from the industrial point of view simply, and refuse to be concluded by the figures which show the loss caused to the national revenues by these prodigious armaments. They say that the danger which threatens every country on the Continent, and many of them include England in the same category, is social disintegration—the resolution of the nation into incoherent atoms, without common beliefs or common notions of right or duty, and with a deep-seated sense of mutual antagonism with regard to the division of the results of the national labor. In short, the influences by which modern societies were built up, and have down to our own time been held together, are perishing before our eyes, and there is as yet nothing to take their place. Science is destroying the old faith, but offers nothing in its stead that the masses can take hold of; democracy is destroying the old leadership of property or birth or education, but suggests no other sort of leadership which is as yet capable of being used, and the emancipated masses are as yet entirely unable to say what or they want or how they expect to get it. Bismarck is the first of the statesmen attached to the old régime who has distinctly framed a substitute for it, and he is busily engaged in carrying out his idea. He means that the state shall take the place of all the external influences by which human conduct has hitherto been regulated—that it shall take the child from the nurse's arms and educate him in its own way, no matter to what calling he may be destined, that he shall become its soldier as soon as he is able to bear arms, and continue its soldier until he ceases to be able. The crusade against Ultramontanism is simply a vigorous effort to get rid of the most formidable rival in the matter of influence and training with which the state has to contend. The extension of the military system is not simply an additional means of defence against foreign aggression, but a means of giving increased cohesiveness or organization to a society which the commoner tendencies of modern thought are likely, if unchecked, to break up into warring particles. The army is in fact what it proved after the French Revolution—a new state rising out of the débris of the old one, with a more robust morality, more vigorous and imperative sanctions, and a more striking and sharply-defined standard of right and wrong.

THE ST. LOUIS FAIR.

St. Louis, October, 1874.

NOTHING is so odorous to the Western nostril as comparison—as the superlative—especially in the matter of size. We have never known the Western man to boast of anything as being the smallest in the world, but he has a peculiar unction in his manner of rolling enormities under his tongue and impressing his audience with their magnitude. His great hotels, great steamboats, and great cities, however, afford him less satisfaction than his great annual fair at St. Louis, and enormous this certainly is. The beautiful and well-wooded old grounds of Benton Barracks, where, during the war, the Northwestern recruit gained his first experience of hard-tack and military rule and duties, have beaten their sword into a ploughshare, and yearly make the first week in October a delight to the thousands who are attracted by their holiday invitation. As an industrial exhibition, the St. Louis Fair has great merit, and many of its agricultural and mechanical features are well worth investigation; but that which gives it its real value is its thoroughly fair-like character. During the whole of its six days, the finest spectacle is that afforded by the people themselves. Just what it is that attracts them it would be hard to say. Ill-natured critics allege the fast horses; others, the more practical display of the mechanical hall and the cattle-grounds. It would probably be just to say that the chief attraction lies in the fair *as a fair*, and more in the crowds which gather there than in anything that they pretend to come to see.

The exhibition this year achieved in all respects its highest success. Over $66,000 was taken as gate-money, and many were admitted on members' tickets as exhibitors and attendants. On the great day (Thursday), there were estimated to be 125,000 persons present. This day is made a general holiday in the city, all places of business are closed, and all who can find transportation seem to flock to the fair grounds. Near the entrance is a huge shed for the depositing of family baskets, and during the entire day family picnic parties occupy the grass in every direction. Throughout the country, for miles around, every farm-house is left in charge of its least efficient man or woman, and the rest flock to the show, filling acres of "wagon yards" on all the approaching roads with their teams. To a stranger, the most interesting feature of the occasion is the character and behavior of the crowd. All the nations which have contributed to the building up of our Western metropolis and the settlement of our Western lands are fully represented. Northerner and Southerner, German, Irish, Dane, Norwegian—all come to the grounds, and blend so freely as to form a really homogeneous mass. During the three days of my attendance, a wordy altercation between a crier of lemonade and a disrespectful young farmer was the only disturbance that I saw, and this merely drew together a few hundred spectators, who found in it a source of amusement. To say that the crowd was orderly would give a wrong impression as to their universal jollity, but there was an entire absence of anything like disorder, and it was especially noticeable that groups of young girls wandered in every direction, in the most unrestrained manner, without meeting the slightest annoyance or impertinence. Whatever else the St. Louis Association may accomplish, it deserves its fullest recognition from the fact that it gives to the people within its reach such unalloyed recreation.

As an agricultural exhibition, the fair is good, but not perfect. There is a sad want of classification; the cattle-stalls are given out in the order of application, and Shorthorns, Devons, Dutch cattle, Jerseys, working oxen, horses, and ponies are jumbled together in the most confused way, so that one wishing to compare the representatives of any class must wander over the whole range, and have his mind confused by the mixing in of half-a-dozen other breeds. Then there is too much dependence on private enterprise for the proper labelling of articles exhibited, in default of which information must be obtained from attendants, who are often not at hand. Agricultural implements were shown in great variety, and most of them in operation, but here the same confusion prevailed—for example, the first and second premium hay-presses, both of which were remarkably good, were in different parts of the ground, and were surrounded by all manner of other machinery. In harvesting implements, for which America has so long been celebrated, this exhibition, like those at Chicago and Cincinnati, was particularly rich; and it is really wonderful to see the perfection that has been attained in the automatic processes for discharging grain from the table of the reaper in gavels ready for binding; there were several in which the gavel is carried to a higher table, to be at once bound and thrown overboard by men riding with the machine, and—a marvel of ingenuity—one where the gavel is actually bound (with wire) and thrown off the machine entirely by mechanical appliances. This machine is said to have missed but twelve sheaves in reaping a field of sixty acres of wheat, and an examination of the very simple parts made this seem quite possible.

Any one from the East must have been struck with the prominence given to apparatus for supplying water to live-stock in the dry prairie regions of the West. There were several ingenious deep-well boring machines in actual operation, and the windmills constituted one of the most conspicuous classes, as was foreshadowed by their frequency in the pastures along the prairie railroads. It is interesting to observe to what a degree the construction of these machines has been simplified during the past twenty years; there are windmills (not very good ones) which will stand any but the most exceptional storms, costing only twenty-five dollars, all complete, and able to raise water enough for the ordinary stock of a farm; and others, also comparatively inexpensive, which require oiling but once a month, which run with a light wind, which only a tornado can destroy, and which require no repairs that an ordinary mechanic cannot give them.

As is usual in Southern fair-grounds, the St. Louis Association has an enormous wooden amphitheatre, where 10,000 persons can sit in the shade and witness the examination of cattle and horses in movement, and under which are restaurant booths, where questionable food is to be had, and where the unquestionably good lager-beer of the Mississippi Valley maintains its uninterrupted flow. One of the "big" items of the exhibition is the fact that the booth-rental for the fair-week amounts to about $25,000. With the liberal aid of the cotton-brokers of the city, the Association offered $11,000 in cotton premiums, and this brought out a wonderfully fine display of bales from every cotton-producing State of the West.

As at most American industrial shows, the industry of very fast horses is prominently encouraged, but hardly in this case to an objectionable extent. There is only a half-mile track, and this is at the far end of the exhibition grounds. The racing is pretty constant, running horses and trotting horses alternating rapidly, that there may be little time lost between heats

This year nothing worthy of remark was shown in either class, and the popular interest of the crowd gathered about the course seemed to centre rather on the President and General Sherman than on the horses themselves. Especial praise was bestowed upon our Executive for the grace with which he returned his cigar to his mouth, to free his hand, that he might take off his hat to a friend on the track.

Correspondence.

THE SUBMERSION OF THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: About the 10th or 12th of September, I addressed you a respectful letter, requesting you to explain to me as a subscriber the position assumed by you in an editorial in your paper referred to in my letter, and I enclosed postage stamps for your reply. To this letter you have seen fit to make no reply, either by mail or through your correspondence columns, in which you are accustomed to notice similar communications from subscribers and others.

I might, perhaps, take exception to your discourteous treatment of my letter in remaining silent, since you almost weekly answer briefly in your columns notes and queries of correspondents, but I have learned to expect scant justice from any Northern source to any one living south of Mason and Dixon's line, either in matters of business or courtesy, and I waive this as a matter of taste.

I might fairly infer from your silence in regard to my letter that my construction of your editorial alluded to was the correct one, but since your issue of 22d inst. I am not left to inference on this point, for in your editorial of that date on the elections you state distinctly, "it were better that all the whites and blacks now living south of Mason and Dixon's line were sunk in the sea than go on as we are going now," etc.

This answers my question in regard to the previous article fully and clearly. It shows that you regard the North as the United States, and that you do not consider the lives and liberties of the people of the South, if such consideration conflicts with the wishes or political opinions of the North. You are free to publish such utterances, however they may brutalize popular sentiment, but individuals are as yet also free to refuse their support to the paper which prostitutes its editors to such uses; and no admiration for the ability and apparent sincerity with which it treats questions disconnected with Southern politics can justify a Southern man in giving such support.

My self-respect, at least, will not permit me to accept such a wanton and cruel insult to my State and to the whole South, nor to continue my subscription to a journal which in cold blood devotes half the country to destruction.

I request, therefore, that you will discontinue my paper after the expiration of the year's subscription, ending November 19, 1874. Respectfully,

J. A. Pearce.

Chestertown, Kent Co., Md., Oct. 26, 1874.

[We can only say, in reply to the above, that we have no recollection of ever having received or seen Mr. Pearce's first letter, but we must add that we receive a great many letters asking questions on various subjects, of which we take no notice, sometimes for want of space, at others because the questions are foolish or trifling. As regards our expression of willingness to have the Southern whites and blacks sunk in the sea sooner than have free government on this continent destroyed, which has given Mr. Pearce so much annoyance, our selection of Southerners for this fearful doom was due simply to the fact that the alterations in the structure of the government which we see and deplore are caused by Southern troubles, and not to any peculiar indifference on our part to the fate of the men, women, and children south of Mason and Dixon's line. The best proof of this we can offer is to promise that we will set apart for wholesale destruction, in the contingency aforesaid, the population of any other portion of the country Mr. Pearce or his representatives may select, not excepting the city of New York. We are willing to leave the matter entirely to his discretion; but if he would allow us to exert any influence on his choice, we would suggest Essex County, Mass., as a good Northren locality for the operation of our tidal wave. At the same time, if he will continue his paper for another year, we pledge ourselves not to let the water in on any district either North or South without giving him a full hearing, and without permitting the removal of all sick persons and young children.—Ed. Nation.]

IGNORANT VOTERS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Believing with you that the community ought to ask of those demanding female suffrage, "What use would be made of the power if we gave it?" I wish to call the attention of your readers to some important statistics in the last census. In 1870, there were 748,976 white men unable to read or write, and 1,145,718 white women. The whole number of illiterates over twenty-one, both white and colored, was 1,551,213 men and 2,092,050 women. In New York, female suffrage would have added 121,667 ignorant voters to the 77,160 already possessed by your State, and in Pennsylvania 123,733 to the 67,110 found there in 1870, thus raising the illiterate vote in each State to nearly 200,000, and almost trebling it, while only doubling the entire number of possible voters. The percentages of illiterate to the whole number of their sex over twenty-one were in New York 7 to 10, but in Pennsylvania 7¾ to 14¼. In Florida, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, a little more than half the men were illiterate, but almost three-fifths of the women. In Arizona, also, the proportion was 56 per cent. among the women, but less than 22 per cent. among the men, while in New Mexico the male percentage was but 64 and the female 90. The latter cases are extreme and crucial ones, as the advocates of the great Sixteenth Amendment proposed extending its benefits to every Territory as well as every State. So large a part of our political corruption is due to the ignorance of the voters, that it is hard to see how female suffrage, which would increase that ignorance so immensely and so disproportionately, would purify politics.

These facts are made much worse on account of the well-known difference between men and women, of equal culture otherwise, in degree of interest in politics. A striking proof of this was furnished me at the State University of Wisconsin, where I heard from the professors giving instruction about the Constitution of the United States and the History of Political Institutions, that the young men were on the average much more interested and proficient in these branches than the young ladies, though the latter were their equals in other studies. At my own visits to these recitations I was much struck with the difference between the eager faces of the young men and the jaded ones of the painfully toilsome or reprehensibly inattentive girls.

In view, however, of the plainly increasing interest of women in politics, as well as of the fact that in 1870 the number of male and female illiterates between ten and twenty-one was substantially equal, I believe that the time will come when female suffrage will be not only safe but beneficial, as I think that the franchise will never be used by men with sufficient zeal and care to secure good government until it is shared by women. But at present any decrease of the average of both special and general fitness to vote would be extremely dangerous. The fact that we have more than a million and a half of ignorant male voters is a sufficient reason for refusing to let in more than two millions more of ignorant female ones. The first duty of the reformer is not to increase the quantity of our voters, but to improve their quality.

F. M. Holland.

Baraboo, Wisconsin, October 18, 1874.

JUSTIFICATION OF "SCIENTIST."

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In the *Academy* of Sept. 19, Mr. Alexander Ellis, F.R.S., has arraigned the term *scientist* as "American," and as an "American barbaric trisyllable."

If an Englishman takes a dislike to an expression of recent origin, he is pretty certain to pronounce it off-hand an Americanism. There is no surer way than this to prepossess his countrymen against it; and, indeed, to stigmatize it as transatlantic, if not the strongest argument he can bring forward for condemning it, at least powerfully assists the acceptance of any other arguments which he may have to produce. Coleridge and Southey used phrases like *is being built* as long ago as 1795; and Coleridge printed *reliable* in 1800. Both *is being built* and *reliable* have, however, been denounced, over here, as American inventions; and Archbishop Trench once unhesitatingly called the old Scotticism *starvation* "an Americanism." These are specimens of groundless assertion; and it is to be proved that *scientist* had its birth on our side of the Atlantic. Fifteen years ago I made a note of it, as occurring in an English publication, where first I saw it. If not originally English, at all events it was very soon naturalized in Great Britain. Possibly it may have come from France.

Mr. Ellis, assuming that *scientist* was based on the factitious *scient*, from

sciens, speaks of "its barbarity"; and, as the substantive *scient* should, on etymological considerations, mean "man of science," "scientific man," he allows to *scientist* no other proper sense than that of "adherent to scients." *Scientist* he would retain, with the signification just mentioned; but *scient* he proposes in place of *scientist* as used at present.

Only by insisting that it must be based on *scient*, can *scientist*, in its current acceptation, be viewed as "barbaric." But it can perfectly well be formed from *scientia* + *-ist*. In welding these elements together, the *a* of *scientia* is rejected, and the final *i* of the residual *scienti* melts into the *i* of *ist*; the result being *scientist*. Compare *deist*, from *dei* (*deus*); *eulogize* and *eulogist*, from *εὐλογία*, *eulogy*; *theorize* and *theorist*, from *θεωρία*, *theory*; and *parodist*, from *παρῳδία*, *parody*. Similarly, we have *aurist* from *auris*; *dentist*, from *dentis* (*dens*); *florist*, from *floris* (*flos*); *jurist*, from *juris* (*jus*); *oculist*, from *oculi* (*oculus*), etc., etc. The disappearance of a single final letter from the end of a leading elemental word when *-ist* is added, is seen in *diarist*, *fabulist*, *galvanist*, *mechanist*, *papist*, and often elsewhere.

As *scientist* may be educed as here stated, so, if a Romish theologian wished to coin a word signifying "advocate of indulgences," he would proceed quite legitimately in striking out *indulgentist* from *indulgentia*, to match his *indulgential*; and such terms as *experientist* and *patientist* might, if we needed them, be formed with perfect etymological propriety, from *experientia* and *patientia*; and so *omniscientist*, *prescientist*, and *nescientist*.

We have every reason, then, to rest satisfied with *scientist*, whoever its originator may have been. Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, WICKHAM MARKET, Oct. 10, 1874.

CUNEIFORM INSCRIPTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Smith's 'Dictionary of the Bible,' under the title "Lachish," speaks of certain sculptures found at Kouyunjik which bore the inscription: "Sennacherib, the mighty king, king of the country of Assyria, sitting on the throne of judgment before (or at the entrance of) the city of Lachish (Lakhisha). I give permission for its slaughter." The American editor has the same without comment. On the walls of the Nineveh Cabinet at Amherst College, Mass., is a colossal fresco picture of Sennacherib seated on his throne, and underneath it is the Assyrian text of this inscription in immense cuneiform characters. This is not accompanied by any translation. Some of the characters are crowded, owing to the fact that the painter did not know the language, and consequently the reader has in two cases at least to separate and in one to unite them before he can translate the inscription. Layard's 'Nineveh and Babylon' gives the text of this inscription and the translation given above, and the same are to be found in several other works. That this scene and inscription belong to the history of the siege and capture of Lachish there can be no reasonable doubt, and attention is called to the matter now for the purpose of correcting the translation. The inscription reads as follows: Sin-ahi-erib sar kissati sar mat assur ina kussi ni-mi-di u-sib-va sal-la-at er la-ki-su ma-ha-ar-su i-ti-ik. And the translation is: "Sennacherib, king of nations, king of the country of Assyria, sits upon a lofty throne and receives before him the spoil of the city of Lachish." It will be seen that the words "judgment," "before or at the entrance of the city," and "I give permission for its slaughter," are no part of the original inscription at all. The study of the Assyrian cuneiform has made such progress within a few years past that scholars are able now to give rigidly literal translations of inscriptions which ten years ago could only be rendered imperfectly. Only so recently as 1869 Dr. Oppert rendered *kussu ni-mi-di* by "throne of judgment." But the word is a simple one, and the meaning clear. The word is an adjective from the root *ma-ad*, "to be much"; passive, *made great* or *lofty*. The copies of inscriptions which Mr. Layard has given need greatly to be revised, for, being ignorant of the language, he has often crowded together characters which should be separated, and separated others which should be united.

The above notes may be of service to those who use Smith's 'Dictionary of the Bible,' and who care at all for the exact statement which any given inscription may contain.

SELAH MERRILL.

ANDOVER, MASS., Oct. 12, 1874.

Notes.

A PRIVATE circular, bearing the signatures of Wm. Lloyd Garrison, Wendell Phillips, Samuel May, and Gerrit Smith, calls attention to the "May Collection" of books and pamphlets relating to slavery and the anti-slavery movement in this country in the library of Cornell University. Though the original collection has received important accessions, and is already the best and largest of its kind in the United States, it still lacks many of the rarer publications, long since out of print. "It is especially deficient in the anti-slavery publications which emanated from Philadelphia, and it also lacks a file of the *Liberator* and other anti-slavery journals, the early volumes of which are now very difficult to obtain."——An edition of Macaulay's Essays in one volume, paper covers and uncut, is announced by Albert Mason, of this city. It will be sold at the low price of $1 50.——A recent Parliamentary Return on the South Kensington Museum shows the total cost of that institution to have been six millions of dollars (£1,191,709 17*s.* 4*d.*) Four millions and a half have been expended for building, administration, etc., and a million and a half (nearly) in the purchase of the collections.——Mr. F. B. Patterson, 32 Cedar Street, has reproduced the photograph of a mask of Milton, taken from life, which is prefixed to Sotheby's 'Ramblings in the Elucidation of the Autograph of Milton' (London, 1861). The original cast is preserved in Trinity College Library, Cambridge, and is thought to have been made about the year 1654, at which date the poet had become almost or wholly sightless. This lends additional interest to the mask and to the photograph. Mr. Patterson's copy, being once removed from the plaster, naturally loses something in delicacy of detail, yet not much. The face and head are striking beyond those of any portrait we have ever seen of Milton, and forcible in the extreme.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce, what should be good news to many readers, that they have in preparation a handy series of 'German Classics for American Students.' The size will be 16mo. Mr. James Morgan Hart is to edit the series, with notes critical and philological.——Henry Holt & Co. are preparing to issue this month Mill's 'Posthumous Essays on Religion.'——That admirable publication, 'Die Gesetzgebung des Deutschen Reiches,' deals in its last two issues with the laws regulating the German mint (subject concluded) and the Imperial press-law of May 7, 1874. We may remind our readers that this work reproduces the text of every important law of the Empire (since 1873), with a commentary connecting it with previous legislation of the same order, and giving as further aids to the understanding of it the contemporaneous construction in the debates upon it, the amendments offered, etc., etc. Better employment than this for jurists like Dr. Ernst Bezold, Dr. von Holtzendorff, and their associates it would be hard to discover, and we commend the example, first set in Bavaria, to the heads of the legal profession in the United States and in the several States.——Trübner & Co.'s 'Catalogue of Choice, Rare, and Curious Books,' No. 8, is of especial interest to students of the aboriginal languages of America.——The Orange (N. J.) *Journal* thinks the *Nation* "ought not to withhold just praise" from President Grant for his recent appointment of Mr. J. M. Thacher as Commissioner of Patents, in which "the spirit of the civil-service reform was fully conformed to." Mr. Thacher has been assistant examiner, principal examiner, judge of appeals, and assistant commissioner. His decisions, says the *Journal*, "have shown earnest, painstaking enquiry into the merits of the cases before him and a close knowledge of law."——We regret to record the death, on October 28, of Mr. William A. Wheeler, Assistant Superintendent of the Boston Public Library, and well-known for his lexicographical labors. He was formerly employed in the preparation and revision of our two rival dictionaries, passing from Worcester to Webster; edited an American edition of Hole's 'Brief Biographical Dictionary,' a 'Dickens Dictionary,' and other works; and was engaged, when attacked by his last illness, upon a 'Dictionary of Shaksperian Reference.' In compiling the catalogues of the library, his services were constant and of great value. He had not completed his thirty-ninth year.

—The 'American Educational Annual,' of which we have received the first volume, for 1875, from J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., is well planned and sufficiently well executed to deserve commendation, even if it falls a little short of the promise of its sub-title: "A cyclopædia or reference book for all matters pertaining to education." Taking "education" in the restricted sense in which it was here intended to be used, we find, indeed, in this volume a large amount of valuable information. We cannot indicate all the contents; what is freshest of them is an account of the national land-grants for educational purposes, and brief sketches of the history and present organization of the school systems of the several States—very convenient for comparison. The Peabody Educational Fund, the National Bureau of Education, the educational bearing of the Civil-Rights Bill, educational gatherings during 1874, are some of the other topics, and there is much statistical matter derived from the best sources. As "pertaining to education" in the broad sense we must, we suppose, reckon the summary review of geographical and scientific discoveries during 1873 and 1874 inserted between Territorial School Systems and the Peabody Fund; and the pedagogic lore tucked away in the blank spaces at the end of the longer articles,

much of which could better have been dispensed with. The editor does not pronounce in favor of a national university, but he has very decided views as to the grant by which the so-called agricultural colleges were called into being: "It is safe to say, not merely that this is the most profitable disposition that the United States has ever yet made of any equal portion of its public lands, but that no government in the world can point to an educational trust that has been, on the whole, administered with more wisdom and fidelity, or with larger results, than this." The 'Annual' concludes with lists of educational journals and leading college periodicals in the United States; of eminent educators deceased during 1873 and 1874, arranged chronologically; and of American school-books published during 1874, classified, and with prices annexed.

—The late convention of college presidents at Hanover, N. H., agreed, it is said, that the evils of inter-collegiate boat-racing were more than balanced by the good that came of it, and that it had better not be interfered with. This conclusion will appear all the sounder if we consider the gradual enlargement of the college contests, so that they promise shortly to cover the whole field of athletic encounter, and to make of each occasion a genuine Olympic. Beginning with a simple regatta, the next stage witnessed the introduction of base-ball and foot-ball; Mr. Bennett's prize for running added still another element; and now there is no predicting how many forms of muscular rivalry will not start up at succeeding Saratoga meetings. The last Harvard *Advocate* reports the first field-meeting of the new Athletic Association of that university, the preparation for which is thus described: "A quarter-mile track, quite smooth but rather soft, had been laid out, surrounded by a rope; while a stouter rope, stretched around the entire field, with the aid of six policemen kept the *populus* (muckers) at a proper distance. Directly opposite the spectators' seats, a judges' stand was placed, while in the centre of the field were the hurdles and jumping-poles, with a hundred-yard track marked out between them." The exercises which followed were a hundred-yard dash, by eleven contestants, very nearly matched; a running high jump—highest, 4 ft. 8 in.; a running long jump—furthest, 15 ft. 8½ in.; a one-mile running race, won in 5.41¾; a hurdle-race of 100 yards, over eight 3 ft. 6 in. hurdles, won in 13½ seconds; a two-mile run, in which much science was displayed, won in 12.4½; a three-mile walk, in 29¾; a half-mile run, in 2.52½; besides a three-legged race, so-called. Base-ball also had a place in the programme, the winner throwing it 306 feet. We observe that these performances have already excited the emulation of Amherst, and we cannot doubt that Harvard's example will be promptly imitated by most of the colleges.

—Prof. von Holst, whose 'Verfassung und Demokratie der Vereinigten Staaten' we reviewed a few months ago, has published in pamphlet form his address delivered upon assuming the chair of Professor of History at Freiburg; the subject of this, too, is taken from American history, being the administration of Andrew Jackson in its relation to the development of democracy in this country. He has recognized with clear insight the importance of this administration, and its character as a turning-point in our history. The essay is indeed an expansion and illustration of this sentence in the opening paragraph: "With John Quincy Adams the last statesman for a long time departed from the White House, and the great masses and the professional politicians took possession of it." Andrew Jackson, as he shows, was not the cause of this revolution; he furnished but the will and the hand to accomplish a work that was all ready to be accomplished—"he merely raised the dam, against which the flood had long beaten." The analysis of the character of Jackson, and the series of acts by which he carried through this disastrous change in the spirit of the government, is masterly. No less clearly, however, than the arrogance and stubbornness of the President, are depicted the fatuity, narrow-mindedness, and lack of insight of the opposition. And while we are told in plain words that we have ever since this time been upon "a down-hill road, on which turning is ever hard, and in the best of cases can be only very gradual," we are also encouraged by the judgment of this sagacious observer, that the most fatal disease of a free state—contempt for politics and politicians—is far less developed among us than those "superficially informed commonly believe." In the introductory remarks Dr. von Holst takes occasion to disclaim the unfavorable view which he finds has been attributed to him, and to regret that the present work will, from the nature of its subject, be likely to confirm this erroneous impression. The pamphlet is published by Julius Buddeus of Düsseldorf, and is to be had of Mr. E. Steiger, in this city.

We were right, it appears, in our conjecture last week as to the nature of the catalogue that M. Bonnange proposes as the best for growing collections. It is the card catalogue already adopted by many excellent libraries. But M. Bonnange's invention is peculiar. His cards are in two parts; the upper, containing the inscription, is connected with the base by a cloth joint. A hole in the foot of the base of the card admits an endless screw, on which is a nut of the size of the compartment in which the base of the card rests; as the screw revolves, the cards fall apart or are pressed together. In M. Bonnange's plan, the cards may be shut up in drawers, or, as in the diagram which he publishes with his pamphlet, be arranged on an inclined plane of the height of a standing desk, and in this position, besides being more likely to have a sufficiency of light, which is sometimes not the case with cards in drawers, they may, by reason of their joint, be turned from right to left or the reverse, like the pages of a book, and so, very economically, be written on both sides. By a different disposition of them, they might be made to move up and down. This, the joint arrangement, is the distinctive point of M. Bonnange's plan. M. Littré praises highly the system of card catalogues in general, and calls M. Bonnange's invention ingenious.

—In the *Art Journal* for October Mr. J. Beavington Atkinson gives an interesting account of the preparations at Florence for the coming centenary of Michael Angelo. The proper date should be March, 1875, but the Italian weather at that season is apt to be stormy, and the middle of May has accordingly been selected for the festival. The painter's house (Casa Buonarotti), with its personal relics and its more or less authentic art remains, will furnish a sort of pivot to the celebration. Mr. Atkinson is disposed to discredit the pictorial drawings there preserved as Michael Angelo's, but he had the privilege of examining a portfolio of unquestionable architectural drawings, which as curiosities might be thought entitled to take precedence of the more familiar designs. They consist of plans for the never-finished façade of the Church of San Lorenzo; designs for fortifications, and for river embankments, and for various building details, such as windows, cornices, columns, capitals, etc. They are, "for the most part, the reverse of thorough; they are seldom made to scale; a workman could with difficulty carry them out"; they have, in short, the appearance of hasty memoranda. Mr. Atkinson surmises that the detailed drawings necessary for the construction of St. Peter's may still exist among the archives of the Vatican; but is it at all known how far the practice of that age approached our own in the use of such drawings? The literary remains in the Casa Buonarotti are to be published for the centenary. They consist of poems, which have already seen the light, and of two quarto volumes of letters, some two hundred in number, to which access has hitherto been denied to all the biographers of Michael Angelo. His correspondence with Vittoria Colonna is embraced in them. "By the aid of these and other like autographic data, we shall now, it is said, be made acquainted with every month of the life of Michael Angelo, from the hour when he first could write, down to the year of his death." Together with them will be printed the series of letters in the possession of the British Museum. A new life of Buonarotti, by Signor Aurelio Gotti, Director of the Uffizii Gallery, which is already under way, is to be translated into English, as we learn from the *Academy*, by Mr. Charles Heath Wilson.

—The same number of the *Art Journal* has another article—the third or fourth—by Mr. G. A. Simcox, on "The Transformation of the British Face." The writer gets considerably nearer to his subject than he has yet done, and attempts a characterization of the British face during the Tudor period. It is a rudimentary modern face, he says, offering many points of resemblance to the face of to-day, but the unlikeness is equally real and obvious, if not so palpable. If at a fancy ball everybody should appear in a Tudor costume, the illusion would not be so great but that we should feel the contrast at once—more quickly in the case of the women, perhaps, than in that of the men: "there would be a type, without even an Elizabethan parallel, the familiar type of a cultivated mediocrity, which has inherited enough refinement to compensate the lack of personal distinction; and this not only would be found to assert itself separately, but to leaven the types which strike us by their resemblance to the past." Coming down to particulars, Mr. Simcox defines the distinction between the two faces in these terms: "Perhaps the most general description that can be given is, that what tells in the Tudor face is the modelling of masses, and what tells in the modern face is the modelling of details. The number of planes is much greater, and the angles are softened away in proportion." Holbein placed his sitters in broad, unshadowed daylight, the distribution of the features being the fact to be brought out in his portraits. Modern painters since Vandyke have affected half-lights to reveal the shades of the more delicately moulded face. More definitely still: "There are scarcely any faces of Henry VIII.'s reign where the modelling of the eye-socket is individual; there are not many in which the cheeks are not a characteristic; there are many in which no feature is so characteristic as the cheek. In the modern face all these conditions are reversed." It is a general trait of the former period "that we usually find the fold of the lower eyelid more strongly marked than the fold of the upper, whereas in our own days the fold of the lower eyelid is hardly ever marked

in health, except among hard drinkers"—and our ancestors of the sixteenth century might be classed as such, seeing that they had to use ale and wine not only as men do nowadays but where we use tea, coffee, and tobacco in their stead. Mr. Simcox says that for the distinction just cited dependence must not be placed on engravings, especially on late ones. His only illustration, however, is a wood-cut, a facsimile of an older one. It is a pity he does not give more illustrations, and that he does not use the autotype process for reproducing original portraits from the canvas.

—In the *Lancet* for October 10, Dr. J. Henry Bennet has some observations on sea-sickness which are likely to interest unprofessional readers. The nervous theory of this disease—which refers it to the general unsettledness of things—is in very many cases, he remarks, inapplicable. He maintains that the presence of food in the stomach, the perturbations acting as an irritant, is often the main cause of difficulty. He recommends a course which he says has very often, though not always, prevented illness in a short passage or proved a good preparation for an extended voyage. A hearty meal should be eaten four or five hours before embarking. An hour or two before sailing, one may take some very strong coffee or tea, or spirits and water, but no milk or other food. On board, repose should be enjoined, the recumbent position being the best; and nothing solid or fluid should be taken for twelve hours, and then only a little. The taking of food should be gradual, according to desire, that the stomach may become familiar with its instability. This remedy has all the advantages of simplicity. We may add that Dr. Bennet has crossed the Channel some thirty or forty times, and made scores of trips on the Mediterranean, and, though having no fear of the sea, succumbs himself in very bad weather. He has, at all events, the right to be heard.

—A good illustration of the influence on modes of investigation of natural phenomena exerted by the Darwinian theory, is to be found in *Nature* (issue of October 8). In the entertaining department of "Letters to the Editor," the subject of the migration of birds had been broached, but not much progress had been made in discussing it, nor was any hint given of a systematic enquiry which might lead to a discovery of the causes of it. Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace now comes forward, and, bringing the doctrine of the "survival of the fittest" to bear upon the subject, lights it up, it must be confessed, a good deal. He first supposes a limited area within which only can breeding be safely accomplished by any given species of migratory bird, and which for the greater part of the rest of the year does not furnish sufficient food. Neglect to leave this area at the proper time, or to leave the area of abundant food at the proper time, tends, of course, to the extinction of the species. The habit of migration which we find so difficult of explanation as to end by calling it an instinct, Mr. Wallace regards as hereditary, and as having arisen in consequence of a gradual divergence from one another of the breeding and feeding areas, which in the beginning, and for some remote ancestor of the existing species, were coincident. Geologic and climatic changes readily account for such a divergence. Mr. Wallace thinks that somewhere on the globe every gradation still exists, and that "when the natural history of a sufficient number of species in all parts of the world is thoroughly worked out, we may find every link between species which never leave a restricted area in which they breed and live the whole year round, and those other cases in which the two areas are absolutely separated." This holds out a prospect of no little labor, but with the advantage of a perfectly definite view; and the European investigator must already, Mr. Wallace remarks, have ample materials for an instructive work on the subject. In regard to the means which birds have of determining the exact time at which to migrate year by year, he makes the acute suggestion that they may be found in "those climatal changes which most affect the particular species"—*e.g.*, the change of color or the fall of certain leaves; the change to the pupa state of certain insects; prevalent winds or rains; or even the decreased temperature of the earth or water.

—Mr. Merrill is right, in his letter on "Cuneiform Inscriptions" which we print on another page, in saying that Layard's volume of inscriptions needs to be revised. The Lachish inscription, however, is not found in that volume, but is excellently given in fac-simile on one of the plates of Layard's 'Monuments of Nineveh.' In his 'Babylon and Nineveh' it is given with an error or two; and we presume it is from this popular and accessible volume that the artist of Amherst College painted the fresco which Mr. Merrill has discovered. This inscription is also correctly given in Rawlinson's 'Historical Inscriptions of Western Asia,' so that a corrected form is not needed. Our correspondent, who has adopted Schrader's version of two years ago, has certainly given an approximately correct translation. It is substantially the same as that of Norris or of Oppert, and the retention of so incorrect a translation of not "ten" but over twenty years ago in Smith's 'Dictionary' is not creditable. We think Mr. Merrill considerably overrates the minute accuracy with which we can now translate the cuneiform Assyrian. It is by no means sure that in this inscription *itik* has the sense of "receives." A more natural translation than that of Schrader is that of Norris, "The spoil of the city of Lachish *passes* before him." Then the word *nimidi* (or *nimedi*) is by no means clear. Schrader, who has probably led our correspondent astray, suggests the derivation from *ma'ad*, to be great, but this root in Assyrian as in Hebrew never refers to size, height, but to quantity, strong, much, exceedingly, and could hardly produce a derivative meaning high, for which we have the familiar Assyrian word *illu*. Besides, the prefix *n* by no means generally gives the "passive" sense, nor could it from the intransitive *ma'ad* give a passitive *nimedi*, any more than *nimegi*, mysterious, can be passive from a root *emiq*, to be deep. The connection in this and other passages makes it quite as likely that its root is *mót* or *ma'ad*, to move, to shake, and that it indicates the *movable* throne or sedan carried by the kings on their journeys. Oppert, by the way, does not translate the word "judgment" but "justice," as if from *amat*, truth. We have dwelt on this matter only to remind our enthusiastic correspondent that while the grammatical principles of Assyrian are reasonably assured, and the general sense of any connected passage certain, verbal accuracy is by no means yet attainable.

LIVES OF CHIEF-JUSTICE CHASE.*

IT has been frequently observed among those who were interested in the war for the suppression of the rebellion, that the actual time elapsed since the year 1865 measures very poorly the immense gulf which seems to separate us from the end of the war. No doubt the chief reason for this is the number of important social and political events which have occurred in the last ten years, and among these changes none are more significant than the complete substitution in all the more prominent public stations of one set of men for another. When we reflect that Lincoln, Seward, Sumner, Chase, Stanton, and Fessenden are all dead, that the leaders who have succeeded them in the management of their party are men who ten years ago were unknown outside of small local political circles; and that the old Democratic leaders are almost as dead as if they were in their graves, so completely have they given way to new men, we do not need even to call to our aid the recollection of the destruction of slavery or the rise of the Grangers to make real the hiatus between the United States of 1865 and of 1874. There is nothing which so preserves the continuity of social affairs as the possibility of connecting the past with the present by the aid of the prominent political characters which belong to two periods, and end by wisely administering what they began by reforming. But on our present canvas we look in vain for these figures. In reading these lives of Chief-Justice Chase, the subject seems one belonging to a time so far past that we can hardly bring ourselves to believe that it is less than two years since he died.

During the life of Chase, views widely different were taken of his character and aims; to some persons he appeared as a cold, ambitious, selfish man, bent on obtaining power for himself at whatever cost, and using the great issues in which he became involved for this object. To the old Abolitionists he seemed cold, because he belonged to that school of politicians who, while anti-slavery leaders, made it their first principle to do nothing outside the law and the Constitution—who believed that slavery might be restricted to the existing slave territory; that it might be kept out of the Territories; that the slave-owners could not rightfully require the free States to assist them in catching runaways; and that a new party ought to and must be formed for the furtherance of these ideas, but who would not hear a word against the Constitution or against the Union of the States. It is clear enough now that both abolitionists and anti-slavery politicians of Chase's school had their part to play in the struggle which ended in the Emancipation Proclamation; that if the abolitionists had not supplied a motive power by exhortation, and denunciation, and self-sacrifice, and martyrdom, the anti-slavery party, if formed at all, would have been much slower in forming; while, if we can suppose the abolitionists, instead of encouraging the faint-hearted and driving up the timid, to have got possession of the Government and undertaken to get rid of slavery extra-constitutionally, they would have developed against themselves the very same Union feeling which, as matters turned out, proved their most substantial means of support. Not that Chase himself needed to be either frightened or encouraged. He occupied from the beginning of his career a position entirely independent, and pursued the plan marked out for himself with consistency. Springing as he did from a New

* 'An Account of the Private Life and Public Services of Salmon Portland Chase. By Robert B. Warden.' Cincinnati: Wilstach, Baldwin & Co. 1874.
'The Life and Public Services of Salmon Portland Chase, United States Senator and Governor of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury, and Chief Justice of the United States. By J. W. Shuckers. To which is added the Eulogy on Mr. Chase delivered by William M. Evarts before the Alumni of Dartmouth College, June 24, 1874.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874.

England family, he was brought up with a detestation of slavery, and the first political act of his life of which we find any mention in these volumes, is that of his signing a petition to Congress praying for the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade in the District of Columbia, and his first important appearance in court was in the case of a fugitive slave. From that day slavery had no more dangerous and skilful enemy than he.

Mr. Chase's character has been considered in some quarters very subtle and incomprehensible, and Mr. Warden throws an air of great mystery over it by promising the public, in the course of his narrative of the life of the Chief-Justice, what he calls "revelations" of extraordinary interest. We must say, however, that after examining these disclosures with some care we cannot find anything very new or startling in them. There were three turning-points in Mr. Chase's life—the first, when he was elected senator from Ohio; the second, during his administration of the Treasury; and the third, when the legal-tender cases came before him for decision—on some one of which we should have expected new light to be thrown if Mr. Chase's character really was the enigma it is asserted to have been. As to the first of these, Mr. Warden himself seems almost oppressed with the magnitude of the event and the importance of correctly understanding the causes which led to it; for he says (p. 325): "It must be evident enough that very close attention should be given to the question whether he, whose life we study, made his way to the Senate by a crime only less appalling than the crime of John Wilkes Booth when he made his way to the 'box of state' in Ford's Theatre, and slew the unsuspecting President of the United States." From Mr. Warden's confused account of what took place, it may be gathered that in his opinion there is not room for an historical parallel between the late Chief-Justice and the assassin of Lincoln. In Mr. Shuckers's volume we find a connected history of the election. Before stating it here, however, let us say that Mr. Warden's twenty-second chapter, concerning this senatorial campaign, is an admirable specimen of his confused manner; containing as it does some sixteen pages, and relating to one of the most interesting and much-disputed points in Chase's life, it was certainly not too much to expect it to be intelligible. But we defy any one to make out, without reference to Mr. Shuckers's book, even what charges against Chase were founded on his election. The whole chapter is a tangled mass of names, the reader being allowed to infer the succession of events and the relations of the persons for himself.

There were as a matter of fact two separate questions involved, one the action of Chase as to the gerrymandering of Hamilton County by the Whigs, and the other the bargain by which the Free-soilers and Democrats united their forces to obtain control of the Ohio Legislature. For a long period, Hamilton County had constituted a single election district, entitled to two senators and five representatives, and the Democrats controlled the election of all. At the session of the Ohio Legislature of 1847–8, however, the Whigs gerrymandered the county, so as to secure the election of one Whig senator and two Whig representatives in a fraction of the county. Against this division the Democrats protested as being unconstitutional, and "Mr. Chase, immediately upon the passage of the act—and long before his election to the United States Senate was possible or even thought of—stated his emphatic conviction that it was unconstitutional." In 1848, two representatives were to be elected from Hamilton County, and in December of that year there appeared before the legislature two contesting delegations: Messrs. Pugh and Pierce, Democrats, and Messrs. Spencer and Runyon, Whigs. The Democrats were admitted, and their admission had nothing whatever, as we understand the matter, to do with the coalition afterwards formed, for the admission of Messrs. Pugh and Pierce was determined upon before the coalition took place. The legislature at this time was peculiarly constituted. Two independent Free-soilers, Morse and Townsend, refused to consider themselves bound by the action of the Free-soil caucus held on the meeting of the Legislature. This they apparently had a perfect right to do, as they had been elected on independent tickets, in opposition to the candidates of both Whigs and Democrats. The rest of the Free-soilers were Whigs, and had been elected by Whig votes. The legislature was evenly divided between Old-line Democrats on the one side, and Old-line Whigs united with the Whig Free-soilers on the other. Between the two Messrs. Morse and Townsend held the balance of power. The only political measures they cared to carry, or had been elected to carry, were the repeal of the Ohio "black laws" and the election of a Free-soil senator. They therefore made overtures to the Whigs and Democrats, promising substantially to act in certain matters of minor importance which were likely to arise (and on which there does not seem to have been any division of principle) with either of the two old parties which would accept their terms. The Whigs declined; the Democrats accepted. The "black laws" were repealed and Chase went to the Senate. Now, this arrangement—something, by the way, like that which procured Mr. Sumner his seat—may or may not reflect credit on the parties concerned; but a great deal of what is nowadays said about vote-bartering, and many of the denunciations levelled against vote-barterers, do not apply to such coalitions as this. When a new party rises into power, holding an evenly divided balance between two old ones, it must be by arrangements and compromises of this sort that the machinery of the Government is kept working. What we should have liked to see discussed in these two volumes would have been the way in which Mr. Chase behaved through it all. All the evidence that we have points to an honorable attitude throughout, and as the facts stand now any one who accuses Chase of underhanded or corrupt behavior for the purpose of securing his election, will probably have to include in his denunciation almost all the Free-soilers of the day, who, by the evenly balanced division of the old Democrats and Whigs, secured for themselves and their party a political opening.

On Mr. Chase's administration of the Treasury, and his connection with the legal-tender cases, we get nothing very new from Mr. Shuckers or Mr. Warden. That he should, as Chief-Justice, have reversed his own action as Secretary of the Treasury, or rather that as Secretary of the Treasury he should have permitted an act which as Chief-Justice he was compelled to pronounce unconstitutional, will always remain the great blemish on his career. That he agreed to the manufacture of legal-tender by the Government with great reluctance, and against his better judgment, is no secret. In considering this part of his life, however, scanty notice has been taken of the difficulties which beset his path. Thrust into the Treasury as he was by circumstances over which he had little control (a purely political bureau would have been by far the most natural one for him to have held), he was obliged to administer the finances of the country at a time which would have taxed the intellect of the greatest finance minister severely. Mr. Chase knew nothing about finance, taxation, or economics, beyond the knowledge possessed by any well-read man of his day, and in reading over again now the mere dry statistics of what he did, the system he created and organized, and the vast sums of money which, from month to month and from year to year, he managed to extract from his always exhausted coffers, the reader stands aghast at the gigantic nature of the task he undertook and executed, and feels less inclined to ask whether this or that means selected was right, than to wonder how it was done at all. Even the appearance on the scene of Mr. Jay Cooke, as a sort of *deus ex machinâ*, does not explain it.

It is very noticeable that neither Mr. Shuckers nor Mr. Warden succeeds in presenting to the mind of the reader any distinct view of the private life of Mr. Chase. The former, indeed, does not try. His book is little more than a skeleton narrative of the public career of his subject. But with Mr. Warden the case is different. He seems throughout to have been impressed with the necessity of clearing up all unsettled points about Mr. Chase, and, as may be inferred from the reference to the Senatorial election just quoted, he had no desire to shield the memory of Mr. Chase, or spare the feelings of any of his surviving relatives or friends. He seems, indeed, to have been seized with a fury of revelation long ago, and to have made up his mind that, come what might, he would let the public know whatever evil he might discover. Biography, in Mr. Warden's opinion, has chiefly suffered from the eagerness of biographers to exalt their subject, and to avoid this he seems to have determined to degrade his; so that generally throughout his book we get the impression that the writer has spent some time in getting together materials for an indictment rather than to produce a correct picture of the life of his subject. Nothing, we should infer from Mr. Warden's continually repeated disclaimer of all desire to fall into *nil nisi bonum*, would have given him so much delight as to obtain a few facts tending to show that at the age of ten Mr. Chase robbed an orchard, or that on some college occasion, mistaking a pitcher containing arrack-punch for the water-pitcher, he incautiously drank a tumbler of strong drink. Had he been fortunate enough to discover anything of this sort, we should probably have been introduced to it in some such way as this: "We now approach an event in the life of Salmon Portland Chase to which we must direct the reader's closest attention, for on a correct estimation of it hinges the momentous question whether the future Chief-Justice of the United States did at this early age commit a grievous error or deadly sin, and in the determination of this question no consideration of friendship, or blood, or false view of the duty of biographer will induce the writer to extenuate or set down aught in malice." Then we should have had a chapter which would have left us as wise as we were before. But Mr. Warden is almost as bare of any facts of personal history as Mr. Shuckers himself, his investigations having apparently led him to the conclusion that Mr. Chase had no private or human feelings at all. One solitary trait of interest we find recorded in these volumes is, that people rarely "felt at ease" with Mr. Chase, and, indeed, as to his biographers, there were some reasons why they, at least, knowing what they were undertaking, should not feel so.

ANTONY BRADE.*

THE hero of 'Antony Brade' is a school-boy, Antony himself, and perhaps a good third of the volume is taken up with the direct concerns of the pupils of his school, St. Bart's, or St. Bartholomew's; but, as Mr. Lowell says, the story lies as much among grown people as among youth. For besides the view he is to give us of the ways of St. Bart's, Mr. Lowell finds that he has to satirize the social life of the town of Eastham; he has to pay his respects at length to the character of the ordinary variety of endowed-school trustee; and in particular there is one bad trustee whose appreciation of the relative position of the layman and the cleric is evidently not what the rector of St. Bart's thinks it should be, and who for this and some other reasons comes up in due season for a full measure of discipline.

To speak first of these adult parts of the book, as apparently having had most of the writer's interest and care, we may say that their satire is often clever and amusing, but that as often, or oftener, it is very clumsy and infelicitous. For example, much of the ambitious work expended on Mrs. Wadham, while singularly absurd, is very heavy. So many wonderfully sharp and sympathetic social observers, male and female, have been busy for years in New England, as well as elsewhere, that the great crudity of scenes like the Wadham party, with its tableaux and its real Russian count, is a sort of thing long obsolete, and not to be revived without the certainty of exciting the reader's displeasure. It is with a lighter and truer hand that Mr. Lowell makes the picture of his board of trustees. The gregarious carelessness and laziness of these gentlemen, and the individual fussiness and officiousness of some of them, are given with not a little graphic force. And upon the committee-man to whom we have made reference as especially obnoxious, not a little but a great deal of the artist's force has been expended. This has not preserved him from making his subject a deal of a bore a good while before we get done with him; and, what is no better, we seem to see that the artist has sacrificed to force certain superior qualities, and has made a very queer portrait in gratifying his desire to limn Mr. Parmenter for future reference. In fact the picture shows animus, as they say; and to illustrate the intensity and *semper-paratus* character of this, we will make here a brief quotation.

We must premise that Mr. Parmenter, the obnoxious trustee and benefactor, making a call on the school-rector, suggests in course of conversation one or two points for notice, and ends by animadverting gently on a habit which one of his boys has adopted of keeping his eyes shut in Morning Prayers at points of the service where other people usually have to keep their eyes open and fixed on the printed page. This eye-shutting, by the bye, of course happens not because the boy in question is a bad boy, but, on the contrary, because he is an extraordinarily good boy, and knows his prayer-book much better than his young companions do—or, in fact, ever expect to do. For his hint as regards this lad, Mr. Parmenter at once receives from the rector a very good-sized snub; but, says our author, he seemed to take no offence at all at the rebuke, and it was "with only a slight change of countenance that he accepted the difference of opinion." And now, as for why he was so quiet about it, this the author thus explains instanter: "It had not been without moral benefit that he had had the practice for many years of managing his temper and manners in dealing with his customers from behind a counter." Thus, we see, is Parmenter civil and well-mannered on occasion? it is because not so long ago he was compelled to be habitually almost servile. This passage, which reveals amusingly yet disagreeably the assailant's constant feeling towards one of St. Bart's chief Fundators, is an incidental passage, but it not only answers the purpose for which we have used it, but also it indicates the main charge specifically brought against Parmenter, and much insisted on: he is a seller of mercantile wares; he has himself sold his goods at retail, standing in his store; he is strong in the belief that it is good for the public that his manufactures should be sold, and, so believing, he advertises them, and does so with the most modern freedom. This is the badness, and, as Mr. Sumner would have said, the ridiculosity of Parmenter, and he can never be sufficiently pointed at and glared at for it. He adds to it what seem to be regarded as other ridiculosities—that of making an attempt at purchasing good pictures; of following the dim pursuits of "the collector" with less than the luck of some of the fraternity; of putting on more dignity of manner than is common among Americans who have newly made their money. On the whole, before the author is done, it is the mercantile art-student rather than the rector who has the reader's good-will, and one does not see why Mr. Parmenter, so far as concerns any deep offence against even the most fastidious of rectorial souls, may not be confidently left by his friends to the communings of both his official and his private conscience.

Of the school-boy part of 'Antony Brade' we are not qualified to speak —so far unqualified at all events as to have no knowledge of the peculiar conduct of schools such as St. Bart's. But we may say, we suppose, that these chapters, with the young fellows in them, seem to us to be almost all labored and faithful rather than successful in hitting off the reality. We missed finding anywhere what we think we have a right to look for amid so much observation—that touch which should make us say, Here now, be it St. Bart's, or wherever else, is the genuine boy-nature; thus it would act and talk anywhere, and that this is the true ring no evidence from the outside is needed. One of the chapters, however, is most excellently spirited, and indeed probably supplies the critic with a severe standard by which to try the rest. This contains the description of the gathering for the hockey-match on the frozen lake, and of the tragical drowning, despite desperate exertions, of one of the boys who had leaped through the thin ice to save his drowning friend. All this is extremely good.

As for the mystery of young Antony Brade's name and parentage, it seems rather a useless piece of the story. But the fact is, one is prejudiced against it at the start by its rather too early apparition, and the rather silly violence of the conjectures to which it is supposed to give rise alike in the male and female Eastham mind, and the folly—greater surely than the folly of the New England woman in well-railroaded New England towns—with which these conjectures are acted upon. We would say, in conclusion, that while in point of pages, and as regards his own apparent interest in his work, Mr. Lowell has made a book dealing as much with adults as with boys, it is nevertheless, so far as regards substantial interest and value, a boy's book after all which he has made. The corridors and lesson-rooms and dormitories of St. Bart's, the trapping-ground, the foot-ball games—these are the durable parts of the story, and its real public are boys—never tired of the record of school adventure. Of this we should think there is enough in 'Antony Brade' to make it welcome for some time, though not enough to make it a permanent favorite.

* 'Antony Brade. By Robert Lowell.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.

GOLDSMID'S 'TELEGRAPH AND TRAVEL.'*

COLONEL GOLDSMID'S work is divided into two separate parts, the first embracing about two-thirds of the book, and containing the official history of the construction and operation of what are known as the Overland Lines from England to India, while the second gives an account of some of his journeys through Asia and Europe, while acting as Chief Director of the Indo-European Telegraph. It is worth noting, that the tales of a traveller and the official history and reports of a government department should be included in the same book, and that the latter should be published in popular form with engravings of scenery and extracts from newspapers by the direction of an English Secretary of State. Even in the hands of royalty the telegraph is the democrat of our time.

Those familiar with the progress of telegraphic communication will remember how wretched was the service from England to India prior to the year 1870. What is known as the Indo-Ottoman Overland Line extends from Constantinople through Asiatic Turkey to the head of the Persian Gulf, where it connects by a series of short cables with Karachi or Currachee, the western outpost of the British Indian telegraph system. This line, with an alternate wire from Bagdad through Persia to Bushire on the Persian Gulf, was completed early in 1865, but for five years subsequently the average time for transmitting messages from England to Karachi was between five and six days. When the line first went into operation, it was something of a feat for a telegram to get to Constantinople in five days from Karachi; a delay of fourteen days was not uncommon; and no man could say whether the mails from Constantinople to London would not prove more expeditious as well as more trustworthy than the miserable lines connecting Turkey with Western Europe. The delays of the service were matched by its inaccuracy, and a high Indian telegraph official gave utterance to a feeling prevalent in all quarters when, in 1867, he expressed his surprise that a message should ever reach England from India without mistakes. The public complaints and criticisms became so loud and pungent that the work before us is in some sort an official vindication. Colonel Goldsmid dwells at length upon the difficulties experienced in the construction of the lines. But so far as we can judge from his account, the physical obstacles were less than those confronted in the establishment of the first overland line of telegraph to California. Difficulties in procuring poles and labor, bad roads, lack of water, and uninhabited wastes, were common to both routes, and trouble was also anticipated in the one case from wander-

* 'Telegraph and Travel. A Narrative of the Formation and Development of Telegraphic Communication between England and India, under the orders of her Majesty's Government, with Incidental Notices of the Countries Traversed by the Lines. By Colonel Sir Frederic John Goldsmid, C.B., K.C.S.I., late Chief Director of the Government Indo-European Telegraph, British Commissioner for Settlement of the Perso-Baluch Frontier (1870-71), and Arbitrator in the Perso-Afghan Boundary Question (1872-73).' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.

ing Indians, and in the other from lawless Arabs. But beyond the propensity to use insulators as targets, little annoyance from the natives was experienced in either case. The political complications, however, which surrounded the English engineers were great, and must have seemed sometimes well-nigh hopeless. All action had to be taken under the supervision or with the concurrence of Oriental authorities, and was hampered by their jealousy, corruption, ignorance, and eternal procrastination. Still these stumbling-blocks could be removed by patience and diplomacy, and a thorough-going assistance was sometimes given in true Asiatic fashion. Colonel Goldsmid relates that on one occasion when considerable damage was done to the wires by villagers and nomads, the Shah ordered Mirza Jiafar Khan to set out at once for Shiraz, with an executioner, to cut off any heads the English telegraph officer might indicate, with further instructions to send Ali Khan Beg, the head marauder, in chains to Teheran, and to levy a fine of a thousand tomans from the chief of the nomad tribes. This programme was carried out with an approach to completeness. The Persian officer posted down to Shiraz, found and seized Ali Khan Beg, whose existence was at first positively denied by the Governor of Shiraz, squeezed out the prescribed fine, plus a second thousand for his chief in Teheran, and five hundred tomans for himself, and gave up a village where he had been insulted to wholesale plunder.

When the lines were completed and in working order, the English Government found, in the first place, that prompt and uniform work could not be obtained from Turkish officials, or from wires under their control; and, secondly, that if it could, the miserable service between Constantinople and England over the wires of half-a-dozen European governments was enough to make the new line, telegraphically speaking, a failure. To remedy such difficulties was no easy matter, but it seems astonishing that they were not foreseen and appreciated at the outset. We think Colonel Goldsmid fairly shows that, after the line was built, the English telegraph authorities made the best of a bad situation, and did all they could by patience, perseverance, and almost interminable negotiations to improve communication. But the obstacles to successful working via Constantinople were so great that they were finally driven to negotiate for a new connection running from Teheran north of the Black Sea, via Odessa, Warsaw, and Berlin, to the German Ocean, where connection could be made by cable with England. Under concessions from Russia, Prussia, and Persia granted the firm of Messrs. Siemens Brothers, a private company contracted to supply the English Government with two through wires for Indo-European business exclusively, reaching from the landing of the cables at the German Ocean to the city of Teheran. The line from Teheran to the Persian Gulf, and the cables to India, were under the control of the English telegraph administration, so that when the Siemens line was opened on the 31st of January, 1870, a new era began in Indian telegraphing. Meantime, however, the complaints of the public and the progress in the manufacture of cables had been such that an English private company had undertaken to lay a cable to India via the Red Sea, and commenced working their line in the spring of 1870. With the opening of the Siemens line, and, we may add, under the spur of private competition, the Government service has steadily improved, until in 1873 the average time per message from England to India has been reduced to three hours and nine minutes. But it is well worth noting that, though perhaps matched in efficiency, the private company's cables via Suez have been able to take from the Government the lion's share of the traffic. The Turkish line gets 4 per cent. of the business, the Government line via Teheran 32 per cent., the Red Sea line the remainder, or 64 per cent.

The statement of the capital and revenue account of the Indo-European telegraph department shows that the investment of the British Government has been nearly six millions of dollars in gold, while the receipts for nine years have been £37,000 less than the expenses, without including any interest on capital. The estimated earnings for 1873–4 are £61,000; estimated expenditure, £68,000. Whatever it may be politically, it is plain that in a financial and business aspect the Government line to India has been a failure.

We have left ourselves little space to speak of Colonel Goldsmid's travels, which are decidedly the best portion of the work, and cover journeys seldom made, through Persia, Beloochistan, Russia, and Asia Minor. The 'Telegraph' portion is dry and tedious, and contains little of interest to the general public, or of value to the professional reader. It is indeed singularly free from the evidence of professional skill on the part of the author. There is also a lack of clearness in arrangement and statement, and an exhausting abundance of unimportant details. As a traveller, the Colonel is less prolix, and the extracts from his journal on the way from Bagdad to Constantinople, and from St. Petersburg via Astrakhan to Teheran, afford some relief from the dulness of the greater part of the book.

THE MAGAZINES FOR NOVEMBER.

MR. RICHARD GRANT WHITE'S paper, called a "Musical Monster," in the *Galaxy*, turns out to be composed mainly of some reminiscences and stories of prima-donnas, of whom Mr. White converses knowingly and entertainingly. The fuming and petulancy with which the article begins, and which does not seem too respectful either to Mr. White's audience or to himself, appears to be all about the lyric stage and the opera, and the argument with which our perturbed writer first presents the reader is of a kind to merit the same commendation that we have given to the article's tone. It is not an argument to be seriously presented. It is that mouldy piece of ratiocination familiar to the pulpit in its war upon the dance, which goes to show that could an inhabitant of another sphere come to ours and witness on our stage the performance of an opera, hear people singing their dying confessions, asking for a valet in a baritone recitative, and so on, he would think himself in an unaccountable world, or that the performance before him was a performance of lunatics. So Master Stultus probably might think; but little as we have esteemed him ever since we first heard of him from the sacred desk, now many years ago, we doubt not he would speedily learn the fact that art is one thing and nature another; that always we have to make concessions—to some forms of art more, to some less; that the true principle once admitted, operatic plays are justified precisely as painted portraits are—and so forth, and so forth, as Mr. White ought to be ashamed to make anybody go after him and say. Apparently, Mr. White would be but a poor guide for the new-comer, or else he might teach him that in the land where the operatic drama had its birth it had excellently good reason for coming into existence, as being to the impressible people who were its spectators dramatic in the same way (we suppose we may say) in which "Othello" is dramatic to our colder natures. And he might be taught, furthermore, instead of looking on our operatic drama as the great musical monster, to look on it as a performance in which, no matter how much is lost to the spectators born in our colder clime, they get for their money some dramatic effects and (what they have chosen to care for) some beautiful singing in a setting that pleases them better than a less elaborate one.

If Mr. White sometimes takes a tone with his audience with which they can hardly be pleased, we have another writer in the month's magazines who deserves to be brought before the bar of the public. This offender is Dr. Holland, of *Scribner's*, who each month seems to button his coat higher towards his chin and assume more and more of a military brusqueness of manner towards his fellows. A couple of months ago he came out, and casting to the winds the various theories and counter-theories in regard to the Brooklyn scandal—and, as we know, they were numerous, and some of them the work of persons whom Dr. Holland has not established his right to treat with impertinence—he told us in one word that as it was simply physically impossible that so laborious a man as the accused should be guilty, whoever believed him to be so was—we forget what bad thing; evil in the suppositions of his heart, we believe, as well as stupid; and closing up the "Topics of the Time," he left us with the matter settled, and further discussion both useless and silly. This month we have him again on the same general subject, "The Relations of Clergymen to Women," and he is as absolute as ever. It seems that there are in the congregations only two classes of women with whom the minister is liable to have dangerous intimacies. The first consists of discontented wives. ". . . A woman finds herself married to a brute. She suffers long in silence; her heart is broken or weary, and she wants counsel, and is dying for sympathy. She tells her story to the one man who is—to her—guide, teacher, inspirer, and friend. He gives her the best counsel of which he is capable, comforts her if he can, sympathizes with her, treats her with kindness and consideration. That a woman should in many instances look upon such a man as little less than a god, and come to regard him as almost her only solace amid the daily accumulating trials of her life, is as natural as it is for water to run down-hill. That she should respect him more than she can respect a brutal husband—that half-an-hour of his society should be worth more to her heart and her self-respect than the miserable years of her bondage to a cruel master, is also entirely natural. He cannot help it, nor can he find temptation in it, unless he chooses to do so. Women, under these circumstances, do not go to their pastors either to tempt or to be tempted." One class, then, of dangerous women is cleared out of the way. The women are not dangerous, and the minister, so far from being tempted, obviously is not tempted by his enquiring friend—which disposes of him and of the only real possibility of clerical unchastity in the churches. The cool assumption of all this the reader may not perceive at first, but by-and-by it becomes evident on what a manufactured basis the reasoner has grounded the generalizations which he so freely flings down for our acceptance. Of these we must quote one, because expressed in that striking way which Dr. Holland has recently adopted. This is the lan-

guage: h ministers of the country] average better than the apostles did at first. Jesus in his little company of twelve found one that was a devil. The world has improved, until we believe there is not more than one devil in a hundred." With this sample of forcible expression we give another, also taken from the discourse on the second kind of women who are dangerous to ministers. These, by the way, are "a very harmless set—gushing maiden ladies, aged and discreet widows with nice houses, sentimental married women who, with no brains to lend, are fond of borrowing them for the ornamentation of all possible social occasions." "Now," says Dr. Holland, by way of ending controversies, "to suppose that a pastor sufficiently putty-headed to be pleased with this sort of worship is in a field of temptation to unchastity is simply absurd."

In the list of its articles, the November *Scribner's* has Mr. King's "Great South" as usual, the statistical, historical, social, political hodge-podge to which he seems entirely unable to bring order of any kind that shall make easy reading of his sketches. Florida, with its orange-groves, its delightful climate, and all the rest, is the portion excerpted this month. Miss Saxe Holm begins one of her well-known stories. It is thus that they go: Two youths, seventeen or eighteen years of age, on a winter's day, go down by stage to a small town in Maine, where they are to "rusticate" under the charge of an elderly clergyman. On the way, a place is taken in the coach by a man nearly dead drunk, who has with him his little daughter, aged perhaps ten. The youth who rides inside with the child sees that she is poorly clad, and probably is ill-used in all ways. Arrived at the village, the drunken man is lifted out and carried into a chamber, and the child continues to be the temporary charge of our friend Jim, the sophomore. He, at notice so short as must have been surprising to his co-mate, becomes the most sentimental of all possible persons: he has often lain awake and wept because he had no sister; this and similar states of feeling on his part he had never mentioned to his chum; he feels that in Ally (the little girl) he might find what he wishes, etc. One obstacle is at once cleanly removed, for the drunken father, when it is attempted to awaken him, thinking himself involved in a fight, draws a revolver and, shooting wildly, kills himself. He is an Englishman, by the bye, and only a few days in the country, and this same revolver is doubtless a free gift of Miss Holm's. The way now seems clear for Jim Ordway's adoption of the child. He announces such to be his intention to the people of the house, who are disposed to grin. To tell the truth, they know him as a young gentleman under rustication, and of apparent irresponsibility, regarded from a pecuniary point of view. Mr. Ordway sees this, and stepping forward makes a little speech, to the effect that he means what he says, and with a "will this be enough do you think, to get what she needs at present?" Jim quietly puts a hundred dollar bill in Mr. Bunker's hands. This last is much in Saxe Holm's way. There is plenty of sentiment. Everything is sweet and strong, and most of it on a level with what we have quoted, which is pretty much on a level with the talk children have after they have gone to bed: when Jack is rich Fred is to have a hundred thousand million two hundred hundred dollars; when Fred keeps store Jack is to have all the nuts he can carry.

The rest of the *Galaxy*, besides Mr. White's article, is made up of a paper on the present condition of the English Church by Mr. Justin McCarthy, always readable except in his novels; the beginning of "Leah, a Woman of Fashion," by Mrs. Annie Edwards, author of "Ought We to Visit Her?" and of other stories well known to *Galaxy* readers, and an article which looks learned and proper on "The Jewish Dietary System."

The most notable article in all the magazines is Dr. Holmes's tribute to the late Jeffries Wyman which appears in the *Atlantic*—the only magazine which can now and again, recalling old times, give to the public a contributor's essayfar beyond any magazine line of excellence. This essay is full of a sincerity of affection for the man, and of admiration for the scientific scholar and student, which make it nothing less than admirable and captivating. The *Atlantic* contains, besides, some chapters of Mr. Howells's story which would seem to show that the end is close at hand. Indeed the tragedy of the end seems to have already culminated and subsided in the mischance of poor Don Ippolito. The portion of the story here given is very dramatic in feeling and in situation. Mr. Fiske's comparison of our culture and conditions of culture with those of the Greeks of the great days gives us remote hopes of a time when, the world having been subdued by means of the material forces which man has made subservient to him, and machinery being made to do the work of men, we shall again have a period of individual culture and repose. Mr. Robert Dale Owen writes garrulously of some stale chapters in the lore of spiritualism as early manifested.

Lippincott's, apart from its general readableness, is noticeable this month for a ponderous essay by the late Lord Lytton on "The Genius of Conservatism."

In *Harper's* we have an article by a practised shot, and seemingly something of a martinet in his profession of shooting, which doubtless all sportsmen will be glad to look at. "Among the Waterfowl of the West" is the title of it. "The Bahamas" (with illustrations) is an article to add new horrors to the thought of the Northern winter. It is pleasantly written.

The Hunter and the Trapper in North America; or, Romantic Adventures in Field and Forest. From the French of Benedict Révoil. By W. H. Davenport Adams. (London and New York: T. Nelson & Sons.)—The success which has attended the translation into English of the fictions of Jules Verne has probably led to the composition of this volume, which purports to be a recital of facts, and is recommended in the preface as an "introduction to the study of natural history, or a companion and supplement to formal scientific treatises." The general style of the book indicates that it was written for a young class of readers, to whom tales of sport and adventure naturally appeal most strongly. Nobody can deny the usefulness of books of this kind, when, with a sufficient tinge of romance to render them interesting, they convey accurate information about the habits of wild animals, the peculiarities of the countries they inhabit, and the people who live there. In this field Captain Mayne Reid's services are to be spoken of with respect, and his descriptions of the far West, where many of his scenes are laid, are generally true to nature. As evidence, on the other hand, of the profound knowledge of the geography and natural history of the United States possessed by M. Révoil, we give the following specimens: On p. 14 he speaks of being "on Eagle Lake in Adirondack County at the foot of the Catskill Mountains." In this region he had been "traversing hills and valleys in the pursuit of widgeons and quails." In the wilderness of the Adirondacks there are no quails (which live exclusively about clearings), and as for widgeons, we fancy it would be rather difficult to find any either in the hills and valleys of the Adirondacks or Catskills. After a recital of trout-fishing in February (which is out of season) M. Révoil, on pp. 22 and 23, speaks "about discovering an island about a mile in length and breadth, and situated at the extreme point of Staten Island," one of the number "which cluster about this spot from New York to Key West." "In this wild solitude, remote from all civilization and having no contact with the rest of the world," M. Révoil found a young woman "of an aspect severe yet gentle," whose voice reminded him of the babbling of the American thrush when watching over her brood, and whose principal subsistence was fish and "*stags*, which she caught in snares." Whether the stags were captured on the small island, on Staten Island, or on Key West, is left to the conjecture of the reader, and as they are equally plentiful in all of these places, it does not make much difference. Further on he speaks of the Pawnee Indians inhabiting the "Plains of Arkansas" (this tribe has never lived in Arkansas), and on p. 53 tells us of what he calls a "successful sporting expedition after wild turkeys, in which a large flock of these birds was run down by Indians on foot, who first caught the turkeys and then wrung their necks." The Indians must have been pretty thoroughly tired after this feat.

Chapter IV. is devoted to the wolf, and here M. Révoil confounds the coyote, or prairie-wolf, a comparatively harmless animal, with the large gray wolf, which partially bears out his statement of being "among the most rapacious and dangerous animals of North America." After several very apocryphal narratives concerning this animal, he tells us about the opossum, and treats us to a French version of the well-known story of David Crockett and the coon. He assures us that in 1845 he became acquainted with the "celebrated original," who resided in Philadelphia, cherished the notion that he was a second Robin Hood, and "whom his compatriots had raised to the rank of commander of the National Guard of that city." With Crockett M. Révoil started hunting opossums from Philadelphia, driving with him in a light wagon to "Macomb's Dam, about ten miles distant," which was in 1845 a favorite resort for the animals of which they were in quest. The raccoon next engages the author's attention, and to this animal he gives, with a very few of its own attributes, the principal ones of the fox and bear, His last raccoon chase, which he pursued with a pack of "five bloodhounds," was "in a cedar wood on the bank of the Crow-Nest River, not far from the famous military school of West Point, New York County." In Chap. VII. he hunts with the "Ioway" Indians at the confluence of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers. There, in the depths of a winter which he describes as frightfully cold, he shoots "snipe and moor-hens," the Indians kill "bisons and elands"—the only time, we venture to say, the latter animal has been seen on this continent; and informs his readers that the art of falconry, now almost obsolete in Europe, is thoroughly understood and practised by the Blackfeet Indians, who inhabit the region above-named.

The panther is treated of at length, its size being given as that of a large

fox or small wolf. M. Révoil kills numbers of these animals, and describes a conflict between one of them and the "celebrated Billy Bowlegs, chief of the Carib Indians," which took place on a "cold frosty morning" on the banks of the river St. John, near St. Augustine, Florida. Billy attacked the panther in a tree, and after punching him up with a stick killed him with a knife. After hunting "stags," which he confounds with the Virginia deer, and which properly do not exist in the United States, "on the borders of Big Wolf Lake, thirty miles from the great sheets of water named the Paranacs," and killing scores of them, M. Révoil tells us about the elk. This animal, which he confounds with the moose, is not found in Lower Canada, where he lays the scene of its exploits, neither do lianas hang festooned from the trees in that part of the world. His descriptions of moose and cariboo hunting are not only very highly colored but absolutely untrue to the nature and habits of the animals and those who successfully pursue them. With the grizzly bear, however, our author is at his strongest. He has the greatest contempt for the prowess of this formidable animal. In one method the Indians have for his destruction a number of them squat on the ground when the bear is seen, and with taunts and missiles provoke him to the attack. When sufficiently enraged, the bear pounces on one of them, who is not always fatally injured thereby, and while thus occupied the remainder of them seize him by the hind legs, turn him over, and despatch him with their knives. This reminds us of Dr. Johnson's saying to Boswell that he had so little fear of dogs that if attacked by one or two large ones, nothing would be easier for him than to seize them by the hind legs and dash their brains out against a wall. A single Indian, armed with a bowie-knife, attacks and kills, in the trunk of a large maple, a grizzly bear weighing nearly 2,000 pounds. Bears of this kind, we are told, contrary to the well-known fact, "clamber large trees as nimbly as squirrels." Bear stories occupy several chapters, and the book concludes with bison-hunting and chapters descriptive of the habits, customs, and virtues of the Western Indians, all of which abound in displays of ignorance of the country, its inhabitants and animals.

The illustrations are good for a book on hunting, if not appropriate to this one. Wild turkeys are represented as being *chased* by pointers, which look like Newfoundlands, over a plain bordered by palm-trees; a fox heads the chapter on raccoons; the wild-cat is represented as having a tail as long and nearly as large as its body, whereas it is about as nearly tailless as any animal of our forests; the picture of the "stag" is evidently a copy of that of Doré's in Baron Munchausen, which has a cherry-tree growing out of his head; a very fair representation of the moose stands for the elk, which is an entirely different animal; the caribeo and bison are evidently creatures of the artist's imagination; and for the Western antelope he has given us the picture of some South African animal with a hump on his back. The style of the narrative is agreeable and interesting, the stories generally well told, and as a sample of what may be written on subjects to which the author naturally and by experience is utterly incapable of doing any justice, we would recommend the book to our readers.

Elementary History of Art: an Introduction to Ancient and Modern Architecture, Sculpture, Painting, Music. By N. D'Anvers. With a Preface by T. Roger Smith, F.R.I.B.A. Illustrated with one hundred and twenty woodcuts. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Armstrong. 1875. Crown 8vo, pp. xxiv.-646.)—The attempt to produce concise universal histories of art should be given up. Architecture, sculpture, and painting are, next to literature, the chief records of civilization. For long tracts of time, and for numerous races, their monuments are more important than those of literature itself. They cannot be properly treated except in connection with the history of the society to whose character and emotions they gave expression, or whose deeds they recorded. A brief account of the progress of the arts might indeed be given by a thorough and thoughtful historian, capable of discriminating their essential qualities, and acquainted with the steps of their development and their decline. Such a manual, filled out with tables of comparative chronology and with lists of artists, is a book much to be desired. Stendhal's 'Histoire de la Peinture en Italie,' fragmentary and imperfect as it is, is worth more than a whole armful of common guides and handbooks of Italian art. It was the work of a man of superior quality, who knew the history of Italy and the nature of her people.

Such an 'Elementary History' as that of M. D'Anvers is good for nobody. It can only supply the ignorant with a mass of ill-assorted facts, and enable them to smatter about what it does not help them to understand. A book of the sort might have a certain secondary value if its statements were carefully made, its definitions exactly considered, and its characterizations sharply marked. In each of these respects this volume is defective. One example of each of these faults is all we have space for. They may be taken as specimens of the mass. On page 236 we are told that "Giovanni Pisano introduced a new style in sculpture, which may be characterized as realistic; the first employment of it was in the sculptures of the west front of Orvieto cathedral, on which all the chief artists of Tuscany were employed." Now, the facts are that Giovanni Pisano, far from introducing a new style of realistic sculpture, developed in a romantic spirit the more realistic style of his father Niccolò; and that, as to the artists employed on the sculptures of the front of the cathedral at Orvieto, nothing whatsoever is known, or, as Luzi, the historian of the cathedral, says: "It hardly seems credible that the documents are silent concerning the sculptor or sculptors who wrought them." So much for careful statement. On page 293 is the following definition of painting: "Painting is the art of representing on a flat surface, by means of line and color, objects as they appear in nature—that is to say, in such a manner that the picture produced shall within certain limits affect the eye in the same way as do the objects themselves." It would be hard to crowd a greater number of errors into a definition, or to miss more completely the essential significance of the word defined. Of Sandro Botticelli —misnamed by M. D'Anvers Botticello—we have on page 344 the following account: "The pupil of Filippo Lippi, famed for the introduction of ancient mythology into sacred subjects, and for being the first of the great series of painters in the famous Sistine Chapel of the Vatican, three of whose works are in the National Gallery." And this is all that is said of a painter of the highest gifts of imagination and fancy, of deep solemnity of purpose, abundant in conception, and intense in completion—one of the most consummate artists of Italy.

A minor defect of the book, as regards general use, is that it is calculated for the meridian of London. The references to works in the National Gallery and the British Museum occupy a disproportionate space.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 2, 1874.

THE money market remains easy at 2 to 3 per cent. on call, and money-lenders have had great difficulty in using their surplus funds, even at the low rates prevailing. Money on time has been offered for thirty days at 3 per cent. during the past week, and at 4 per cent. for sixty days. Commercial paper finds ready sale at 5 to 6 per cent., and the demand for prime names exceeds the supply. There are no signs of any increased demand for money. Business of all kinds remains dull, and business men are not inclined, during the present uncertain state of affairs, to take large ventures. Stagnation prevails at the Stock Exchange, and the amount of money required there to carry the different securities dealt in is very much less than it was before the panic of last year, owing to the shrinkage in values which has been going on in those stocks of a purely speculative nature.

Cable advices report a loss of £115,000 in the bullion of the Bank of England for the week ending on Thursday last. The minimum rate of discount remains standing at 4 per cent.

The weekly statement of the New York Clearing-house banks on Saturday showed a further falling-off in the surplus reserve, amounting to $660,275. The surplus reserve is $15,179,525 over the amount required by law, and is not likely to fall much below that figure. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Oct. 24.	Oct. 31.	Differences.	
Loans	$281,873,500	$281,958,500	Inc..	$85,000
Specie	13,585,200	12,021,100	Dec..	1,564,100
Legal tenders	58,830,800	59,621,600	Inc..	790,800
Deposits	226 304,800	225,852,700	Dec..	452,100
Circulation	25,013,500	25,057,500	Inc..	44,000

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Oct. 24.	Oct. 31.	Differences.	
Specie	$13,585.200	$12,021,100	Dec..	$1,564,100
Legal tenders	58,830,800	59,621,600	Inc....	790,800
Total reserve	$72,416.000	$71,642,700	Dec..	$773,300
Reserve required against deposits	56,576,200	56 463,175		
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't	15,839,800	15,179,525	Dec..	660,275

The stock market has been devoid of interest, if we except a movement to advance the price of Lake Shore, which so far has amounted to very little. The market, with the exception of Lake Shore, is singularly free from combinations either to advance or depress prices. Parties who have undertaken to move stocks up have met with little encouragement from operators on the Street or from outside people. The dividend-paying stocks have all been strong, and prices at the close of the week show a considerable improvement over those at the close of the week previous, the improvement being greatest in New York Central and Rock Island. Delaware, Lackawanna and Western and New Jersey Central are both strong, with a constant demand and a limited amount of stock offering.

The following shows the extremes of the leading stocks during the week:

	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest	Lowest
New York Central	102⅜	100⅝	Illinois Central	92¼	91½
Harlem	130	128⅝	Union Pacific	34½	33¾
Erie	30⅛	27¾	C., C. and I. C.	10⅜	8¾
Lake Shore	80⅝	79⅜	Hannibal and St. Joseph	24⅝	23⅞
Wabash	30¾	29	Hannibal and St. Joseph preferred	28¾	28¾
Northwestern	37⅞	36¼	Ohio and Mississippi	28¼	27⅜
Northwestern preferred	53⅜	52	Boston, Hartford and Erie	⅝	⅝
Rock Island	98¼	96⅜	Panama	114¼	113¼
St. Paul	33	31⅞	Western Union Telegraph	80¾	78⅞
St. Paul preferred	50⅜	50	Pacific Mail	46⅜	44⅜
Pittsburg	87⅝	87⅛	Quicksilver	30¾	30
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western	108⅛	107¼	Quicksilver preferred	37¼	37
New Jersey Central	106⅛	104⅛	Adams Express	116	113
Michigan Central	74	73½	Atlantic & Pacific Telegraph	19	15¾

Government securities have been steady, prices having undergone no important changes since last week.

The gold market has been more active than usual, and a trifling advance has taken place in the quotations, caused by the demand for cash gold, which on Wednesday loaned as high as ⅛ for its use. The market closed strong on Saturday at 110⅛. The following shows the range of fluctuations for every day during the past week:

	Opening.	Highest.	Lowest.	Closing.
Monday, Oct. 26	110	110	110	110
Tuesday, Oct. 27	110	110	110	110
Wednesday, Oct. 28	110	110¼	110	110¼
Thursday, Oct. 29	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛
Friday, Oct. 30	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛
Saturday, Oct. 31	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛	110⅛

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 12, 1874.

The Week.

THERE may be people outside office-holding circles who are dissatisfied with the result of the elections, but we confess that thus far we have been unable to see or hear of them. As far as our observation goes, everybody rejoices over the result, and believes it will do good. The nearest approach we have perceived to any sign of regret about it on the part of Republicans is a broad but silent grin. Tilden's majority in this State reaches, it appears, the highest estimate—50,000, which makes clearer than ever the mistake of not having got Mr. Conkling to stump the State. Five speeches at 10,000 votes a speech would have turned the tide, and given Dix the victory won by Tilden. Ten speeches at 5,000 votes a speech would have produced the same result; and so on. How glad Mr. Boutwell must feel at having got under cover before this gale began to blow! If it had caught him "moving the crops," or "easing the market," how it would have rolled him over, mangled him, and scattered his "reserve"! How sorry he must feel for poor Dawes and dear old Ben. Butler, who helped him into the Senate! The great drawback on what has happened—many will say the only one—is the defeat of General Dix, who was the best governor the State has had for many a day, but who unfortunately was overwhelmed by other people's sins. It would be in good taste, to say the least, for the Democratic chiefs, even in their wildest rejoicing, to speak of him more respectfully. There is one sobering question, however, suggested by the elections, and that is, whether the election of a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives and the defeat of Butler does not constitute a violation of the Enforcement Act—or, in other words, a conspiracy to deprive the colored voter of "the equal protection of the laws"? It certainly looks very like it. The "ruling sentiment" in a majority of the Northern States may now be fairly considered likely to discourage the black man from voting the Republican ticket. Does not this call for Mr. Williams's interference? Ought he not to send troops into Massachusetts? If, as some of the Washington jurists seemed to think lately, Judge Ballard of Kentucky might be impeached, if not indicted, for charging the grand jury that the Ku-klux Act was in part unconstitutional, it certainly seems as if a few thousand warrants might be properly executed, say, in the Essex District.

There are, indeed, besides Dix's defeat, some other matters for serious regret. The election of a Democratic legislature in Missouri probably loses Mr. Schurz his seat in the Senate, which will be a great misfortune both for Missouri and for the nation. Few things the Democrats could do to inspire confidence in themselves and in their policy, and make the way easy for them in 1876, would be more effective than sending him back again. The sacrifice would be small, the gain great. The defeat of Mr. W. W. Phelps in New Jersey, though by only five votes, is a very great loss to the country. Nobody in the House had promised or accomplished more in the time than he did last year. He owes his defeat to his plucky and self-respecting course in voting against the Civil-Rights Bill, which gave the 600 negro votes in his county to the Democratic candidate, threw Mr. Phelps out, and left the Civil-Rights Bill in a worse position than ever. Among the more conspicuous compensations for these misfortunes are the election of Mr. Payne, a hard-money Democrat of high character and attainments, in Ohio; of Professor Seelye in Massachusetts, perhaps the most remarkable and encouraging incident in the struggle; of Mr. A. S. Hewitt in this city; of General Kershaw in South Carolina; and the defeat of Butler, Ayer, Gooch, and Williams in Massachusetts, the imperilling of Senators Chandler and Carpenter, and the overthrow of Senators Morton, Logan, Tipton, Gilbert, and Brownlow. Nor must we fail to congratulate the Philadelphians on having taken the first step to rid themselves of their "Ring" by defeating Col. Wm. B. Mann, the present District-Attorney. For upwards of twenty years, with a short interval, this unscrupulous character has occupied the office as subordinate and as chief, and he has used it as Barnard and Cardozo used theirs, for the protection of the criminal classes and of their political leaders in the city government. It seemed almost hopeless to attempt to dislodge him, and in fact he was beaten by only about a thousand votes; but he now retires to the rear along with Tweed and Butler, and the reformers begin to take heart again.

Butler's defeat has of course caused great rejoicing, not in Massachusetts only, but among decent men everywhere, and has led to much reflection on the career of that person. The *Evening Post* of this city instituted the other day a not inapt comparison between him and James Fisk, jr., showing the striking resemblance of their characters and achievements; but it did injustice to Fisk. Fisk attained eminence by his own unaided exertions, and by manful war with society, while Butler became the nuisance that he was down to Tuesday week by the strenuous and long-continued support of the Republican party of Massachusetts. It is perhaps ungenerous to refer to this fact at this moment, but it is only by keeping it in mind that any useful lesson can be extracted from Butler's history. The Republican party found him a middle-aged, disreputable, pro-slavery criminal lawyer. Upon his offering to join the winning side, they put a suit of uniform on him, and tried to pass him off on the Government as a "general," and rejoiced over his administration of New Orleans as if there was not a single honest gentleman in the United States army who could have been trusted to hold a conquered city with a stern hand, under the guns of a powerful fleet and in command of a large garrison. After four years of ridiculous masquerading as a soldier he came home, and they then dressed him up in black broadcloth, and gave out that he was a "statesman," and sent him to Washington as an important aid in Reconstructive legislation, where he almost immediately made himself conspicuous as the champion of a scheme for defrauding the public creditor. He then turned philanthropist, and there was nothing more ludicrous during the seven years following the war than to see him weeping with the Massachusetts Radicals over the wrongs of the colored man. Latterly, too, in order to connect his philanthropic with his military career, and account for his late-born affection for the colored man, he got up a story of his having been so moved in some hard-fought field, of which he concealed the name, by seeing a considerable number of dead colored soldiers lying within a certain superficial area, that he swore some oath, which he says he considers binding, that he would stand by the colored man through weal and woe; and, finding that this story was rather effective, he gradually increased the number of bodies, and diminished the size of the piece of ground on which they lay, until this year he had them piled up very high. The man's whole career has been, in short, disgraceful to American civilization.

In Massachusetts the State Legislature and the Governor's Council turn out to be Republican, and so we have the State remaining Republican but at the same time giving its favorite party a terrible blow in the face by voting a Democrat into the most conspicuous local office, to say nothing about the Congressional districts—a result rather noticeable as indicating the moral character of the "tidal wave." In Louisiana the process is now going on which we took the liberty of predicting a week or two since. Kellogg and his friends are considering the amount of fraud they can safely commit to give the State to the Republicans. The Conservatives claim an entire success, and the majority of the legislature on a joint ballot, and the Committee of Seventy have addressed a petition to the

President requesting him to withdraw the troops; pointing out that the Returning Board is to meet on the 11th for the purpose of canvassing and compiling the votes; that it will assemble in the State-house; and that it seems extremely improper that the "important civil work with which that board is charged should be executed in the midst of the bayonets of the Federal Government." The President, however, declines to withdraw the troops, on the ground that there is no sufficient evidence that the peace will be preserved in their absence, and perhaps also thinking the maxim cited by the committee—*inter arma silent leges*—is intended as an insult. He is very sensitive on such points as these. In Pennsylvania the Democrats have carried the State, and gained some twelve Congressmen. In South Carolina the Reformers have been defeated, Chamberlain carrying the State by about 5,500 majority. Scott's majority in 1870 was over 33,000, so that it does not seem as if Chamberlain had made a very good run.

In Alabama the Conservatives have carried the State by a majority of nearly 16,000. In 1872, the majority of the Republican candidate for Governor was 8,497, and Grant's was 10,828. This result was generally expected, and as the Republicans in the State did everything that was possible in the way of concession, by deprecating in their platform the Civil-Rights Bill agitation, the election is more likely than not to close for ever, so far as Alabama is concerned, the career of the Republican organization. Kansas is still numbered among the faithful States, the Republican majority being from ten to fifteen thousand. New Jersey, by going Democratic, seems to have got at least a very good governor. Last week we fell into the arithmetical error of making the number of votes which have changed sides in New York since 1872 twice too large. In Massachusetts there is no doubt that both Butler's and Ayer's defeat was effected by the defection not only of many Republican voters, but even of Republican leaders, and General Grant now probably understands better than he did a year ago how much meaning there may be in a very few words from men like Messrs. Gray and Forbes of Boston. A glance at a few Massachusetts statistics, given in round numbers, shows how independent was the voting in that State. The legislature stands nearly two to one Republican, and all the Republican State officers are elected, except the Governor; while, for Governor, Gaston has a majority of 7,000 over Talbot. In the two Boston districts, the Republican candidates for Congress had an aggregate majority of 3,200, while Gaston, for Governor, had 6,300 majority. In the Sixth district, Butler is 1,000 behind Thompson, while Talbot is 2,200 ahead of Gaston; and Essex County, from which the Sixth district is taken, sends to the legislature 28 Republicans and 2 Democrats. In the First district (Cape Cod and the Old Colony), Buffinton has 4,400 majority for Congress, while Talbot has only 900 majority. In the Second district, Peirce (Republican) has 3,000 majority for Congress, while Gaston has 3,000 majority for Governor. In the Fifth district, Banks has 6,000 majority, while Gaston has about 900 majority. The old town of Concord, in which the Democratic party is small, gave Tarbox (Democrat) 289 to Ayer (Republican) 13; and Amherst gave Seelye 452 and Stevens (Regular Republican) 62. The Tenth district votes—Seelye 7,804, Stevens (Regular Republican) 7,264, and Hill (Democrat) 2,782, while for Governor it gives Gaston (Democrat) a majority of 400.

The *World*, in discussing the results of the election, sets down as follows the facts of which the practical Democratic politician will have to take notice as the "metes and bounds" of the victory. The President retains his veto power, and the Senate remains Republican certainly till March, 1877. No strictly Democratic legislation can be carried through till after that date. Secondly, until the th of March, 1875, when the Forty-third Congress ceases to exist, the Republican majority remains intact, and with the President may do whatever it pleases. This fact is the explanation, no doubt, of the startling despatch recently sent over the wires to the effect that the Republican leaders' plan of a winter's campaign was, first, the passage of a stringent civil-rights bill; and, second, the adoption of a rigid and inflexible reform of the civil service, which will maintain the Republican subordinates in office for life. This joke, if it is a joke—for we confess to being often unable to discriminate between the serious and the comic in political matters—serves to show what the Republicans might do; what they will actually do is another matter. From this prolongation of complete Republican power, and this further perpetuation for two years of a Republican veto on Democratic power, the *World* deduces the inference that it is extremely unlikely that the Democratic victory will be abused; that "affirmative legislation tending to fiscal reform" will not probably be reached till 1877; that no great changes in the tariff need be looked for, nor contraction; but that we may fairly expect usurpation and misrule at the South to be stopped, and that the short session this winter is likely to be dangerous in two ways—first, from jobs and corruption; second, from legislation in the direction of internal improvements and inflation, contrived by the Republican politicians for the purpose of helping them defeat the Democrats in the election of 1876. We may observe, by the way, that the new Congress does not meet till next December, the act of January 22, 1867, providing for a meeting on the 4th of March, having been repealed. The effect of the elections on the next Congress is to give the Democrats a very large majority, now estimated all the way from 35 to 75.

During the past campaign the Republicans made a great deal of what they described as something very like a Ku-klux outrage perpetrated by Judge Ballard in the United States Circuit Court in Kentucky. This outrage consisted in the charge to a grand jury, directing them in what cases they might find indictments against intimidators of the negro, and in what cases they might not, and this was represented an outrageous act for any United States judge to commit, especially when he had not been asked to say anything on the subject, but directed the grand jury of his own motion. This, like a good deal of current Attorney-General's law, was incorrect; but it is amusing to find that even the facts on which the denunciation of Judge Ballard was founded were wrong also. We have a copy of his charge before us, from which it appears that the jury addressed a series of questions to him with regard to Ku-klux, which he was obliged to answer. For answering them as any respectable judge would, according to his view of the law, he was for several weeks held up to public execration as a malefactor and a "rebel," and possibly a Ku-klux disguised in judicial robes.

The case of Mr. Isaac H. Bailey, one of the defeated Republican candidates for Congress from this city, deserves a word of mention. Mr. Bailey is a respectable merchant, and in many ways a useful man, but rather fond of being "inside politics," and proud of being hand-and-glove with the Custom-house managers. Moreover, having a considerable flow of Custom-house English, he sent occasional letters to a Portland paper, giving an account of what was going on in New York. One of these, written in February of this year in the middle of the moiety discussion, proved his political ruin; for in it he stoutly defended the moiety-men and informers, severely castigated under a thin disguise the *Tribune* as a "savagely virtuous liberal organ," and the *Nation* as a "neutral hebdomadal" "with whom dyspepsia was a synonym for virtue," for having assailed the moiety system, and he then brazenly insinuated that the Dodges, who had just paid a large sum to the Custom-house, must "have had very cogent reasons for declining to meet the issue before the Secretary of the Treasury." The *Tribune* dug the letter out somehow a few days before the election and republished it, and of course, in the present condition of public opinion about the moiety-men, it promised to prove fatal to Mr. Bailey at the polls. To avert his doom, he then was craven enough to allow Mr. Jackson S. Schultz to come forward in the *Evening Post* and declare that, after having written this letter, in which he abused the newspapers so roundly for their ignorance and falsehood about the Custom-house, he had made further enquiries, and found out that his Custom-house pro-

tégés were really bad men, and that he was mistaken about them, and that then he had worked hard for the reform. This was, however, too thin to save him. He ran heavily behind his ticket, people naturally concluding that an active business man or newspaper correspondent who did not in February, 1874, know that there was anything wrong about Jayne and the other moiety-men, and thought Mr. William E. Dodge and his partners capable of petty fraud, was too simple-minded to be sent to Congress in these days. He ought to have presumed that a system was bad and liable to abuse under which a penalty of millions could be levied for a fraud of five dollars, and which placed merchants like Mr. Dodge at the mercy of any of their clerks who chose to steal or falsify their papers, and enabled scamps like Jayne to make in five years as detectives a fortune such as not one honest person in a hundred thousand can make by a lifetime of honest industry in trade or manufacture, law or medicine or teaching; and this presumption ought to have put him on the enquiry before he took the subject up in his Portland letter.

The fate of the Constitutional Amendments in this State is still in a little doubt, but the general belief is that they have been all adopted. The legality of the mode of their submission is, however, unfortunately still open to question, and is now before the Supreme Court—the point being whether alterations made by either of the two legislatures which have to approve of amendments before their submission to the popular vote, work a failure in the process prescribed by the existing constitution. Let us hope not; because it cannot be borne in mind too rigidly that if it be established that trifling changes by the legislature can make an amendment unsubmittable, the class of men who now make laws at Albany are not likely ever to allow any change to be made which promises to remove abuses in which they have an interest. We commented a fortnight ago on the dead silence observed about the pending amendments by the conventions of both parties. The Tammany politicians in this city did not, however, confine themselves to silence; they issued ballots on which nine of the twelve amendments were cancelled. They allowed nothing to stand except the section prohibiting private legislation, and otherwise reforming legislative procedure—a very important one certainly; that dealing with the canals and the sinking fund; and that fixing the time at which adopted amendments take effect. They cancelled the provisions framed against bribery; those redistricting the State; those increasing the Governor's and Lieutenant-Governor's terms and increasing their salaries; those relating to corporations, local liabilities, and appropriations, State appropriations, salaries of State officials, the oath of office, and the punishment of official corruption. The most noteworthy thing in this too is that these ballots were prepared and served out, and they were the only ones emanating from this quarter, without one word of public discussion. In fact, no such barefacedly blind voting was ever exacted of "the people," even in France.

The elections in France, which occur every now and then to fill vacancies in the Assembly, continue to turn slightly in favor of the Republicans. There has been one stand-up fight between the Bonapartists, in Corsica, where Prince Napoleon, as the representative of the Bonapartist democracy, contested the district for a place in the Council-General with Prince Charles Bonaparte (we presume of the Italian branch) as the representative of the Prince Imperial, who sent out his secretary to take part in the canvass and make the people acquainted with his "pensées." Prince Charles carried the day, but the contest had many of the features of a family quarrel. The most noticeable thing in French politics, however, is the increasing tendency to triviality. The Government has kept a man-of-war at Civita Vecchia since 1870, with the view of affording the Pope a refuge in case the dry land was made too hot for him. The keeping of the ship there since Italy passed wholly into the hands of the Italians has of course been an impertinence as far as the Italian Government was concerned, and a mere empty compliment to the Pope, and Marshal MacMahon did a very sensible thing the other day in withdrawing it. Thereupon the French public was thrown into a state of great excitement, and a discussion raged over it for several weeks as the "Orénoque incident," in which the weaknesses of all the French political parties came out pretty clearly. The Republicans were torn by conflicting emotions in the matter, because, while they were glad to have the old relations with the Papacy broken up, they did not like to have France retreat from a position which had a pleasant look of defiance to somebody; and the Legitimists were furious that the Holy Father should have been left without French protection. All parties have, however, been quieted by the assurance that he can have any number of frigates sent him from Toulon whenever he wants to leave Italy. The Spanish note is undergoing rigorous examination, and its charges are to be met seriatim, but there is talk of the removal of two of the prefects on the frontier who are accused of Carlist sympathies. The direct taxes for the past year have exceeded the estimates, but the indirect have fallen short—a sign not unhealthy, as it probably means increase of economy, without any diminution in ability to bear burdens.

The elections to the Italian Parliament occurred on Tuesday last, and the Ministry went to the country, if the small electoral body in Italy can fairly claim that name, under the most favorable auspices. It recently received an important accession of strength in the appointment of Signor Bonghi, of Milan, as Minister of Public Instruction. The news of the result comes in slowly by telegraph, but the ministers are reported all elected, and two hundred and thirteen Moderate and eighty Opposition deputies. A second ballot is however necessary in two hundred districts, under the very inconvenient rule, which the Italians have borrowed from the French, making a majority of all votes cast necessary to a choice. Everything looks serene enough in Italian politics except the deficit in the revenue, which is not a trifling matter, and the condition of the southern provinces and Sicily, in which organized brigandage and assassinations have brought society to the verge of dissolution. The most curious difficulty of this latter problem is, that while all competent observers admit that capital punishment inflicted remorselessly and surely on notorious and confirmed murderers is essential to real reform, such is the horror of the Italian public for judicial executions that the Government does not dare to inflict the penalty, and the jails are full of jolly robbers and assassins, who have killed from one to twenty persons. Great tenderness for the lives of criminals is, however, a by no means infrequent accompaniment of great disregard of the lives of decent people; indeed, they might almost be said to go generally together. The opponents of capital punishment for murder seem to forget that their system was tried very fully by the barbarians who overthrew the Roman Empire, who allowed a man to "settle" for a murder by a fixed pecuniary payment. For the effect of this in softening manners and inspiring respect for human life, see Gregory of Tours.

Germany is still occupied with the Arnim difficulty, on which there is, however, no new light, nor will there be any probably until after the trial in court. The Ultramontane and foreign press is greatly scandalized that a man of Count Arnim's official and social rank should be treated with this extreme harshness, and thrust into jail like a felon, even if he has been guilty of a violation of official duty; to which the Government papers reply that it has been the Prussian practice for a century to punish breaches of discipline even more severely among the highest class of officials than among any of the others, and to let none escape. In other words, there is no favor shown to German Schencks, Richardsons, Shepherds, Caseys, and the like. When they are accused of gross offences, they are not treated as comrades "under fire," and either kept in office in defiance of decency or furnished with other snug berths when forced to retire. The "effete despot" at Berlin is, in other words, a true republican.

THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

THE Democrats have achieved a great victory. This must be admitted; but it must also be admitted that it is in no way due to themselves. The Republican party has been overthrown because it was bad and corrupt, and not because there stood ready to take its place another organization possessing superior claims to public confidence. This has to be remembered by everybody who wishes to judge the political situation aright, and by none more carefully than by the Democrats themselves. We are glad to see that most of their leading men do seem to bear this in mind, and do seem fully conscious that the party has still to make a reputation in order to get the government of the country entirely into its hands. Their speeches at the rejoicing at the Manhattan Club the other night were, for the most part, sober and thoughtful, and recognized the share which patriotic Republicans had in giving them the recent triumph and must have in giving them a new lease of power. They will have in December, 1875, a majority in the House of Representatives. This, as one of the speakers at the Manhattan Club remarked, will give them the control of the appropriations, and give them unlimited power of investigation; but it will not give them the complete power of legislation. The public will therefore have to judge them rather by what they attempt than by what they achieve—that is, by their speeches, and resolutions, and reports, rather than by the acts they pass, for the acts must have the concurrence of the President and Senate. If the speeches are wild and violent, full of reactionary threats with regard to the South and dishonest threats with regard to the currency and the public creditor; if the resolutions are visionary or alarming, and the investigations are factious or malignant or frivolous, or the voting on the appropriations shows a tendency to disorder or extravagance, the Republican party will be once more vigorous and united in 1876, and all hope of a Democratic restoration is at an end.

If, on the contrary, the majority in the House shows itself well-disciplined and self-restrained; if it brings its ablest men to the front and allows them to speak for it; if its talk and action are sober and reassuring and conservative and sound touching the finances and the South and the proper limits of Federal authority, it is hard to see what is to prevent the party from seating its candidate in the White House at the next election. For it must not be forgotten that the Republican party has for the present lost its chance of recovery. There is now no time left for repentance. "Reform within the party lines" is no longer possible, because it cannot be carried out in one session by a discredited majority in a moribund Congress. Nearly all the Republican chiefs will stand before the country this winter in the position of convicted culprits, whose efforts to amend will only excite contempt and amusement. If the party is to be reinstated in popular confidence any time within five or ten years, it must be through the instrumentality of Democratic follies and shortcomings.

Now, in judging the Democrats, we are willing to make all possible allowances for them, but we trust that men like Messrs. Tilden and Thurman and Bayard see what and how great these allowances have to be, and how heavy is the task before them. For instance, we do not think it quite fair to condemn them irretrievably for what passes in the Democratic ranks in this city, as the Republican press usually does. Undoubtedly, the alliance of its chiefs with men like Morrissey and O'Brien, and the appearance of men like "Jimmy" Hayes on its tickets, are great scandals; but they are inevitable scandals as long as the voting population of New York remains what it is. John Kelly had to take Hayes in order to prevent his whole organization from going to pieces, and probably took him after getting rid of half-a-dozen others just as bad. Any party which gets the vote of this city must do these things. Our esteemed friends, Murphy, Bliss, and Davenport, would do exactly these things if they could gain anything by them. In fact, they had all but agreed to nominate "Jimmy" O'Brien for the mayoralty in 1872, and the difference between O'Brien and Hayes is one not visible to human eye. "The people" in New York, in short, is largely led by criminals and roughs, and any political party to which it gives its support must give the criminals and roughs a share of the patronage. We are not defending this. We are merely showing that the Democratic party is no worse in this respect than the Republican. Probably no men are more amused by the indignation of Republican moralists over Democratic laxity in this city than Murphy and Bliss.

But then, when Mr. Tilden or any one else pretends that the Democratic party is in possession of a great store of traditions and principles which it will now bring into play and use for our salvation, he makes too heavy a demand on our faith. The fact is that the war has left the Democratic party no better off in this respect than the Republican; indeed, one may say, it has left it worse off. The great Democratic chiefs of bygone days, from Jefferson down, whose names the party orators nowadays are so fond of citing, were the authors and promoters of the very things which are now universally recognized as most dangerous to free government on this continent—(1) the removability at pleasure of the civil servants of the Federal Government, or, in other words, the system which makes the Administration so formidable at elections and makes Mr. Tilden afraid that General Grant may re-elect himself or name his successor; (2) the multiplication of elective State offices, which has degraded the judiciary and converted politics into a trade or mystery which nobody can understand or follow without giving his whole time to it—thus depriving the industrious and self-respecting classes of their legitimate political influence; (3) the loss in the popular mind of the sense of necessary connection between the suffrage and intelligence, and the growth of a belief in the mystic virtue of the ballot by whomsoever cast, which were the most powerful promoters of the experiment of negro suffrage at the South, so much deplored by Mr. Tilden and his friends. It is through these things mainly that the Democratic party has made its influence on the political system of the country felt. They constituted the principal features in its gospel down to the outbreak of the war, and they are now recognized as the principal causes of existing difficulties. In which of its archives or traditions the Democratic party can find an antidote for them, it would be hard to say.

There were two other articles, nevertheless, in the Democratic creed, the value of which time has clearly proved—free-trade and hard-money. These, however, the party has of late years thrown into the background or repudiated. About free-trade its platforms and speeches have of late years shown little sign of care or attention, and a large proportion of its members are frantic supporters of paper-money in conjunction with and as part of a scheme for a disgraceful fraud on the public creditor. For this, however, as for some other follies and aberrations, we are not disposed to be very hard upon it. The Republican party is on this point no better, and for both an adequate excuse was furnished by Mr. Tilden when he spoke of the curiously defective political training of the generation which has come on the stage of affairs during the last twenty years. Political education is received and political habits formed in a free country, not in schools or colleges, but in the daily discussions of the press and the platform; and the range of these discussions could hardly have been narrower than it has been since 1854. Most men in the United States under forty-five have practical acquaintance with only two political subjects: the evils of negro slavery, and the relations of the Constitution to negro slavery; and these were presented under circumstances of such tremendous interest, that a great mass of the population came to regard them as almost the only problems of government worth attention, and a man's opinion on them as final tests of his morality and sagacity. The effect of this on the Democratic party has been as marked as its effect on the Republican party. The Democratic "statesman" of the last quarter of a century has been a man who thought we should not concern ourselves about Southern "niggers," and could give various worthy reasons, constitutional, theological, and craniological, why we should not. The Republican statesman, on the other hand, has been a man who burned with interest in "the colored man," and was willing to make any sacrifice for his elevation and protection. Both statesmen have been about equally ignorant or indiffer-

ent with regard to most other matters of national concern. On the Republican side, the result has been the elevation into the rank of political guides and prophets of a large number of persons with comically slender political equipment. In fact, almost anybody who, between 1850 and 1860, made speeches showing that black men ought not to be enslaved, has since 1860 held himself competent to take charge of the Treasury, revise the tariff, draw up a code of laws, command the army or navy, or rule a conquered province. The Democrats have been saved from these displays of folly by their powerlessness; but interest in the higher and more complex questions of government, in commerce, taxation, jurisprudence, the distribution of powers and modes of appointment, prisons, schools, public health, has well-nigh died out among them. No Republican quack has indulged in any piece of folly without finding a Democrat to back him or emulate him, and many of the absurdities hatched in the brains of old anti-slavery agitators have found a ready acceptance in Democratic circles. Does the election which has just occurred indicate that we have reached the end of this perhaps necessary suppression of the higher political intelligence, and that we are now to witness a renewal between parties of the old rivalry in the art of uniting liberty with order and progress? Let us hope that it does.

"THE LIGHT OF SUBSEQUENT EVENTS."

THE Republican papers have since the election furnished excellent reading. We doubt if so much sound and elevated politics and pure morality was ever before found in so small a space. The flood of light that seems to have been let in on them about the President, about Casey, about Butler, about Dawes, and about "outrages," is something very remarkable. One thinks that the friend and companion of "Boss" Shepherd need not have been so careful of his "dignity" as to refuse to repudiate third-term aspirations. Another admits that Casey might very well have been dismissed when he used the United States revenue-cutter to hide members of a State legislature from the sergeant-at-arms. Another declares that he now sees that it was a great mistake to make Mr. Williams Attorney-General, and a greater still to nominate him for the greatest judicial office in the world. Another wishes the Federal patronage of the great State of Massachusetts had not been handed over to Ben Butler. Another still wishes somebody had not lied so consumedly about Southern "outrages." If "our foresight," as Henry Ward Beecher says, "were only equal to our hindsight," what a well-managed world it would be!

It ought not to be forgotten, and we at least owe it to ourselves to recall it, that all the evil tendencies in the Administration and in the party in power which have brought about the recent disasters, were as plain to be seen in 1872 as they are to-day. The grosser faults since committed—the surrender of the Treasury to Richardson; the renomination of "Boss" Shepherd; the delivery of the South to Williams; the shameful treatment of the currency question; and the transfer of the State of Massachusetts to Ben. Butler, all flowed naturally from a state of things which was fully established before Grant's renomination. Vigorous criticism from the party press, and from prominent Republicans throughout the country, might then have checked these evil tendencies and prevented the recent catastrophe, but it was not attempted. In fact, the idea of the friends of the Administration seemed to be that there was no need to enter on a new policy until it became evident that the people would not stand the old one any longer, and they relied on the popular dread of the Democratic party to induce the people to stand it indefinitely. The taunt hurled at those who, at the outset, advocated the Cincinnati movement, was not that the charges they made were not well founded, but that they were mistaken in supposing that the public was troubled by them; and the plan adopted for preventing the public from becoming troubled by them was to make all reforms "inside the party lines," or, in other words, convert the party into a church. The reforms "inside the party lines" afterwards attempted, consisted in the removal of some shocking abuses created by the party itself, which had roused dangerous public indignation. For reform for its own sake none of the chiefs exhibited the slightest inclination. This "church" theory, which Mr. Henry Wilson, who is now telling the reporters that he foresaw all that has happened, defended against us in the *Independent*, has lasted just two years. Mr. Conkling's great Republican majority of 50,000 in this State in 1872 has been converted into a Democratic majority of 50,000. We owe it to ourselves, we repeat, to recall these things, because our reiterated comments on them have brought on us in many quarters the reproach of censoriousness and croaking. One paper—the Baltimore *American*—wonders how we can preach the value of hopefulness in trade and finance when we have been saying so little to encourage it in politics. Our answer is, that in trade and finance people manage their own business in their own way, while in politics they commit it to a professional class, who have the strongest interest in persuading them that things are going well no matter how they are going. Moreover, in trade and finance hopefulness is sobered and kept within reasonable bounds by arithmetic. Every man has in his own experience or in his own account-books the data by which to gauge and test his expectations. Every man knows, too, in his own heart, what the conditions of success are.

In politics, on the other hand, we have created a body of persons who are interested in deceiving us, and who actually make our gullibility the measure of our patriotism. Rational hopefulness, whether in business or politics or war, is based on the assumption that all reasonable precautions to prevent failure have been taken. In politics, we have to assume, before we begin to rub our hands and chuckle, that the best men we can get are in charge of our affairs; that our own experience and that of other nations is used in legislation and administration; that public opinion supports the government under healthy and legitimate influences; just as, in war, we look for victory when the ranks are full, the troops well-fed and well-disciplined and well-handled. What our Washington leaders and their adherents in the press are always trying to spread, and what we are always trying to combat, is the notion that "all will come out right in the end," through some invisible and mysterious and entirely unmerited protection extended to the party in power by Providence. They, in fact, would address an army somewhat in this fashion:

"Soldiers! there are sour and ill-visaged persons among us who try to discourage you by pretending that you ought to be drilled, and have experienced officers, and a good general and commissariat; they make a great parade of fusty military histories and works on what they call strategy, and show you how this general was defeated because his troops were raw, and that one because he allowed himself to be surprised, and the other one because he let his flank be turned. But there is one thing they forget to point out to you, soldiers, and that is, that all these dreadful things which they have to relate occurred in the Old World among the armies of despotic monarchs. Strategy was, in fact, first invented, and so was drill, and so was discipline, by nations which have long since passed into well-deserved decay. Greece and Rome had disciplined armies, as they are called, and great generals, and where are Greece and Rome now? Germany and France and England have them to-day, and where are Germany and France and England going to? Do they mean to tell us that the citizens of a republic need discipline, or that a republican army has to have a flank, or a rear, or any other monarchical contrivance? No, soldiers, our army is all front; and the day will come when our plan of having nothing but a front in the army will spread over the whole earth. In a republic, and on this virgin soil, only one thing is required of a soldier, and that is that his heart should be in the right place. This, believe us, is the great condition of success. Love your neighbor as yourself, and help the poor and lowly, and you may dispense with the costly and vexatious apparatus of sentinels, and outposts, and rear-guards. You may dispense, too, with that cumbrous humbug, a commander-in-chief, with his train of minions called a staff, and that still more nefarious

humbug, the quartermaster-general. We are going to make an art of war of our own, which will be free from the inconveniences and sufferings of the system by which kings carry on their dreadful game, under which the humblest soldier will be able to enjoy his natural rest, and to march and fight at convenient hours and in fine weather, and under which the common-schools will turn out as many generals as we need, and save us from those nurseries of oligarchy, military colleges."

CHARLOTTE CUSHMAN.

IT is announced that Miss Cushman has taken a final leave of the stage, and the ceremonies with which her very successful engagement closed on Saturday evening last were of such a pronounced, not to say imposing, character that, having her consent, they must be regarded as her theatrical apotheosis. Hereafter she takes her place among the eminent histrionic artists whose fame lives in tradition.

Charlotte Cushman has for many years enjoyed the almost solitary distinction of being an actress who, born and bred in America, and attaining here the maturity of her powers and the height of her reputation, took in Europe, and held without dispute, a position not inferior to that which she had attained at home. She is in fact the only histrionic artist of truly American birth and breeding who has acquired European distinction in the higher walks of the drama. And this among other things is remarkable about her: that not only is she American, but she comes from that part of America and from out those people in America to which even we ourselves do not look for the production of histrionic genius. Miss Cushman is a Yankee of the old Puritan stock, and was born not only in Massachusetts but in that city around whose pivotal virtues the universe revolves. It was surely not a little astonishing that a great tragic and melodramatic actress should come out of Boston. Her artistic life began there, although the greater part of it has been passed in that iniquitous atmosphere and under those dissipating influences which cause the true Bostonian to shudder when he thinks of New York. Here, however, she labored, and here she learned; and here she rose gradually to that eminence from which she has stepped with dignity amid the acclamations of a public who delight to do her honor.

Miss Cushman's artistic life has been one of severe discipline and was, in its earlier years, one of sore trial; and among her claims to the respect which is universally awarded her, not the least are steadiness of purpose and patient endurance joined to high and honorable ambition. She has known the bitterness of failure; she more than once suffered the anguish of seeing her hopes not only disappointed but crushed. But although cast down, she was not destroyed; and after the "blanket of the dark" fell upon her youthful aspirations, she gathered her energies together and set herself with unabated purpose and unflagging resolution to the painful toil with which she worked out single-handed her own great triumph. She appeared first as a singer, and a great success was expected for her; but her voice failed, and her operatic career ended almost before it had been well begun. Nothing daunted, she went again upon the stage in the drama pure and simple; and stepping at once into the higher walks of the profession, and making the mistake so common with young and enthusiastic aspirants to histrionic honors, she undertook the leading parts in tragedy before her knowledge of her art fitted her to portray them or her experience of life to understand them. She has just played Lady Macbeth, which is one of the parts in which she has won the world's applause. But more than thirty years ago she played Lady Macbeth at the Bowery Theatre under the management of Thomas Hamblin. She failed—how could she then do otherwise?—and after a brief struggle with parts of like grade she had the rare good sense to see her own deficiencies and to submit herself to the only discipline by which they could be remedied. Taking an engagement as a stock actress at the old Park Theatre, she remained there for years, playing minor parts, walking-ladies, pages—doing, in fact, whatever the manager called upon her to do, earning her bread by steady work and learning the rudiments of her profession. The middle-aged men of the day have seen in their boyhood the great Charlotte Cushman, after her two failures, occupying a place among the undistinguished crowd of satellites that revolved around the great actors of the past generation. But while she worked she also studied, and she was in a good school.

The old Park Theatre, which stood in Park Row just opposite where is now the lower end of the new Post-office, was then the fashionable theatre of the town. Its company was composed almost entirely of thoroughly-trained actors of English birth; and there appeared, as a matter of course, all the great actors who came from Europe in search of American dollars. These she watched, studying carefully their methods and the peculiar powers of each, catching from them those great principles and those minor methods of art the possession of which, except in the case of great original genius, comes only through example and tradition; studying at the same time at home, giving to the rich soil of her natural intelligence all the culture that comes from the constant influences of literature and art; and the result was the accomplished Charlotte Cushman who, with fame and fortune, has just retired from the profession of which for years she has been the acknowledged and honored head.

The part in which she first produced a great impression upon the public was as unlike as possible to that in which, in her salad days, she had hoped to take success by storm. It was Nancy Sykes. It was not in one of Shakspere's tragedies but in a dramatization of Dickens's 'Oliver Twist' that she found that she had not mistaken her vocation, and that she had by natural gifts and painfully-acquired art the power of delighting and thrilling an audience. And although she has done higher things, she has done little better, nothing which those who have been familiar with all her performances will remember more vividly, than her impersonation of that devoted woman, noble in heart, although a lowly castaway, and grand in her humble ruin—the only one of Dickens's creations which has a true touch of tragic pathos. No impersonation more complete, no performance sadder or more terrible, has been seen upon the stage for a generation. Since then she has known little as an actress but prosperity. Success always waits upon the successful, particularly upon those who advance step by step along the path of thorough discipline. She has played, like all actors, many parts, and among them Romeo, her lovely sister Susan playing Juliet—a performance in which the one was so ardently masculine and the other so tenderly feminine as to give Sidney Smith the opportunity of saying that when the engagement was over the least Charlotte could do was to marry her sister. But of later years she has limited the range of her performances, and has confined herself chiefly to three parts, Queen Katherine, Lady Macbeth, and Meg Merrilies, in which she stood confessed without a living rival.

In seeking the elements of Miss Cushman's power, we find them in a rare and highly cultivated intelligence and in thorough training. Without some of the qualifications which are regarded as almost essential to a great actress, she has attained a fame and a popularity greater in degree and higher in quality than has fallen to the lot of any but a few of the most celebrated women who have adorned the stage. This she has done by mental superiority and hard study. A more purely intellectual success than hers was never achieved. She had naturally not even any remarkable powers of voice; her tones were not rich or sweet; and she lacked those delicate inflections which give to feminine speech its grace and tenderness. She struggled with her own voice like Demosthenes with his, and, like Demosthenes, she conquered. In all her great parts there was not a sentence, not a word, hardly a syllable, which she did not school herself to deliver with just the meaning, just the delicate weight and proportion of significance, which she had awarded to it in her careful ponderings. She was one of the very few actresses, actors—yes, one of the very few human beings—who could read a passage of Shakspere and make all who heard her feel that she, and they, knew just what Shakspere meant. And she had withal that first qualification and absolute condition of a great success in anything—a clear and fixed perception of what she meant to do. Her understanding of a character, her purpose in any scene or in any speech, was never left uncertain. Her conceptions were clear and always grand and strongly marked in outline. She will live in the memories of those who have had the good-fortune to see her impersonations, intellectually as well as physically imposing.

We have been led to speak of her as if she were in the past, and for us and for the world at large to-day she is so. May it be long ere we say of Charlotte Cushman, the woman, *vixit;* but even now of Charlotte Cushman, the actress, we must say *fuit*. She is no more to sweep away, a proud and injured queen, from the court where king and cardinals have summoned her to assist at her own deposition; no more to lure Duncan to his death and drive Macbeth to his destruction; no more to stir our hearts as she croons over Harry Bertram's hand, and gives her life in the cause of the boy she bore upon her bosom. She has passed from our eyes, trailing her tragic garments, a grand and memorable figure. As we bid her farewell, we reflect with pride upon her honorable career, and take our place among the multitude that does homage to the artist and the woman.

SPANISH COMPLAINTS AND FRENCH NEUTRALITY.

PARIS, October 23.

THE foreign policy adopted by France since the fatal war of 1870 has been exactly that which was adopted by Russia after the Crimean War: *la Russie se recueille*, said Prince Gortchakoff in a celebrated despatch. But France is not allowed to do quietly what Russia did after her disasters. She would like to shut the door on all external questions, and she cannot

even enjoy in peace the bitter pleasure of isolation and solitude. There is a feeling which pervades the whole German press, and which finds its expression even in the speeches of many of her statesmen, that France has not been humbled enough; she must be fined, mulcted, and punished again. This sentiment of hostility cannot easily find a direct satisfaction; but Prince Bismarck holds in his hands the threads of all European affairs, and when he cannot attack us in front, he can do so in the rear. It is quite certain that in the spring of this year he tried to entangle us in some difficulties with Italy. The Italian Government would not consent to become the instrument of Prince Bismarck's hostile designs. Much has been said about the selfishness and the ingratitude of Italy; it is only just to acknowledge that Italy showed in her dealings with France that she had no desire to inflict new wounds on the nation which helped her to reconquer independence and unity. The Italians are not quite as forgetful as some would have them, and they have hitherto shown themselves much more disposed to make other powers subservient to their own interests than to be sacrificed to the ambition of any foreign potentate. The last pretext for a quarrel with France disappeared when the *Orénoque* was recalled to Toulon; and the Italian Government was very careful that the dignity of the French Government should not suffer in this last circumstance. The Pope, on his side, showed more wisdom and generosity than is often found in the Clerical party; he wrote himself to Marshal MacMahon that he had no need of the *Orénoque*, that he was determined to remain in the Vatican, and that if the presence of a French man-of-war in Italian waters could become the pretext of any complication, he would be happy to see her removed.

All danger, therefore, is averted on the Italian side, but not so on the Spanish frontier. In Spain, Prince Bismarck did not find, as in Italy, a national government, careful of the real interests of the people, but the government of a faction, I might almost say of a man, without any support, any legal character, struggling in vain against a formidable insurrection. Such a government was more manageable, and could not well reject the imperious alliance of a powerful monarchy. King Victor Emanuel is the leader of a united people; Serrano has been thrown into power by a succession of conspiracies and of *coups d'état*. Italy is obliged to husband her resources, so as to establish an equilibrium in her budget; there can be no thought of an equilibrium in Spain, which is completely bankrupt. A penniless government, with a small and discontented army, which has lost all authority in three provinces, was just the instrument which Prince Bismarck could have wished to find. I do not myself think that the German Chancellor has any desire to place a German prince on the throne of Charles V.; he merely wishes to inflict new humiliation on France, by placing her, as it were, at the mercy of the weakest power of Europe. The Carlist war offered him a pretext, which was not ill chosen, as Germany appears in her indirect interference as the champion of the law of nations. I do not hesitate to touch this unpleasant subject, as I am afraid that many minds in America may be deceived by the memorandum which has been placed before our Government by the new Spanish ambassador. The *Alabama* case and the discussions which preceded the Arbitration of Geneva must be still in the minds of all men in the United States, and many may be inclined to believe that Spain has been injured by France in the same manner as the North has been by England. But let us look a little closer into this Spanish question; and you will see that no comparison can be established between the two cases.

First of all, we must make a fundamental distinction between the materials and the elements of war. The American Government never raised any formal objection to the trade in what I call the elements of war—shoes, cloth, coal, powder, etc.; the blockade was specially instituted in order to place as many difficulties as possible in the trade of contraband of war, but no government was ever held responsible for this trade. In the case of the materials of war, the responsibility remains merely personal. The merchant who sends a cargo of guns or of powder runs the risk of losing his ship and his cargo; his government runs no risk whatever. The responsibility of the government begins when the materials of war assume the form of what I call the elements of war; and what are the elements of war? They are very easily defined. Men, clothes, guns, shoes, do not separately constitute an army; the army results from the union and the organization of these materials. If a troop of men is uniformed, and drilled, and placed in such a condition that it becomes fit for warlike purposes, a government which allows this formation on neutral ground is guilty of the grossest violation of the law of nations. Next to the army, or *corps d'armée*, the only other element of war is the ship-of-war; this also is easily defined, as ships-of-war are constructed on particular principles and are very easily recognized. While the *Alabama* was being built and fitted, there could be no doubt as to her real character. I do not hesitate to say that, whatever be its municipal law, any government which allows the construction and fitting-out of a man-of-war in neutral waters destined to help a belligerent power against another, is guilty of a violation of the law of nations. This principle was adopted by the arbitrators at Geneva, but it did not need their approbation; it is as old as the law of nations. In times like ours, when trade has become so free, it is necessary to adopt an exact definition of the elements of war. Trade ought to be left quite free (subject of course to the risks of a blockade), when it is only concerned with the materials of war. The national responsibility should only begin when a neutral power has wantonly allowed the organization of an armed force for land service or the fitting-out of war-ships for naval service.

Let us now examine the case of France with regard to Spain. This last unfortunate country still has many fine colonies and a large commerce. Don Carlos, who has assumed all the prerogative of royalty, is perfectly willing to issue letters-of-marque to be given to privateers which would operate against Spanish ships; and I believe that some of his agents have been trying at Bayonne, at Bordeaux, and at Nantes to procure ships. No Carlist *Alabama*, with the flag of Don Carlos, has yet left the French ports and been seen on the high seas. If we come to land operations, the question becomes a little more involved. The Pyrenees with their many passes form the frontier line between France and the insurgent Carlist provinces. The Spanish Government cannot complain that any large Carlist force has been allowed to organize on French territory; that it has met in arms in a French Department and crossed the frontiers. But M. Vega-Armijo, the Spanish Ambassador, brings a series of small accusations against us: here some powder has been sold to a Carlist agent, and here some guns; here Carlists fleeing before the Republican troops crossed the frontier, and were set free by the French authorities; here some insurgent chief spent a month, and then recrossed the frontier at some other point. It is idle to deny that there is a feeling of good neighborhood between the populations which inhabit all the Basque provinces; this feeling arises partly from a community of race, partly from a community of avocations. On both sides of the mountains, during the long period of protective tariffs, there have been smugglers in very great numbers. Owing to these circumstances, it is quite certain that the Carlists fighting in the northern districts of Spain have found some facilities in the fact that they had the Pyrenees and their intricate valleys as a *place de retraite* and a basis of operations. Bayonne, Pau, Oléron, and Perpignan have been centres to which the Carlist chiefs could retire and make new plans of operations. But it is not true that any large number of arms has been introduced by the land frontier. It is quite certain that, owing to the inefficacy of the blockade, there have been many arms introduced in the ports of the Bay of Biscay by English and even by German ships. The artillery which Don Carlos possesses came from England by sea.

What is the remedy for the dangers which arise for the Spanish Government from the continuation of the Carlist war? The Spanish Ambassador suggests that considerable French military forces—in fact, that a French army—should be concentrated all along our frontier; that all the Carlists who cross the Pyrenees should be disarmed and sent to the northern districts of France. The refugees who come in arms have always been disarmed. The Government has given the strictest orders for the *internement* of all refugees at a good distance from the Pyrenees; the Spanish Government is not satisfied with this, and insists upon the removal of certain French functionaries suspected of having sympathies with the Carlist cause. This is touching very delicate ground. The Spanish Government has chosen for the scapegoat of the rebellion M. de Nadaillac, the Prefect of Pau; if he is not removed, all will go wrong for ever. M. de Nadaillac could be removed to some other post very easily if the Madrilene official press did not ask for it so loudly. Many people begin to suspect that, after all, all these demands of the Serrano Government are mere *querelles d'Allemand;* that, whatever we do, Serrano will never be satisfied. After a long negotiation, in which Prussia took the lead, the Government of Marshal MacMahon—this Government denounced every day in the Berlin papers as the friend of absolutism and clericalism—declared itself quite ready to recognize the *de-facto* Government of Marshal Serrano. A Spanish grandee was sent here for the occasion with so many titles that nobody in the diplomatic world here has yet been able to pronounce his names correctly; he comes with a title of ambassador, not as a mere *chargé d'affaires*. We ourselves send an ambassador to Madrid. The Spanish Ambassador is received by Marshal MacMahon with much pomp and circumstance; and a few weeks after we have given this great advantage to Spain of a formal and solemn recognition of its Government, this very advantage is turned against us; a long indictment is sent in, and we are charged with all sorts of crimes. We owed little or nothing to the Serrano Government before the recognition; now this recognized Serrano treats us with all the pride of an old and traditional government. This conduct cannot be explained merely by the innate haughtiness and the singularity of character of the Spanish race. It is quite true that you can never anticipate what Spaniards

will do; but their conduct in this instance is probably not inspired by merely national considerations.

Time will show if in this affair Serrano will continue to act in a spirit of hostility to the French Government and will throw new difficulties in our way. For the present the duty of the French Government is quite clear: the Duke Decazes must obtain from all his colleagues the most stringent observance of the international laws. Serrano has many a time been plotting quietly in Pau or Bayonne against the established Government of Spain; but if the wife of Don Carlos, who lives quietly at Biarritz, seems dangerous to him now, we will respectfully ask her to choose a more distant residence. We will do with Spain what we did with Italy—remove all our *Orénoques*. France cannot be humbled any more; what is the kick of a Serrano after Sedan and Metz? When we have fulfilled our duties and more than our duties to all governments, we shall wait quietly for the development of the projects of our enemies.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the *Nation* of the 22d inst., under the head of "The Elections," you say, in regard to my letter to the Chattanooga Convention: "Governor Davis is one of the best of the Southern Republicans, and yet he declared that from his knowledge of Moses of South Carolina and of Kellogg of Louisiana, he would not believe any of the charges made against them."

I think that if you will again read what I wrote on that subject, you will find that your usually accurate and dispassionate journal is in error as to the effect of my declaration. I wrote, in reference to the indiscriminate vilification of Southern Republicans by our Democratic press and politicians: "Governor Moses of South Carolina and Governor Kellogg of Louisiana may be corrupt, as those people vociferously assert, but I must, knowing them as I do, take their assertion as inferential proof of the contrary."

The pronoun "them" in this quotation relates to the words "those people" (the Southern Democracy) preceding it in the sentence. I am not acquainted personally with either of those governors, and have no personal knowledge of their respective characters.

I might send you a hundred proofs of the correctness of this part of that Chattanooga letter, in extracts from our Democratic press showing the torrent of bad names they have heaped upon me since its publication. But what they say and how they say it would not furnish pleasant literature either for your readers or yourself.—Very respectfully,

Edm'd J. Davis.

Austin, Texas, October 29, 1854.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your issue of October 29, you have an article on the Force Act, which is so broad in its scope that I dislike to criticise any part of it; but there is in it an unjust allusion to Virginia, which ought not to remain uncorrected. Whilst admitting that in the Southern States the negro is fairly dealt with, even in those States where he is in the minority, you make an exception in these words:

"*In Virginia*, we believe, he is *not fairly* dealt with in the matter of *common schools*."

May I not reasonably ask, Mr. Editor, that, having gone so far, you go further, and give to the public the facts or reasons on which you base a declared belief so seriously reflecting on the fair dealing of this State?

You cannot, in that remark, have referred to our *law*, which makes the same provision for the two races in every particular, and which, whilst requiring them to be taught in separate schools, requires also that the schools for white and colored children shall be "*under the same general regulations as to management, usefulness, and efficiency.*"

If unfairness exists anywhere, it must be in the *administration* of the school system. If I, the chief executive of the system, have been guilty of it, I deserve to be exposed. If any one of our four hundred and fifty local school-boards, or of our ninety-four superintendents, has been guilty of a single act of unfairness to the negro, and you have information thereof, I beg that you will name the offender in your paper, or to me privately, and I will immediately investigate the case; and I guaranty that if the fact be ascertained, the guilty party or parties shall be expelled from office instantly. I do not call upon you to prove anything. I will call for evidence on the trial. I only ask you, or any other responsible party, to name the school-board or the school-officer in Virginia whom you *believe* to have been guilty of unfairness as between the races, and I will do the rest. If you do not like to mention the names of men or of boards, only indicate the locality—the city, county, district, or village—where the unfairness has been perpetrated, and I will follow that clue until the truth is ascertained. Moreover, all the procedings taken, and all the persons and papers in the case, shall be open to the public, and everybody be allowed to examine and cross-examine to his heart's content.

Mr. Editor, if anything of this sort is going on, I do not know it, but I *want* to know it; and for the sake of the negroes, and more particularly for the sake of the *truth*, I again beg that you will help me to ferret out these oppressors; and then we will tell the world all about it.

To some this may seem to be making a great deal of a small matter; but this is the very gist of the argument in favor of the Civil-Rights Bill. The advocates of that destructive measure have pressed their cause chiefly on the ground that the Southern whites do not, and will not, treat the negroes impartially in the matter of education. I know the aspersion to be unjust so far as Virginia is concerned. Our officers may not be free from every fault. Our schools may not be as numerous or as good as might be justly desired; but the schools are in respect to the races as nearly equal in number and privileges as circumstances admit of, and all will confess that what we have are a great deal better *than none*.

W. H. Ruffner,
Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Richmond, Va., Nov. 5.

[We are very glad for various reasons that Mr. Ruffner has thought proper to ask us for our authority for the imputation on the State of Virginia to which he refers, because, whether it be well or ill founded, investigation such as he promises cannot but do good. We are at liberty to say that the charge of unfairness towards the colored people in the matter of education comes from Miss C. F. Putnam, a well-known and much-respected Northern lady, who has been for some years and is now laboring in the most self-sacrificing way as a teacher of a colored school at Lottsburgh, Northumberland County. What she says, in a letter dated July 26, 1874, is this:

"While the State professes to provide schools (separate schools) for black and white children alike, our observation proves that it is not done. The county superintendent and Mr. Claughton, school trustee, exerted themselves greatly to induce our people to give up their school-house for a public school, and pledged their word that the colored children should have equal justice and share the public money with the white children. We were present and heard the promise. Heathsville, the county-seat and residence of the county superintendent, four miles from us, had that same year an appropriation of public money—$500. The number of colored and white children was about the same. The white children received $450 for their schools, and only $50 was used for the colored children. There are four towns in this county. Through our friends, the Bureau had aided to establish two other schools besides ours—that is, in three of the four towns there were schools. The crying want of the fourth town, which had a larger proportion of colored children than the others, had not received one cent for its colored children at the last account I had, while hundreds of dollars (for which the colored men were taxed) were used to maintain the white schools in that town—Wicomico Church. The colored schools are not heartily supported, and are purposely of as little real benefit as possible. All our hundred Lottsburgh colored voters are taxed every year $1 50 each for the support of schools, and pay it. To show how determined the school officers have ever been to break up our schools, let me remind you that all our colored voters but two signed a petition three years ago to have me made the public-school teacher, that they might have the benefit of the school-money for which they were taxed. Their petition was denied solely because ours is a Republican school."

It is but right to add that the above extracts are made from a private letter, addressed by Miss Putnam to a lady in New York, who with others has aided her with money and otherwise in carrying on her work, and was not written with a view to publication, or with any idea of affecting public opinion in any way. It will be seen, too, that our quotations contain little or nothing in the way of inference or vague imputation, but relate to matters of fact which Mr. Ruffner can have no difficulty in examining.—Ed. Nation.]

THE APPROACHING CATASTROPHE AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. J. A. Pearce, of Chestertown, Kent Co., Md., proposed, I regret to see, to deprive himself of the *Nation* after the

nineteenth of this month, when his subscription expires, out of "self-respect," which will not permit him to help to support a journal "which, in cold blood, devotes half the country to destruction." He says, moreover, that he expects little courtesy "from any Northern source." But he seems to have valued your paper, and to think highly of it in other respects than that of its policy respecting the submerging of the South. Now, if the South is to be submerged, it ought to be done soon, and as I wish that Mr. Pearce, should he unfortunately perish in the deluge, should die with more kindly feeling toward the North, I beg, as an act of courtesy to him, to enclose to you a year's subscription to the *Nation*, that he may continue to receive it up to the date of submergence. Should the submersion, as I presume you desire and would endeavor to effect, take place before the meeting of Congress, I request that the unexpended balance of my subscription for Mr. Pearce may be applied for the support of the "sick persons and children" who are to be allowed to flee previous to the anticipated catastrophe.

Your old friend and subscriber,

———

Luxville, Mass., November 6, 1874.

[We had credited Mr. Pearce with the above, and he would accordingly have received the *Nation* for one year longer, or until the submersion, in any case; but we have since received a letter from him, in which he declares himself so well satisfied with our state of mind that he continues his subscription, and waives his right to have any portion of the North laid under water. We had, however, previously determined, owing to the result of the election, to withdraw our offer as regards Essex Co., Mass.—Ed. Nation.]

HOW BUTLER WAS DEFEATED.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Thinking it probable that you will have something further to say concerning the defeat of Butler in this "benighted district," as you recently styled it—not without provocation, I admit—I submit to your consideration the following statement concerning the manner of his "taking off":

Immediately after your endorsement of General Cogswell as a person entitled to the support of anti-Butler Republicans at the Convention, I wrote you the reasons why your advice would not be followed—reasons which evidently commanded your attention, but not your approval. With us, however, they were potent in keeping almost the entire element opposed to Butler away from the caucuses preliminary to the Convention. Indeed, if the Republicans had elected General Cogswell to Congress by way of "reform," they would have made a mistake similar in character and results to that of the Cincinnati Convention. Do you ask, then, why we did not put forward some other candidate? The reply is that the ill-timed support given to Cogswell by respectable papers having a large circulation in the district gave him such a fictitious prominence as a candidate that his "friends" were warranted in urging others, who were thought of as candidates, to content themselves with standing by and holding his coat while he "whipped" the "General." Then, too, such was the terror inspired by Butler's first victory in this district, for which he was indebted to his New Orleans record, that the prominent party-leaders attached themselves to him, and were content to wait for the time when he should drop his official mantle among them. Such men, and General Cogswell was among them, were not looked upon with any degree of toleration by those who have defeated Butler.

Mr. Phillips had consistently opposed Butler, but he was not well known through the district, was not very aggressive, and was kept out of the field by the means I have indicated above. If you add to these reasons a third, almost if not quite as powerful as either, namely, the general unwillingness to take part in caucuses and a convention which Butler was almost certain to control, whether by fair means or foul, you will, I think, have little difficulty in understanding why we decided not to attempt a contest within the party lines. At first we, or many of us, wished to nominate Judge Otis P. Lord as an "independent" candidate, but, not being trained politicians, we were, luckily as I now think, too slow about it.

Those of us who were members of the bar, however, had the utmost confidence in Mr. Thompson from the first, but doubted the possibility of inducing any considerable number of Republicans to vote for a man who bore the Democratic label. And you must admit that we fought at a great disadvantage. Butler's warning to outsiders not to interfere was, after the Convention, regarded in almost every instance, the Boston *Advertiser* being a notable exception. The Democratic victories at the West, with the Louisiana troubles at the South, threatened to neutralize all our efforts. Toward the close of the campaign Butler allowed his rule to be broken in his own favor, and, as you have stated, had here in his behalf, of all men in the world' Henry L. Dawes, who, I am happy to think, is also "numbered with the [politically] slain." So we claim some credit for the victory, and claim it as a victory against "Butlerism"; for even Talbot, who was badly defeated in the State at large, received a majority of more than two thousand in this district.

Charles P. Thompson, the representative-elect, we confidently expect will do something to restore our good name. He is an able lawyer, and has received the support of nearly every member of the bar in the district. He was left to make his own platform by the convention which nominated him, and inserted a "hard-money" plank of the soundest kind. Judged by the *Nation's* standard, he is also sound on the Southern question. But above all, he is *honest* in the broad sense of that word, and it was the general conviction that such was the fact which won for him the Republican votes to which, as he acknowledges, he owes his election. In view of all the circumstances, I hope you will reconsider your determination to select this as the county to be devastated by your "tidal wave." A.

Haverhill, Mass., Nov. 6, 1874.

"SUBSOILING" IN NEW YORK CITY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: Your Boston correspondent reminds us that the common pulpit and platform remedy for political "subsoiling" is, that "the body of voters shall attend primary meetings in person." Let me cite a recent case in this city, and ask if even this remedy is left us here.

Some four weeks ago, and before any of the candidates had been put in nomination, I became suddenly moved with a sense of my dereliction in attending to my political duties, and resolved that this year, for the first time in my life, I *would* attend the primaries in my ward, and lift up my voice in favor of the purity of republican institutions in what I supposed to be their fountain-head. Having during the past few years become weaned from my Republicanism, I turned naturally to the Democratic papers for information, and presently discovered in the New York *World* an advertisement calling upon the Democratic electors of my neighborhood to meet at a certain place on such an evening to select delegates to the nominating conventions soon thereafter to be held. Full of patriotism, I sallied forth on the evening in question, resolved that it should be no fault of mine if the nominations were not good ones this time, and wondering how many of my reputable neighbors would be patriotic enough to leave their homes and business, as I was doing, on such a mission. On the way I actually persuaded one excellent gentleman, a man of means and character, who, like myself, had come almost to despair of the Republic, to accompany me. We expected of course to find a motley crowd, and my friend had half a mind to go home first and change his clothes; but we went on, hoping by the powers of reasoning and persuasion to prevail even over a caucus of pot-house managers.

But arriving at our destination, what did we find? Our Massachusetts friend will probably answer: A noisy, riotous crowd of ragged and idle persons eagerly suggesting such names as Barney and Tim and Jerry, as fellows who would take care of the "b'hoys." But we found nothing of the kind. There was no assembly, no crowd, no caucus, not even so much as a trio of politic-worms! Approaching a low shanty that might have been a shoemaker's shop, we saw over a narrow window a sign, "Democratic Primary." Hard by stood a man dealing out slips of paper, on which were printed a number of names evidently selected long beforehand as delegates, these to the convention to nominate assemblymen, those to the convention to nominate aldermen, and so on, and all of them men as utterly unknown to the taxpayers and reputable citizens of the ward as the man in the moon.

Looking through the window into a dimly-lighted room, we saw a man ready to receive these slips as we should hand them in, and put them into a box resembling a ballot-box. And this was a primary election!

Comment is unnecessary. My friend and I are in despair. We want to know what to do! Doubtless "honest John Kelly" could tell us, but he don't know us. Perhaps our Massachusetts friend can, or will the *Nation*? —Yours truly, A Despondent.

New York, November 2, 1874.

Notes.

THE translation of the Comte de Paris's history of our late civil war has been undertaken by Mr. Tasistro, of Washington, and the first volume will be published in the latter part of December by Porter & Coates, Philadelphia. The same house has in press 'The Stately Homes of England,'

by Llewellynn Jewitt and S. C. Hall; 'Stonehenge's Rural Sports,' first American edition, adapted to the sports of this country; 'The Paths of Life,' a tale by the Princess Alice of England; and 'South Meadows,' by Miss E. T. Disosway, a new writer of fiction.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce 'Schiller's Æsthetical Essays,' and a history of the United States for intermediate schools by a Southerner, Prof. Joseph T. Derry, of Augusta, Georgia.——'A Rebel's Recollections,' by George Cary Eggleston; 'His Two Wives,' by Mrs. Mary Clemmer Ames; and 'Public Health,' by Dr. Elisha Harris, will shortly be published by Hurd & Houghton.——George Routledge & Sons's announcements include 'Days near Rome,' by Augustus J. C. Hare; 'Life in the Outer Hebrides,' by G. Anderson Smith; 'English Portraits,' from Sainte-Beuve's *Lundis*, selected and translated by W. F. Rae; 'The History of Ceramic Art,' by Llewellynn Jewitt; 'River Legends; or, Father Thames and Father Rhine,' by Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen; and 'Man and Beast, Here and Hereafter,' by Rev. J. G. Wood.——Bulletin No. 31 of the Boston Public Library states that the number of persons who consult the British patents in that institution has risen to nearly or quite 1,500 per annum. The specifications now number 2,400 large volumes. Monthly bibliographical notes on the early quarto issues of Shakspere's plays before the first folio of 1623 will be sent by the Superintendent of the Library to persons whose studies lie in the same direction. They are printed for the purpose of testing their accuracy, and will finally appear in the catalogue of the Barton Library.——American students of medicine wishing to obtain an English degree will find in the "Educational Number" of the London *Medical Record* (Sept. 16, 1874) a convenient résumé of the requirements of the principal British schools. Similar and somewhat fuller information is contained in the so-called "students' numbers" of the *Lancet* and the *Medical Times and Gazette* (London) for Sept. 12. Later numbers of these publications give some account of the courses at several German universities, but only for this winter.——The publication of the photographs of the Dresden Gallery is announced. They were taken by the Berlin Photographic Company, and have not hitherto been offered for sale. The first volume, in quarto form, contains 30 photographs, principally from the Italian and Spanish schools, and costs 30 thalers, about $22.——The appearance of a people's edition (Volks-Ausgabe) of the Niebelungenlied, without note, comment, or glossary, furnishes an occasion for *Trübner's Record* to remark that the popularity of this poem dates from "Germany's subjection to the iron rule of Napoleon," and that its patriotic breathings led to the publication, during the campaign of Waterloo, of a "field and tent edition," without a copy of which the German soldier's knapsack was considered incomplete.

—We are accustomed to regard New York as the city *par excellence* in which all foreign elements commingle. Now and again the *Herald* startles us with a German despatch by Cable, and with bi-lingual admonitions to keep off the grass we have long been familiar in our parks. It seems, however, as if we must yield the palm to Chicago in this respect. In the Sunday issue of the *Illinois Staats-Zeitung* just prior to the last election appeared "Ein Wort für Jeden . . . You pays your money and you takes your choice . . . An die fremdgeborenen Wähler aller Nationalitäten." This was followed by appeals in their several tongues to the American, Scandinavian, Swedish, French, German, Hebrew, Italian, Bohemian, Dutch, and Polish voter, in most astonishing polyglot array. Each appeal was distinct, and aptly designed for the nationality addressed—not a mere translation of a set formula. Thus the Franco-American could be told: "Un homme de votre race est candidat pour le Congrès des Etats-Unis. Votez pour J. V. Le Moyne contre C. B. Farwell." The Puritan bugaboo is made much of by the *Staats-Zeitung's* Mezzofanti. He reminds the French that "vous avez combattu le Puritanisme et le Knownothingisme qui voulaient attenter à votre liberté personnelle"; and in like manner the Italians are asked: "E chi volete inviare a Springfield se non uomini che ci proteggano contro le leggi Puritane, partidarie, inique, che ci obbligano ad osservare leggi che la nostra religione non ci impone, che ci obbligano a chiudere i nostri negozi le Domeniche, et chi ci probisce [*sic*] qualunque onesto divertimento in tal giorno?" The Dutch are instructed that a Republican party led by Lincoln and Sumner is a very different party from one in which Mr. C. B. Farwell comes to the surface; and much practical advice, we doubt not, is conveyed in tolerable newspaper Slavic to those whom it concerns. There is a general agreement among politicians that the lesson of the 3d of November is as plain to understand as if behind the ballots there had been no such confusion of speech as Mr. Hesing's clever *tour de force* indicates that there was in his locality.

—The meeting of the Oriental Society held in this city at the end of October was a very successful one, being largely attended and rich in valuable papers. It was particularly noticeable for the leading share taken in it by New York scholars. This is one among many gratifying signs of a marked improvement of late in the scholarly activity of the city, which has been effectively fostered by the Greek Club, the Semitic Club, the Metropolitan Museum, and other similar agencies. One of the most elaborate and interesting of the papers presented was directly drawn out by the Museum. It was a review and criticism of the progress of decipherment of the Cypriote inscriptions, with original additions, by Mr. J. H. Hall. The latest and best German investigator in this field, Moritz Schmidt, laments that he has not in trustworthy form the material from the Di Cesnola collections; this Mr. Hall has undertaken to furnish him. Professor Short of Columbia College, while praising highly Roby's 'Latin Grammar,' thought it weaker in syntax than elsewhere, and criticised and amended certain syntactical points, with full citation of passages from his own collections. Mr. Tyler of the Astor Library called attention to phrases in the Thebaic dialect of Egyptian which have hitherto escaped notice. Dr. Ward exhibited an Assyrian seal-cylinder and gave a brief exposition of it. Mr. Merrill of Andover sent a long and full article on the Assyrian monuments in this country, with detailed information as to their number, character, and value; how they were obtained, where they are deposited, and what they represent and say. It appears that there are fifty-four slabs in thirteen museums in this country—enough to panel a hall seventy feet square. They all come from the reign of Assur-nazir-pal (B.C. 883–859), and contain one and the same inscription, of which a translation was furnished. There are also twenty-two bricks, one of them Babylonian, and all but three bearing inscriptions. The new and attractive subject of Japanese was represented by two papers, one by Professor Griffis, recently returned from a residence of some years in Japan, and one by Mr. Van Name of the Yale College library. Mr. Griffis discussed the recent revolutions in Japan and the causes for them to be found in the modern literature of the country. Mr. Van Name treated of the distinction of noun and verb in the Japanese language, showing that, as in other languages of a low order of structure, it was hardly if at all recognizable. Professor Adler of Ithaca lectured the Society on the importance of Talmudic study to the early history of Christianity, and pointed out references which he thought he had discovered in the Talmud to the Christian sect and its doctrines. Professor Whitney of Yale, returning to a subject already once discussed before the Society, defended the ordinarily-accepted views of Sanskrit accent against the objections brought up by Dr. Haug of Munich in a recent elaborate paper. Professor Haldeman of Philadelphia had a brief note upon the occurrence of certain Semitic sounds in American languages. The closing communication, by Mr. J. Hammond Trumbull of Hartford, was on recent German discussions of the evidence of Phœnician colonization in America, and led to a lively and amusing debate. It appears that Schlottmann, the principal German defender of the authenticity of Shapira's collections (which are generally regarded as spurious by the scholars of other countries), has been giving to the German Oriental Society evidence of the quality of his archæological acumen by accepting as genuine that exploded humbug, the "Cardiff Giant," with its alleged Phœnician inscription, pronouncing it a statue of Adonis! A writer in the last *Archiv für Anthropologie* also does the same; and the editor of the *Archiv* supports him, adding that *if* this monument turns out a cheat, certainly nothing that comes from America can ever ask to be believed hereafter. Much astonishment was expressed by members of the Society at this late and credulous acceptance of a false antique which was completely exposed years ago, and of which the true character is known to all well-informed persons in this country. There happened to be those present who were personally cognizant of the main facts in its history, who had seen it and pronounced it spurious before it was lifted out of the ground, who had seen and talked with the workmen in the Chicago shops where it was produced, who had examined the dim lines asserted to be an inscription, and found them mere chance scratches or water-marks—and so on. If German scholars have been incautious enough to be taken in by so gross a cheat, they have no one but themselves to blame for it. Schlottmann also indicates his willingness to accept the Phœnician inscription found a year ago in Brazil, and which Dr. Ward exposed to the Society last spring as doubtless a forgery.

—Tuesday week was the eightieth birthday of Mr. William Cullen Bryant, our oldest poet if priority of publication in verse may give him precedence over the still more venerable Richard Henry Dana. The occasion was well remembered by his friends. A number of prominent citizens, headed by Mr. Jonathan Sturges, called upon him quite informally at his residence, and presented him with a brief address of congratulation, signed by the poet's admirers in all parts of the country. They stated it to be their intention "to embody in a commemorative vase, of original design and choice workmanship, the lesson of Mr. Bryant's literary and civic career in its relations with our country, whose nature, history, liberty, law, and conscience he had so illustrated"; or, as Mr. Sturges afterwards described it, a vase sculptured with ideas and images from the poems of the recipient of this honor. The

material is to be silver, and the work when completed will be deposited with the Metropolitan Museum of Art as a "permanent treasure." Mr. Bryant responded to Mr. Sturges's remarks in a few words of grateful acknowledgment, and, passing hastily in review the great events of the past fourscore years, singled out the downfall of Bonaparte, the abolition of slavery in America, and the decadence of priestcraft as shown by the restoration of Italian unity; and closed with the hope that the time was coming when standing armies could be safely abolished, and the reign of universal peace begin. On Saturday Mr. Bryant took a prominent part in the ceremonies which followed Miss Cushman's last appearance on the stage, at Booth's Theatre. He delivered the farewell address, presenting the actress, on behalf of the Arcadian Club, with a crown of laurel "as a token both of their profound admiration for her genius and their high esteem for her personal character."

—One of the most remarkable displays in the art section of the Mechanics' Fair at Boston last month consisted of specimens of the heliotype productions of J. R. Osgood & Co. The process to which this name has been applied is substantially the same as the Albert-type—so-called from its inventor, Herr Joseph Albert, the court-photographer of Munich. We doubt if, in its application in this country, it has yet produced anything comparable in an artistic sense to what has been accomplished with it in Herr Albert's atelier; and we say this having in mind some of the earlier specimens only of that consummate artist's work. These were from nature, including a portrait of Albert himself, and while they were not without their shortcomings, they surpassed the best efforts in the same line of all his American imitators. Of Mr. Bierstadt's natural studies we have seen too few to speak positively. Messrs. Osgood's, to judge by their book-illustrations (*e.g.*, in Flagg's 'By-ways of New England' and Higginson's 'Oldport Days'), would be pronounced coarse and uneven and much inferior to the German examples. But their exhibition at the Fair was far stronger on this side than we had anticipated, and we have before us at this writing a heliotype landscape which is hardly distinguishable from a silver print in the quality of its shadows. The only rival work of this sort that we are familiar with has come from Mr. G. G. Rockwood of this city, who styles his a photo-engraving process. He has produced not only some very delicate landscapes, but the best portraits from life that we have seen. In black-and-white work, too, his process and the heliotype seem to be very much on a par, with a range of usefulness that is surprising to one who has never examined the results. A random selection of heliotypes on our table embraces reproductions, which leave nothing to be desired, of line-engravings, lithographs, pen-and-ink drawings (*e.g.*, an architectural elevation, a locomotive, a patent specification, a coast-survey tracing); of autographic work on glass with a needle, like Hoppin's etchings 'On the Nile'; and, in reduced facsimile, of a page of the *Boston Journal*, in the middle of which is a heliotype, from the building itself, of the *Journal* office. So wide is this range that it is surprising the Albert-type—to use the generic name—is not much more widely employed than it is in the illustration of books and magazines. Messrs. Osgood & Co., to be sure, are busy with publications of their own in which heliotypes play a prominent part, and they are now regularly assisting the Patent-Office and many of the Government bureaus in their official publications. The prints from nature stand in need of further development before they can become fully popular, and at present indicate not only that much depends on the character of the negative—*i.e.*, on the skill of the photographer in the first instance—but also upon the skill and attentiveness of the printer. However, the public is doubtless not aware of the proficiency already attained, and a visit to the two establishments we have named will be sure to excite pleasure and surprise.

—A month ago the third-term movement had assumed such consistency in English eyes that the *Daily News* had an article on the subject, which reminded a correspondent of that paper "of some remarkable words of the celebrated Dr. Franklin." Franklin had said in 1787 that mankind had a natural inclination towards kingly government, as an escape from aristocratic domination, and as giving a greater appearance of equality among citizens, and he added: "I am apprehensive—perhaps too apprehensive—that the Government of these States may in future times end in a Monarchy." This language the correspondent, discounting the re-election of General Grant in 1876, and assuming a Presidential third term to be the equivalent of an hereditary monarchy, thought "so prophetic that the words are worth recording." The *Daily News*, however, had another reader ready to turn correspondent, who showed that the history of the United States—which was not fully constituted until two years after Franklin's forebodings were uttered—justifies his caution in admitting that he might be "too apprehensive"; and that, "the experiment having now been tried for within two years of a century, the Americans have long passed from distrust in the practicability of republicanism to entire confidence in it."

"I have just returned," continues this correspondent, "from a visit of several months to the United States, and I can testify that its people as little desire to be ruled by a king as by a mob. . . . In an American the aversion, traditional and reasoned, to hereditary political privilege has all the strength of an instinct. From his earliest years he is taught to regard this aversion as one of the primary laws of philanthropy; and observation only corroborates his conviction that he has not therein been taught amiss. And he is further instructed, by all that he sees and reads, to look nowhere but in a republic for the general development of true manliness. Why, therefore, should he hanker after monarchy, with its inherent denial to humanity of its natural rights and of its complete ethical expansion?"

The correctness of these views was abundantly proved at the polls last week. Our British prophet, who by this time must be thoroughly puzzled by American politics, and perhaps has gone so far as to imagine that the revolution we have just witnessed hinged upon the question of the constitutional duration of the Presidency, deserves to be disabused of this idea also. The third-term talk doubtless served a purpose in bringing odium upon the Republican party, but the popular verdict at last was as direct a censure of the current term—not half run out—as any President or Administration probably ever had.

—England sends out in books, says the *Publishers' Circular*, six times the value she receives; and it is rather surprising to find that the United States absorbs nearly 35 per cent. of the four and a half million dollars' worth exported. In the Continental exchange, England, as the land of dear books, gives less than she receives from France and Germany. From Holland she imports but a half of what she imports from Germany, yet a third more than from the United States (£13,560); from France most of all (£46,958). Such at least were the custom-house returns for 1872. Among the works which this country may be expected to import during the coming season, we select the following from the latest publishers' announcements on the other side: Col. Egerton Warburton's remarkable 'Journey across Australia'; 'Assyrian Explorations and Discoveries,' by George Smith, of the British Museum; 'Turkistan,' by Eugene Schuyler, American Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg, being an account of his journey in the Russian Provinces of Central Asia; 'The Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China,' by J. Thomson; 'Saskatchewan and the Rocky Mountains,' a diary of travel, sport, and adventure by the Earl of Southesk. Reading not so light is Sir Henry Maine's 'Early History of Institutions'; Gardiner's 'History of England under the Duke of Buckingham and Charles I., 1624'; and Darwin's 'Selection in Relation to Sex.' Mr. Murray, who is the publisher for Maine and Darwin, also admits to his list 'Beauties of Lord Byron's Poetry and Prose,' selected by a clergyman, and therefore presumably safe reading. In biography, we note a 'Life of John Locke,' by Mr. Fox Bourne, not yet assigned to any publisher, and the same may be said of Prof. Seeley's 'Life of Stein,' which, according to the *Academy*, is "expanding into a general view of the changes which took place in Germany in the Napoleonic age, and an introduction to the history of the Germany of our own age." Strauss's 'Ulrich von Hutten, his Life and Times' is to appear in an English dress. Mr. Sayce's 'Principles of Comparative Philology' (Trübner & Co.) must be already obtainable. We have almost a right to mention among English publications an 'Early English Chrestomathy,' of which the first part covers A.D. 1250–1350. The editor is Dr. Richard Paul Wülcker, of Leipzig, who at Wörth was engaged in capturing a mitrailleuse and winning the iron cross. He adds notes and a complete glossary. Part II. will come down to 1500 A.D.

—We are informed by a correspondent who has had an opportunity of examining the manuscripts of Michael Angelo preserved in the Casa Buonarroti at Florence, and now possessed by the city, that for some years past they have been accessible to students. All the original copies of Michael Angelo's poems have been carefully collated, and the results of the collation given in Guasti's excellent edition (Florence, 1863) of 'Le Rime di Michel Angelo Buonarroti,' in which, for the first time, we have the genuine text, free from the modernizations, softenings, and other changes in the taste of the seventeenth century, made by the original editor, the poet's pedant nephew. The letters have been published but in part. They are not so important a collection as that possessed by the British Museum, of which Herman Grimm has printed a selection in the Appendix to his overrated 'Life of Michael Angelo.' The two collections are supplementary one of the other. Published in full, together with the numerous scattered letters of the great artist to be found in various collections, printed and unprinted, we shall have a body of exact information respecting many passages of his life which has hitherto been wanting to his biographers; but there is great extravagance in Mr. Beavington Atkinson's assertion that we shall now be made acquainted with every month of the life of Michael Angelo, from the hour when he first could write down to the year of his death.

CAIRNES'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.*

IN this his latest work, Prof. Cairnes has undertaken "to recast some considerable portion of political economy" (preface). When it is said that his discussions cover the whole theory of value, the relations of labor and capital, and the laws of international trade, it will be seen that the portion of political economy thus to be recast is indeed very considerable. We shall obtain our best view of the scope of the present work of Prof. Cairnes, as well as connect that work most clearly with his previous contributions to political economy, if we go back to the commanding position taken by this author in his treatise published in 1857 ('Dublin Lectures')—a treatise which remains the ablest and most authoritative exposition of 'The Character and Logical Method of Political Economy.'

In that work, Prof. Cairnes, through some very effective criticism of Mr. Senior's 'Oxford Lectures,' showed, as we think, conclusively, that political economy is to be regarded as a science *positive* with reference to the character of its premises, which are laid in existing facts, whether mental or physical; but *hypothetical* in respect to its conclusions, inasmuch as "the desires, passions, and propensities which influence mankind in the pursuit of wealth are almost infinite" (p. 33); and as the economist can never hope to embrace within his reasoning all of these, each in its own proper strength, his conclusions, based on less than the whole of human nature, must remain hypothetical, *i.e.*, true only in the absence of disturbing causes; the results he reaches will inevitably exhibit discrepancies when compared with the actual facts of human life and industry.

It is at this point that Prof. Cairnes corrects Mr. Senior, who had certainly appeared, in his zealous denunciations of the epithet hypothetical, to assume that the conclusions of political economy might be made positive ('Oxford Lectures,' p. 61–66). But in the act of correcting Mr. Senior, and demonstrating the necessarily hypothetical character of political economy, which to many minds would seem the very despair of the science, Prof. Cairnes advanced to a position more promising for true progress in the science than any before or since taken by any one of the orthodox economists—a position from which we can best trace the scope of his own subsequent work and comprehend the significance of the volume before us.

We have cited Prof. Cairnes's reason for holding that while the premises of political economy are, so far as they extend, positive, being laid in the facts of human nature and the conditions of the external world, the conclusions derived must necessarily remain hypothetical, because those premises can never be made to extend far enough, *i.e.*, to embrace all of those facts and conditions. But while the economist may not in any event hope to compass all the motives of human action respecting wealth, it is his duty to seek constantly to make his conclusions approach nearer to the facts of society and industry by embracing more and more, from time to time, of those "subordinate influences" which "intervene to disturb and occasionally to reverse the operation of the more powerful principles, and thus to modify the resulting phenomena" (p. 34). These subordinate influences may affect either the motives of human action respecting wealth, or, secondly, the principles of population, as derived from the physiological character of man and his mental propensities, or, thirdly, the physical qualities of the natural agents, more especially land, on which human industry is exercised (p. 50). These subordinate influences are more and more to be included as they are more and more disclosed, identified, and determined, in their direction and degree, through the divergencies detected between the results anticipated by the economic philosopher and the facts observed by the economic statistician (p. 57). Each such influence thus disclosed "will be like the discovery to an astronomer of a new planet, the attraction of which, operating on all the heavenly bodies within the sphere of its influence, will cause them more or less to deviate from the path which had been previously calculated for them" (p. 35).

We might cite many passages from this admirable though much-neglected treatise, in which the author effectively enforces the duty of the economist to extend his premises continually to include more and more of the facts of society and industry, and more and more of the motives of human action regarding wealth. This obligation no other writer in the science has recognized theoretically with anything like the fulness of Prof. Cairnes; no other writer has respected in his own conduct of economic investigation with equal conscientiousness or with comparable success.

Mr. Mill started out (in his 'Essays on Some Unsettled Questions,' etc.) with the expressed determination to exclude as much of human nature as possible from his reasonings in political economy:

"Political economy (he says) is concerned with man solely as a being who desires to possess wealth, and who is capable of judging of the comparative efficacy of means for obtaining that end. It predicts only such of the phenomena of the social state as take place in consequence of the pursuit of wealth. It makes entire abstraction of every other human passion or motive, except those which may be regarded as perpetually antagonizing principles to the desire of wealth, namely, aversion to labor, and desire of the present enjoyment of costly indulgences. These it takes, to a certain extent, into its calculations, because these do not merely, like other desires, occasionally conflict with the pursuit of wealth, but accompany it always as a drag or impediment, and are therefore inseparably mixed up in the consideration of it. Political economy considers mankind as occupied solely in acquiring and consuming wealth."

Now, without attempting to exhaust the list of "desires, passions, and propensities which influence mankind in the pursuit of wealth," which are, as Prof. Cairnes has said, "almost infinite" in number, we shall best set forth the difference between the two methods of political economy, by briefly indicating a few of those which Mr. Mill would "abstract" and reject from human nature, taken for the purposes of this science. There is the love of country, which comes into play in international dealings, and so far "modifies the force of the other principles, desire for wealth and aversion to labor," that "international values do not follow simply the cost of production" (Cairnes, 'Log. Meth., 68–69). There is the force of ignorance (opposed to what we understand Mr. Mill to mean by the "capability of judging of the comparative efficacy of means to that end," *i.e.*, wealth), with its attendant superstitions and fears, found to be sufficient to maintain prices and wages in one county permanently lower by one-third or one-half than in another, perhaps an adjoining, county of the same kingdom. Canon Girdlestone's reports of his charitable efforts in removing laborers from the South to the North of England bear striking testimony to the effect of this cause. There is the force of public opinion, which is so influential in human action that, according to Prof. Rogers, rents in England have always been kept by it considerably below the point to which competition would have carried them; while, according to Sismondi, the same influence has so far modified "the desire for wealth and aversion to labor" in many sections of Italy, that landowners do not so much as contemplate the raising of rents even in changing their tenants. Then there is the force of custom, which, in conspicuous instances, covering, indeed, rents, prices, and wages, one or all, throughout nations that comprise one-half the human race, has practically extinguished competition, which is the unmodified operation of "the desire of wealth." It is true that Mr. Mill does not in his later writings abide by his own definition of the economic man, but generally assumes other "motives and passions" than those with which alone, he says, political economy is concerned; but this is done unsystematically; there is no more reason for doing it in those instances than in instances where it is left undone; and in general it may be said that the cases in which Mr. Mill argues as if men were utterly selfish (*i.e.*, "occupied solely in acquiring and consuming wealth") and perfectly wise (*i.e.*, "capable of judging of the comparative efficacy of means to that end") are far more numerous and no less important that those in which he takes account of love of country, love of home, ignorance, superstition, the force of custom, the force of public opinion, and other modifying causes. Mr. Ricardo made even less of human nature. His economic man answers exactly to a once favorite theological description of the arch-enemy of souls, a being composed of equal parts of selfishness and intelligence. Adam Smith, on the other hand, actually came to teach political economy as a professor of moral philosophy, and he always taught it as a branch of moral philosophy.

We have thought we could not too strongly emphasize the distinction in method between Prof. Cairnes and Mr. Mill, on account both of the intrinsic importance of this distinction and of the light it affords respecting Prof. Cairnes's subsequent contributions to political economy. The present volume contains the results of many years of careful investigation conducted in the spirit of the extracts we have cited from the Dublin lectures. Previously Prof. Cairnes had published a series of essays upon the 'Gold Question,' in which he subjected the effects of the Californian and Australian discoveries to a masterly analysis, with the result of completely exploding the opinion that a depreciation of the currency could only show itself in a uniform action upon all prices; an opinion which was, not long ago, well-nigh universal, representing the common assumption of the orthodox economists that an economical impulse administered anywhere will be propagated uniformly in every direction, through media all of absolute mobility and elasticity. Prof. Cairnes shows, on the contrary, that the subjects of an economical impulse may be very differently affected by it; and as the result of a large induction he establishes, at least provisionally, the order of movement among the several principal classes of commodities, *e.g.*, as between crude products and manufactured goods; among the several classes of crude products, *e.g.*, as between those of animal and those of vegetable origin; and among the several classes of animal products, *e.g.*, as between mutton and wool. It need not be said that such results become of vast

* 'Leading Principles of Political Economy Newly Expounded. By J. E. Cairnes.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1874.

significance in the general theory of value, and in special theories of rents and wages.

In the work now before us we have the premises of political economy widely extended as the result of many similar investigations by the author. We have space for but a single instance, and will select Prof. Cairnes's discussion of the limitations of competition. According to the doctrine current among economists, the body of laborers, at least within the same country, are taken as constituting a homogeneous body of competitors:

"That law" (the cost of production), says Prof. Cairnes, "is ordinarily regarded as a principle governing value *universally*, wherever it affects value at all: governing, that is to say, the value of certain classes of commodities *in all exchanges*; so that, the conditions of their production being known, the law of their value is supposed to be known" (pp. 78, 79).

Such *would* be the result as the assumption of general competition. Prof. Cairnes, however, sharply traverses this assumption:

"What we find, in effect, is not a whole population competing indiscriminately for all occupations, but a series of industrial layers superimposed on one another, within each of which the various candidates for employment possess a real and effective power of selection, while those occupying the several strata are, for all purposes of effective competition, practically isolated from each other" (p. 72).

This doctrine of "non-competing industrial groups" Prof. Cairnes makes cardinal in his theory of value. He repeatedly (pp. 98–106) assigns to these "non-competing domestic groups" precisely the same practical isolation which had been previously shown to exist between independent nations. From this restriction of competition Prof. Cairnes concludes that

"The exchange of all commodities provided by laborers belonging to the same industrial group or competing circle will be governed by the principle of cost; this results necessarily from the fact that competition *is* effective within such groups or circles; but the exchange of commodities produced by laborers belonging to different groups or competing circles will, for the opposite reason, not be governed by this principle" (p. 74).

What, then, does govern what we may call group values—that is, primarily, the prices of the products of each group by turns, and, secondly, the wages obtained by the laborers within each such group? Prof. Cairnes answers: Reciprocal demand. The doctrine may be thus stated: Group-values are governed by the demand of each group for the productions of all other groups, as against the demand of all other groups for what itself produces; the result of this play of forces being, that what may be called the exports of each group (the amount of products sold outside itself) discharge its liabilities to all other groups.

"Whatever increases the demand of a given group for the products of outside, that is to say, non-competing industries, or (what comes to the same thing) whatever increases the supply of its products available for the purchase of the products of such industries, will, other things being the same, depress the prices of its products in relation to the prices of the products of the industries against which they are exchanged, and *vice versa*. While whatever increases the demand of the outside industries for the products of a given group will have the contrary effect, and will raise the level of its prices in relation to those of the non-competing groups with which it trades, and *vice versa*" (pp. 101, 102).

We have contrived these quotations in order to show the boldness and thoroughness with which Prof. Cairnes carries out his doctrine of non-competing groups into the laws of prices and of wages. His precise classification of labor in this respect may not remain. A better survey may find more or other classes than Prof. Cairnes provisionally enumerates, but the principle of the practical isolation, not of nations only but of classes of producers, is, we think, destined to be fully approved, and to become of great importance in "recasting," not "some considerable portion" only, but the whole of political economy.

GAUTIER'S WINTER IN RUSSIA.*

WE have observed for some time past an increasing mania for translations. It is a very good fashion, but even the best things may be overdone. Of course, dull books should never be translated, but it by no means follows that because a book is clever it should be interpreted into another tongue. A book may be very clever in French or in German and very dull in English, and translation, intended as a compliment, may become in fact an unpardonable injury. There are certain cases, indeed, in which it seems to us really immoral; when it deliberately encumbers a foreign language, namely, with books of a light and trivial order. Natives have a certain property in their language, and though we may regret their using it for frivolous purposes, one can hardly pretend to legislate against them. As a general thing, a people may be trusted to produce its own padding, and there is no good reason why our groaning English idiom should be weighted with exotic commonplaces. A great many things are said in society which it is very well to hear once, if you happen to be sitting near the speaker; but he would be a very officious master of ceremonies who should insist on repeating and propagating them. In so far as we may lay down a general rule in the case we should say that the books translatable were books of *matter*, and books untranslatable books of *manner*. If the substance of a book is light and its chief attraction is in the way things are said, it had certainly better be left in the closely-fitting garment of the original. This, of course, limits very much the translation of merely entertaining and amusing books, but the restriction in such cases is especially wholesome. If a writer has nothing but sweetened froth to offer the public, it is well that he should at least have been at pains to beat his froth into the finest possible consistency; and just so it is well that readers who have an appetite for the compound should be forced to take such exercise as is involved in a walk to the confectioner's. To read such a writer as Théophile Gautier, for instance, is pure diversion, and a healthy-minded reader ought to pay for his pastime by making the very moderate effort required for reading him in the original. It is true that readers are becoming such abandoned Sybarites, and the aversion of the public at large to anything which compels attention to pause for an instant and touch her feet to the earth is so strikingly on the increase, that the "healthy mind" in question can be but rarely postulated. Gautier is precisely one of the writers who are everything in their own tongue, and nothing, or almost nothing, out of it. He is what the French call a *fantaisiste*, and his fantasies are four-fifths verbal to one-fifth intellectual. Half the charm of his writing is in the mere curl and flutter of his phrase, as he unreels it in long bright-colored ribands; but in an English version the air of spontaneity soon disappears, and this ceaseless play of style becomes rigid and awkward. Moreover, Gautier chose his words with an extraordinary fineness of instinct, and in his pictures, as they stand, every hair-stroke tells. A translator rarely chooses the foreign equivalent with the care with which such an artist as Gautier selects the original term, so that the phrase must often be at best but a rough approximation to the author's. In each case the deflection is slight, but the difference in the whole is enormous. The house when it is finished is found to stand crooked. The translation before us is executed with commendable skill; its only fault is that it *is* a translation. It will have rendered a service, however, if it sends a few readers to its untranslated companions.

The 'Voyage en Russie' is one of Gautier's later works and not one of his best. It is not as full and compact as the 'Voyage en Espagne' or 'Italia,' the former of which has become in its way a sort of classic. Most of the writing is spread rather thin, and the art of the bookmaker is a trifle obvious. But the book is a charming one, and nothing approaching it in merit has been written on the outward face of things in Russia. Gautier was so true an artist that everything he wrote has a singular unity, and one may trust it from beginning to end to contain no false notes. And then the true notes are struck with such a masterly hand! As you close the 'Voyage en Russie' you seem to have before your eyes a sort of symbolic physical image composed of the white of glittering snows and the steely blue of northern air. The book is a verbal symphony on the theme *frost*. Gautier's winter in Russia was apparently one of the happiest seasons of his life, and the reader feels the contagion of his deep good-humor—of his luxurious enjoyment of his holiday, his fine friends and their dusky hot-house drawing-rooms, and his sleigh-rides beside pretty "Hyperborean" countesses, muffled in twenty thousand francs' worth of fur. He is the prince of travellers, taking the word in its simplest sense. He neither enquires nor investigates, nor dissents nor theorizes; he doesn't care a straw for politics, and if you had no notions of your own on the subject, you would never learn from his pages whether the Muscovite Empire is an absolute monarchy or a radical republic. He simply travels—that is, he looks and enjoys. His business is only with what comes within the jurisdiction of the eyes; but never were a pair of eyes so vigilant. One feels that from the moment he takes his seat in the railway carriage, facing the engine and next to a window, it behooves Mother Nature to be on her good behavior: Burns's "chiel" taking notes was nothing to this. He sees pictures where most people find mere dead surfaces, and where common eyes find the hint of a picture he constructs a complete work of art. His fancy is always on the alert. If he goes into an old crypt in the Kremlin at Moscow, he reflects that "here it was that, in an atmosphere heated to excess, the women, crouched in Oriental fashion upon piles of cushions, used to pass the long hours of the Russian winter looking out through the little windows to see the snow sparkle upon the gilded cupolas, and the ravens describe wild spirals around the belfries." He was an admirable descriptive poet, but we lately heard it truly, although somewhat uncivilly said, that his powers of reflection were about equivalent to those of an intelligent poodle. There is something characteristic in the way he here brings his journey and his book to a close—the way that, the

* 'A Winter in Russia. From the French of Théophile Gautier. By M. M. Ripley.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

play being over and the curtain dropped, the writer's mind feels no impulse towards a moment's musing—towards pointing any other moral than that "a coupé awaited me at the (Paris) station, and a quarter of an hour later I found myself surrounded by old friends and pretty women, before a table brilliant with lights, on which a fine supper was smoking, and my return was celebrated gaily until the morning." But if Gautier was not a moralist he was an incomparable painter, and there is no such good picture as this of St. Petersburg and Moscow.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 9, 1874.

THE bank statement on Saturday showed no important changes beyond an increase in loans of $3,108,000. The banks have made a gain of $158,500 in their surplus reserve. The following shows the changes in the averages for the past two weeks:

	Oct. 31.	Nov. 7.	Differences.
Loans	$281,958,500	$285,066,500 Inc..	$3,108,000
Specie	12,021,100	12,574,800 Inc..	553,700
Legal tenders	59,621,600	59,451,700 Dec..	169,800
Deposits	225,852,700	226,753,900 Inc..	901,200
Circulation	25,057,000	25,082,400 Inc...	25,400

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Oct. 31.	Nov. 7.	Differences.
Specie	$12,021,100	$12,574,800 Inc..	$553,700
Legal tenders	59,621,600	59,451,700 Dec..	169,900
Total reserve	$71,642,700	$72,026,500 Inc..	$383,800
Reserve required against deposits	56 463,175	56 688,475	.....
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	15,179,525	15,388,025 Inc..	158,500

The stock market, as soon as the result of the different State elections was known, commenced to improve, and on Saturday the quotations indicated a recovery of from 1 to 2⅝ per cent. on the entire list of stocks, the market closing at the highest point of the week. To-day a further advance took place, carrying prices from ¼ to 1 per cent. above those of Saturday, with every indication of a further advance. We have not ascertained that there is any combination or "clique" engaged in moving the market. The professional speculators appear to be active buyers, but entirely on their individual accounts. We notice an improvement to-day in some of the investment stocks, such as Illinois Central and Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, which have sold at 97 and 102¾ respectively. Adams Express has advanced to 119 bid. There is a report in circulation that the cash surplus of the Company, estimated at nearly 50 per cent. upon its capital, will be divided among the stockholders.

The following shows the extreme range of fluctuations in the principal stocks during the past week:

	Highest.	Lowest.		Highest.	Lowest.
New York Central	102⅞	101¾	New Jersey Central	106¾	106
Harlem	130	129¾	Michigan Central	74⅛	73¾
Erie	28⅞	28⅛	Union Pacific	36⅛	33⅞
Lake Shore	81⅝	80⅛	C., C. and I. C.	10	9⅝
Wabash	30¾	29	Hannibal and St. Joseph	26⅛	24⅛
Northwestern	39¼	36⅞	Hannibal and St. Joseph preferred	32	29¼
Northwestern preferred	54	52¼	Ohio and Mississippi	30⅝	27⅞
Rock Island	98¾	96⅞	Panama	115	114⅜
Fort Wayne	92⅞	92	Western Union Te'egraph	79¾	78
St. Paul	34⅝	32⅛	Atlantic & Pacific Telegraph	20	17¾
St. Paul preferred	54	50⅜	Pacific Mail	45⅞	43¼
Pittsburg	88¼	87¾	Adams Express	118	115⅝
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western	109⅛	108⅜			

Government bonds have been active since Tuesday, but as the bulk of business is transacted in the offices of the large dealers the amount of business is by no means shown by the daily printed list of sales. Prices have been well maintained in spite of the changes in investments which have been going on, such changes being the result of the new turn in political affairs.

State bonds during last week were quiet and dull, but to-day there was more activity in those of the Southern States, these being in demand by investors, who look for a better management of the finances of those States which have lately passed into the hands of the taxpayers. At present prices there are apparently few bonds for sale, holders, of course, being influenced in holding on by the same reasons which encourage purchases. In railroad mortgages Union Pacifics have been the leading feature—the firsts advancing to 90. We have only to repeat that good railroad bonds are in demand, and that prices continue to hold firm. Sales of New York Central firsts were made at 110½ and 118⅞, with apparently no limit to the amount that would be taken at 110 and over.

The gold market has been quiet, with the quotations confined between 110 and 110⅛. A small premium has been paid for the use of cash gold, but nothing higher than at the rate of 2½ per cent. per annum. The Treasury will sell during the present month $500,000 gold each week.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 19, 1874.

The Week.

TWO very remarkable feats in journalism have been performed within a few days by the *Herald* and the *Republic*—the *Herald* publishing a long account with sensation "head-lines" of an escape of wild beasts from the cages in the Central Park; the *Republic* bringing out an apparently "authorized" statement of the President's views with regard to the effect of the recent elections on his financial policy. According to the *Republic*, the President considered the elections to have furnished so striking a proof of the general inflationist sentiment of the country that he felt himself relieved of any further responsibility in urging specie payments upon Congress. Last winter, it seemed, he had been imposed upon by some of the Boston demagogues, headed by Mr. William Gray, who persuaded him that the interests of the country demanded hard money; but he had since been convinced of his error, and hereafter would allow himself to be guided by men who were really statesmen, who lived among the people, and knew what the people wanted. The *Herald* succeeded, with its story, in frightening some women, who, having sent their children to the Park, were terrified out of their wits on learning that the lions and tigers were loose, and did not stop to look closely into the foundation on which the story rested. The *Republic* made a much greater momentary success, for the editorial was telegraphed all over the country, used in Wall Street to affect the price of gold, sent without doubt to all the financial centres in Europe, and exercised a depressing influence on the minds of everybody who heard the story. The next day it was flatly contradicted from Washington, and the *Republic* has since been obliged to come out and admit that the article was not authorized or inspired by the President, but was a strictly professional product.

General Hawley, as he must now himself feel, assumed a heavy burden of responsibility when he vouched for the veracity and respectability of Mr. Charles Hays of Alabama, and printed in his paper, as true history, that gentleman's catalogue of "outrages." The outrages were very soon after exposed by a special correspondent of the *Tribune*, and it is proper to add that his reports as to the general condition of things at the South have been fully corroborated by the correspondent of the *Times*, though, of course, the two papers approached the question from different standpoints. In fact, some of the *Times's* reports from Alabama put the morals and manners of the "Southern Republicans" in a worse light even than do the reports of the *Tribune*. There came in, too, from the districts in which Mr. Hays laid the scene of his tragedies, so many denials fortified by proof, that there was nothing left Mr. Hays but to take refuge in "dignified silence," and nothing left for his friends and patrons at the North but to abandon him to popular indignation, which they did with somewhat unseemly alacrity. He, however, is apparently not anxious for the seclusion which the public thinks would under the circumstances be becoming, and is so enamored of "outrages" that, failing the discovery of any in Alabama, he resolved to commit one himself. He accordingly waited for the correspondent of the *Tribune*, Mr. White, at the railroad station in Washington, and as soon as he saw him descend from the train encumbered with his bags and bundles, committed a Ku-klux assault on him. He was handed over to the police, and we hope will be proceeded against under the Enforcement Act, as his object doubtless was to prevent Mr. White from voting the Democratic ticket in 1876.

The new Arkansas quarrel is a burlesque of recent Southern politics. In 1868, a constitution was adopted in Arkansas, which remained in force till just before the recent Congressional election, when the Conservatives succeeded in having a new instrument adopted, under which A. H. Garland has been elected Governor. The old Baxter-Brooks feud is still smouldering, however; and, before the election held under the new constitution, it occurred to the mind of Smith, the old lieutenant-governor, that by the aid of a little constitutional law and an opinion of counsel he might work up a case to lay before the Attorney-General at Washington, get possession of the State, and turn over as much of the sovereign power as he did not need for himself to his friends the Brooksites. He therefore wrote a letter to the Hon. T. W. D. Yonley, attorney-at-law, on the 1st of October, some days before the new constitution was voted on, asking him for an opinion in the case of "V. V. Smith, Lieutenant-Governor of Arkansas, *v.* A. H. Garland." The case was this. Smith had been elected lieutenant-governor for a number of years under the constitution of 1868, and now, supposing the new constitution to be adopted and to be invalid for certain reasons, which we need not go into, and Baxter, the governor, to hand over his office to Garland, the Conservative candidate, after the election, would not this be such a resignation of Baxter's office as would entitle Smith, whose term is not expired, to take possession? And the opinion of Mr. Yonley was that it decidedly would, and the correspondence was printed in Chicago as a pamphlet. Then the elections took place; and first the new constitution was adopted by an overwhelming majority, and then Garland was elected by an overwhelming majority, and Baxter handed the State over to him. Smith's opportunity having now arrived, he at once announced himself to be the real governor, and issued a proclamation to that effect, winding up with a demand upon the President for troops. Having done this, he ran away and hid himself, and cannot now be found, and the Attorney-General is now reported to be engaged in considering the law of the case. There seems to be no doubt, however, that the attempt to get up an excitement at Washington in the matter has completely failed, and that the President will not be foolish enough to interfere.

The inflationists appear to have founded what they call a "National Currency League," with a seal containing an anvil, a sickle, an anchor, and an iron safe—we presume to hold "currency." The object of the League appears to be to push the measure known in the last Congress as "Judge Kelley's Inconvertible Currency Bill," or, more irreverently, "Kelley's issue of three sixty-five bonds." It publishes a mournful list of members who voted against this scheme in the last Congress, and a "roll of honor" containing the names of the eminent men who voted for it, and declares that "they ought to be engraved in Letters of Gold on Tablets of Silver, and held in honorable memory through all time," because, had Kelley's bill become a law, "it would have conferred greater benefits on the American people than any other law ever enacted by Congress." The result of not passing Kelley's bill is, on the other hand, "unemployed industry, stagnation in business, hard times, demoralization, and poverty," and the League advises the people to instruct their representatives to support Kelley's bill in the next Congress. We ought to add that the principle of the bill received the warm support of Mr. Wendell Phillips, in a letter to the Hon. B. F. Butler, in which he recommended unlimited loans by the Government of new paper-money, at four per cent. if we remember rightly, to all citizens applying for it on the security of mortgage on real estate. We confess our preference for Mr. Phillips's plan, though we say this without meaning to depreciate Judge Kelley's. Our firm belief is that the former would make money plentier in the United States than it ever was in any country in the world, and possesses the grand merit of extreme simplicity. In one month from the issue of the greenbacks, or as soon thereafter as "the papers" could be made out, every foot of land on this vast continent would, in fact, be mortgaged to the United States, and the

money lent in this way would be a sheer addition to the wealth of the country—or, in other words, all land would increase in value by one-half; and the farmer would immediately get the advantage of the rise; and the beauty of the arrangement would be that the Administration would never venture, and in fact would never need, to foreclose. So the people could keep all the money. To describe Mr. Phillips's plan is to prove its superiority to Judge Kelley's. We shall, therefore, support Mr. Phillips's and oppose Judge Kelley's as clumsy and complicated. The want of the country is more greenbacks, and, if they are to be issued, the simpler and more direct the process for getting them into the hands of the people, the better.

A Massachusetts correspondent complains, not without a show of justice, of our classing Mr. Gooch with Messrs. Butler and Ayer in enumerating last week "the more conspicuous compensations" for certain losses in the recent elections. In fact, we had no intention of making any comparison between these three candidates except as they were involved in a common Administration defeat. We can quite agree with our correspondent when he says: "Mr. Gooch is not just the man I should like to send to Congress, but I know of no charge against his integrity, and I think he is preferable to Banks, whom I believe to be a thorough humbug." Mr. Banks is not only all that, but in point of selfishness and want of fixed principle, to say nothing about his personal habits, he belongs in the same category with Butler; and his triumphant return from the district adjoining that in which Butler was so decisively defeated, shows that independence in politics does not mean the same thing in every part of Massachusetts. The new independence, by the way, which Mr. Medill is bestowing upon the Chicago *Tribune*, finds a curious illustration in the serious recommendation by that paper that the next House should choose Mr. Banks for its Speaker—a proposal only equalled by that of the Charleston *News and Courier*, an anti-Chamberlain paper, which would have the Democrats repeat the characteristic folly of putting Fernando Wood in nomination for the same office, as "a tried and an ever-faithful friend of the Southern people." To return, however, to Mr. Gooch. While we never pretended to consider Banks's election as "a conspicuous compensation" for anything, we had reasons for regarding the defeat of his Republican rival as a good thing, both in itself and as a part of the general overthrow of a demoralized party. Our correspondent himself says that "Mr. Gooch owes his defeat largely to the stupid and indecent defence set up for him by his friends, which was the same as that set up for Bill Tweed. We were told Mr. Gooch was never known to go back on his friends, and if he promised a poor man a chance in the Navy Yard, he was sure to get it. The unblushing way in which the Administration used Charlestown Navy Yard for Gooch gained many votes for Banks"; and the regular Republican stump-speakers gained him many more.

The Prohibitionists in New York nominated a governor during the last canvass, and succeeded in polling some eleven thousand votes; but at present the rage and fury over the traffic in intoxicating liquors seem to be centred in another quarter. Just before the election a good deal of attention was attracted to the number of persons connected with the liquor business in one way or another who were running for the Legislature. Just before this again, a meeting of the "Liquor Dealers' Protective Union" was held at Albany, and various laudable objects were announced with regard to reform in taxation. Examination into the *personnel* of this convention, however, showed that it embraced four hundred keepers of saloons who had been refused licenses by the Board of Excise between May 1, 1873, and May 1, 1874, while the president, first-president, second vice-president, recording secretary, corresponding secretary, and financial secretary all turned out to be keepers of low drinking dens scattered over the city, some of them under indictment for non-compliance with the law. The respectable liquor-dealers have, therefore, declined to support the reformatory movement of the union, it being their interest, as it is that of the community, to have a stringent license law; and it now looks as if a fierce warfare would be waged in the next legislature between the "reformers" who demand "home rule" and the opening of all the dens possible, and who have apparently a strong delegation at Albany, and the conservatives, who would like to see some stringent measures taken to prevent unrestricted sale.

On the day of election in this city, an affray took place in one of the election districts between "Jimmy" O'Brien and some of his followers, on one side, and a coroner, named Croker, and some of his partisans, on the other. It was one of the old-fashioned faction-fights, once so common in New York, beginning with much foul language on both sides and ending in promiscuous shooting. During the firing a man named McKenna was killed, shot, as it was supposed at the time, by Croker, a protégé of John Kelly's, who, it may be remembered by those who followed the course of the Kelly-Havemeyer quarrel, was one of the subjects of dispute between those two chieftains. The coroner's inquest, however, resulted in a verdict that McKenna was killed by "some person or persons unknown," and as, during the proceedings, Kelly himself appeared on the scene with a number of other politicians, and was seen "colloguing" with Croker and assisting him in his defence, he has brought down upon his head a good deal of editorial writing and denunciation as the "new Boss," "the successor of Tweed," and so on. He is not, so far as we can make out, accused of any overt act, but of bringing to bear the weight of his personal influence to interfere with the course of justice. We do not see, however, how this can be prevented, unless a disabling act is to be passed forbidding Kelly, when any court is in session, from expressing his opinion as to the merits of the case. Luckily, coroners have not final jurisdiction in cases of this sort, and Croker and one or two others have since been indicted for murder by the Grand Jury.

Mayor Havemeyer has again distinguished himself by suddenly removing from office two Commissioners of Accounts, refusing to give them or the public any explanation of his action, and appointing in their place two men of whom nothing seems to be known except that they are respectable persons, said not to be accountants. The Commissioners of Accounts hold an important office, as it is their duty to examine into the accounts of all branches of the City Government, and though Messrs. Howe and Bowlend, the removed officers, may not have been the best men for their place, they certainly did a good service in keeping an investigation hanging continually over the heads of all the various boards charged with the expenditure of public money. It has been in great measure the fear of being exposed by them that has kept a good many men straight for the last year or two. The Mayor's action, too, is all the more peculiar from the fact that while he has allowed them to examine the accounts of some of the departments, he has turned them out of office just as they were proceeding to the investigation of some others, and thus has given the decapitation the effect of a determined attempt to obstruct investigation in cases in which it might not be convenient to his friends.

For many years it has been the custom of the great trunk-lines to the West to agree upon a uniform freight tariff, and for many years also it has been usual, after the uniform tariff has been in operation for a little while, for some one of the lines to violate the agreement, "break rates," and offer to carry freight for less than its rivals. The New York Central, the Erie, and the Pennsylvania roads have recently entered into one of these combinations, and are now trying to induce the Baltimore and Ohio to unite with them. The latter road, which is extremely rich, always has its coffers full of money, and controls a through-line to Chicago, has not yet exhibited any willingness to enter into the agreement, and probably it has very good reasons for doing so; but it is singular to observe, from the way the combination is discussed at the West, how easy it is for the grinding monopolist to become a public benefactor, and also what

curious notions of the railroad business are prevalent in that part of the country. The Baltimore and Ohio would seem to the dispassionate observer to have the essential features of what is known in the slang of the day as a monopoly. It has complete control of its business, and besides that, in cases of difficulty, is in the possession of a reserve fund which places it in a position to defy competition. On the other hand, according to the Chicago *Tribune*, Vanderbilt has watered the New York Central till the stock is a mere bubble, the Erie has been so plundered that it is another, while "Tom Scott and his associates of the Pennsylvania roads have leased so many unproductive—some of them worthless—lines" that they are on the verge of ruin. Under these circumstances, to which of the four lines does the Chicago *Tribune* look for aid and succor—for cheap transportation of the products of the West to tide-water? To none other than the Baltimore and Ohio—the extortionists who have wrung millions out of the toiling farmer, and not merely have not returned it to him, but keep it locked up, and thereby increase the value of their stock to fabulous proportions; and it promises that line "the moral and material sympathy and support of the entire Northwest." To a hardened railroad president there must be something rather confusing in finding himself denounced by the Grangers in one year and threatened with the confiscation of his property, and the next promised the sympathy of "the entire Nothwest"—all for doing the same thing; *i.e.*, making all the money possible for his road.

The Beecher case has again appeared in court during the past week, the counsel making a long argument on the question whether Mr. Beecher was entitled to a "bill of particulars," or, in other words, a specification of the particular acts laid to Mr. Beecher's charge, with dates, and, we believe, the specification of damages in each case. This would seem to involve knotty legal questions; but the "human element" in the case is so much stronger than any other that Mr. Beach and Mr. Shearman were soon involved in a dispute as to each other's "candor," and the thought of the bill of particulars so moved Mr. Shearman that at one point in his argument his voice was choked with emotion, and tears were seen to roll down his cheeks. It is to be observed, by the way, that the ground on which Mr. Beecher desires the bill of particulars is that he may not be surprised with evidence suddenly sprung upon him. There is something delightful in the notion that in all the statements, interviews, and letters of Tilton and Moulton, and in all the accusations levelled at Beecher, a material part of the charges have been kept back, and are still to be made public. We trust that Tilton will not allow Beecher's lawyers to persuade him to "disclose his case." Surely some means may still be found to allay all this strife and contention.

The unsatisfactory and heterogeneous character of the government of London has for some years been attracting a good deal of attention in England. The population of nearly 4,000,000 are governed in a variety of ways, a small part only having a municipal government strictly so called, with a mayor and corporation. What with the constantly increasing size of the city, and the continual creation of new interests, etc., with temporary bodies for managing and controlling them, and with boards, vestries, and Acts of Parliament, and conflicting jurisdictions of all kinds, there is a good deal of dissatisfaction. A deputation has recently called upon the Home Secretary, Mr. Cross, to urge upon him the necessity of action in the matter looking to the creation of a single municipality with full powers. One of the memorialists, Mr. Henry Cole, submitted to the Home Secretary a list of "some of his personal wants," which, he added, were the wants of three millions besides himself, among which were healthy and sweet air, pure water, good gas, roads free from dust, snow, and mud, and "clean pathways across the road to the South Kensington Museum," which the local vestry, he declares, will not give him, because it would "wear the road," and they think they cannot afford paved crossings. The two great municipal bodies, the City Corporation and the Metropolitan Board of Works, seem to be agreed that something must be done, and the press is generally in favor of action of some kind.

Since Professor Tyndall's discourse at Belfast, a great many attempts have been made, both in England and in this country, to "reconcile science and religion." Beginning with Dr. Watts's, the subject has been taken up in numerous sermons and lectures and addresses, and has figured more or less prominently in the discussions of all the recent church conventions, synods, and conferences. The effect of these discussions has, however, been thus far rather bewildering than enlightening, owing to the singular confusion about the meaning of the term "religion" which pervades them all. Science has a well-established and well-known signification, and when used everybody knows what is meant by it. But almost every man who uses the word "religion" uses it in a different sense, so that nearly everybody who is engaged in the attempt to "reconcile science and religion" has a different object in view. By "religion" one means simply the belief which Mr. Tyndall is said to entertain that "there is an Intelligence at the heart of things"; another, the belief that there is "a personal First Cause"; another the belief that the world is governed by a single personal Deity, who actually supervises its concerns; another, the belief that this God is a Trinity, composed of three persons, one of whom was incarnate and founded Christianity, and that Christianity offers a sufficient explanation of the mystery of the universe and complete consolation for the miseries of this life. Then, to increase this confusion, while Christianity is used by many as a synonym for religion, there are half-a-dozen different definitions of Christianity. Some people use it as a description of conservative Unitarianism; others, of Protestant orthodoxy, founded on the acceptance of the Bible as true history and sound doctrine; and others, again, as solely applicable to the Catholic faith, as handed down by tradition and settled by the decrees of councils. Now, it will be seen at a glance that while it may be easy to reconcile science with some of these forms of religious belief, it must be very difficult to reconcile it with others—or, in other words, that what might seem a mere trifle to a Boston Deist would prove a terribly tough job to a Dublin Catholic. How, in short, can Ralph Waldo Emerson and Cardinal Cullen work together in the matter of reconciliation? We would suggest, therefore, that before this controversy goes any further, the leading theologians agree upon some definition of what it is they propose to reconcile with science, or agree upon the sense in which they use the term "religion" in their fight with scientific men. Failing this, we would suggest the abandonment of the discussion, as likely to bring religion into contempt, by revealing the exceeding diversity of views which prevail about its central facts among its foremost professors and champions.

Cardinal Cullen, in a recent pastoral in Dublin, has offered a basis for the "reconciliation" which is exceedingly ingenious, but we fear will be satisfactory neither to the scientific men nor to the religious people, and gives Protestants no help at all. It is in substance this: When any scientific discovery conflicts with the dogmas taught by the church, the conflict is apparent only, not real. It will invariably be found on further enquiry, and after a due lapse of time, either that the discovery was not a true discovery but "an ephemeral theory," or that the dogma was not a real dogma but only a "theological opinion." This sounds very well, but, at best, it is simply an armed truce and not a peace. For the scientific men will of course go on waiting for the dogma to turn out a theological opinion, and the religious men will go on waiting for the discovery to prove "an ephemeral theory." Mr. Emerson might be allowed to content himself with a temporary arrangement of this kind, but it will not do for the Cardinal. When the church tells us what to believe about the universe, it must be by way of final judgment, and not of interlocutory order. In fact, it would be hard to imagine a better plan than this for making the present doubting of religious men permanent.

THE COMING ACCOUNTABILITY OF THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

THERE are several theories of political responsibility which have more or less prevailed in this country. These now have attached to them a peculiar temporary interest, growing out of the fact that the Democratic party, which all along, and particularly as an opposition party, has stoutly maintained one of them, is unexpectedly awarded a brief period of trial, in which most men expect it to be judged according to the doctrine of accountability which it has itself maintained. The reason of this expectation does not rest upon the logician's pleasure of judging men out of their own mouths, but upon a growing alarm which has forced a considerable proportion of the voting public to adopt, for the time at least, what is to them a new system of party accountability. Most thinking men recognize the fact that, philosophically considered, a party is a mere co-operation of citizens to give effect to certain principles of government by electing persons to office who will direct the government accordingly. Most unthinking men recognize what is also a fact, that a party is a something which has leaders, followers, organization, power, patronage, and money. Hence it is that the former class is very loosely bound by party ties, and is over-apt to despise a political party too much to perceive that it is a practical means for attaining a desirable end. Hence it is that the latter class apparently cares more for the success of a party than for all of the principles which underlie it. These imperfect, one-sided views of a party also explain why it is that in extraordinary times, as during the years immediately before the rebellion, the philosopher suddenly becomes a politician, and the ordinary party follower a patriot; for the one perceives that his political views, which he ordinarily treats as a desirable abstraction, have become a vital necessity, and that he must work for them in earnest with the best means at hand—that is, with the party that comes the nearest to asserting them; while the other perceives the same thing, viz.: that a party is a means and not an end, and that behind it lies the public welfare, which is much more to him, when he perceives it, than any tie of party allegiance. In ordinary times it is this latter class which expects the most from a party as well as renders the most to it; which is natural—for when men have given the zeal and attachment and fealty that belong to a personality, they inevitably expect in return some of the care and foresight and responsibility that also belong to a personality.

During the last six years, as we have repeatedly had occasion to show in these columns, the Republican managers have been quite ready to maintain the personality of their party, but at the same time quite careful to strip from that artificial theory the one element that renders it a useful theory, viz., that the imaginary personality is to be held accountable for what its agents do and fail to do. Their theory, as every one knows, has been that the Republican party is a something to which all loyal Americans are bound to be grateful and faithful, and that the party, reposing on this gratitude and fidelity, may continue to do as little or as much as its leaders happen to choose until slavery and rebellion become strictly matters of history. To teach intelligent men to say to each other, "Inasmuch as we form the Republican party, we must continue to unite in doing nothing, out of gratitude to ourselves for having once united to do something," seems now a piece of nonsense which could not long delude, however ingeniously it might have been paraphrased. Nevertheless, our readers know that it did delude, and that not the least effort of the *Nation* for several years has been to expose the fallacy that a people, or a portion of the people united in the form of a party, can be grateful to themselves for what they themselves have done. Coupled with this gratitude theory, the Republican managers advanced a second reason for standing by the party, however bad it might become, which was that the other party or personality was worse. In proof of this they were able to point to the times when the Democratic party was in power as under Buchanan, to the places where it was a power as under Tweed, and to the action of its representatives when their votes might really do the country some good, as against the "salary grab." But the chief and most remarkable ground assumed by the Republican managers was that when members of Congress, or members of the Cabinet, or Presidents, or Vice-Presidents, were guilty of crimes or blunders, or incapacity, or gross carelessness, then they as individuals were to be blamed, but the party was not to be held accountable. Further than, this it was laid down that if these delinquents could get themselves reappointed by a Republican President, or reconfirmed by a Republican Senate, or renominated by a Republican convention, then the wickedness of keeping them in power should be ascribed to the politicians and the "wire-pullers" and the "office-holders," but the party must be judged only by its platforms and its patriotic record and the personal-purity of its respectable members. Two years ago, the strongest reasons existed why a score or two of Republican candidates for Congress should be defeated, and why the Republican majority in the House should be subjected to the scrutiny and opposition of a strong minority. The more intelligent portion of the party comprehended the reasons and believed the facts as completely as they did at the beginning of the present month; but no result followed their innate convictions, and they actually made the majority stronger than it was before, even permitting men like Cessna to be renominated and re-elected. It is not a matter for wonder that the party in power held the public in absolute contempt, and that members fresh from such an election were audacious enough to project and pass the Salary Act.

Not a little ingenuity has been displayed by the press in endeavoring to ascertain what particular straw it was that broke our patient camel's back. But the fact is, that the public patience did not break under the accumulation of public wrongs so much as it was undermined by the conviction that the old theory of non-accountability is a false one. The reckless conduct of our public men has been the natural product of a system which practically held nobody responsible for what was done; and the recent elections have been the natural process of a return to the only system of political accountability with which the public is familiar. The change, though unexpected, has not been sudden, and the wonder, indeed, should be that the final decision was of such tardy and silent growth. When districts so far apart as those of Ohio and Vermont revolted, the one at the nomination of Mr. Parsons, and the other at the nomination of Mr. Poland, it was so plain that a widespread storm was gathering that no political managers would have neglected the warning save those who had been nursed in the agreeable pastime of doing what they pleased with nominations and appointments. Yet, notwithstanding the portents, our managing men kept on, for the most part, as recklessly as before. Mr. Conkling proceeded to enunciate the law by telling the people, in his Brooklyn speech, that when a man belongs to a party he ought to belong to it all the time and with all his might, sustaining its nominations and overlooking the faults of its delinquent leaders; and Mr. Dawes proceeded to give a practical illustration of its application by himself going to work for Butler. Is there any cause for wonder that a large proportion of the Republican party determined to read their leaders a lesson that could not be misunderstood?

But the most notable and perhaps the most hopeful fact of the uprising is that the Democratic leaders seem to comprehend the reality of the situation, and to understand that their party is really placed in a situation more critical than that which it occupied before. Hitherto, with every trifling success they have lost their heads. Now, with a very great and almost unlooked-for triumph, they have kept the balance of their judgment. They have carried the three great States esteemed decisive in Presidential elections, yet have remained calm enough to recognize the fact that their party is not invested with power, but is merely awarded a trial. In other words, they comprehend the tempo of those Republicans who have given them the victory, and understand that there is a decisive balance of power among the people which is determined to have responsibility somewhere. A party which has never possessed moderation of speech heretofore, and whose managers have repelled moderate Republicans by the extravagance of their blatant utterances, now seems imbued

with the very spirit of moderation from New Orleans to New York. It is a notable fact, too, that at this particular juncture of events race prejudice, which has always been a characteristic of the Democratic party, and a cause of distrust to those who were inclined to join it, has so far yielded to liberality and moderation that colored men in Louisiana have been co-operating with Democrats, and Democrats have been voting for a senator of "African descent." But the general acknowledgment of political accountability on the part of the leaders, since this new responsibility has fallen upon them, is the augury that most strongly bodes danger to the Republican party. And accountability, in the judgment of all watchful people, now means a great deal. It cannot longer be discharged by paying an empty honor to a man so generally despised as Mr. Fernando Wood; nor by allowing the majority to get money out of the Treasury with the aid of minority votes; nor by covertly defeating reform in government, and dictating to an ignorant following how they must vote on non-party questions like the New York Constitutional Amendments; nor (when the next House organizes) by putting their old professionals at the head of important committees; nor (when the new legislatures convene) by sending their second-rate men to the United States Senate. A very few of these old and too familiar mistakes will speedily bring back the men who have just turned the scale to their former opinion that "the Democratic party is as bad as the other, and is not to be trusted."

THE PERSONAL-PROPERTY TAX.

A COMMITTEE of the Legislature of this State is engaged in a much-needed investigation into the tax system of New York, and we infer from the way in which the investigation is proceeding that there is some hope of reform. At any rate, after the present exposure there will be no excuse for any one who hopes for anything good from the existing system. The able report of Mr. D. A. Wells, made to Governor Hoffman three or four years ago, was received on its appearance with less public attention than it deserved, partly because at that time, the country being in a comparatively prosperous condition, it was difficult to get people to consider any project of reform seriously; partly because Mr. Wells was supposed to be a theorist, who did not understand practical questions, and was not a practical man. But now these reasons have ceased to exist. It is confessed on all hands that the system of taxation in New York is a failure; that the valuation of property is unequal; that vast masses of it escape taxation altogether; that the city is overtaxed, while the country is undertaxed; and, more than all this, these complaints are made by the practical men themselves, who are now endeavoring to persuade the Legislature to undertake a thorough and radical reform. When a witness who is known to be the greatest landlord in the lower part of the city, and who owns no personal property, goes before a committee to urge upon them the importance of taking off *all* taxes on personal property and laying them all on real estate, we may be sure that there are good reasons for action of some sort.

The beauty of the system in vogue in New York and other States has been supposed to be its simplicity and its equality. It seems obvious enough that the fair way to raise a sum of money for public purposes is, first, to fix upon the sum to be raised; then, determine the value of all the property, real and personal, lands, houses, furniture, stock in trade, funds in bank, choses in action, and everything, and make each dollar contribute its proportion of the whole. As a matter of fact, it is not an essentially democratic system, except in its theoretical equality; for raising taxes by assessing on all property on which hands can be laid, has been practised time out of mind by Asiatic rulers; and in practice, even this theoretic advantage of equality disappears, for in New York, as in Asia, the effort to get taxes out of everything results in some property escaping taxation altogether, and the rest suffering doubly on that account. Mr. George H. Andrews, one of the tax commissioners of this city, has been making a collection of interesting facts, showing the results of the attempt to assess everything, and they are these: In the first place, with regard to personal property, the assessor has no means of knowing or of finding out what any one's personal property is, and so he guesses at it. We say guesses, Mr. Andrews says "estimates," the law says "ascertain." The process, as Mr. Andrews describes it, is this: "The Commissioners of Taxes use their best discretion and judgment. They reason from the nature of a man's business, the style and dimensions of his place of business, and the location and character of his residence, as to the probable sum of his personal property, and assess him accordingly." There is some appearance of rational method in this, but Mr. Andrews himself admits that in a multitude of cases it is not pursued; he gives, in fact, a very *naïf* and entertaining account of an attempt to collect taxes of the "club-men." Finding, he says, that the volume of the uncollected personal taxes of the city was swelling to frightful dimensions, and casting about him for means to reduce the deficit, a "party" furnished him with a list of all the members of leading clubs, such as the Manhattan, the Union League, and the Union, as fit subjects for assessment, and this list was revised, and appeared to contain four hundred and thirty-five names the bearers of which were not already taxed, or for some reason exempt. And what does the thoughtful reader suppose the commissioners did with these four hundred and thirty-five persons? No doubt they enquired into their business, the "style and dimensions" of their stores and offices, the "location and character" of their residences, and proceeded to assess them "accordingly." They did nothing of the sort. They assessed every one of the four hundred and thirty-five for $10,000 apiece, not even varying the amount, and making a total valuation of $4,350,000. The result was that of these four hundred and thirty-five exactly three club-men admitted their liability for $10,000 in all, and the city collected a tax of $280.

To take another case illustrating the difficulty of "estimating" the value of personal property, and tracing it in all the forms it may assume, for purposes of taxation: United States bonds, every one knows, are exempt from taxation, and last year, Mr. Andrews says, when the tax-books were opened, a citizen presented himself, asking that the assessment of $25,000 against him, which he had paid the previous year, should be cancelled. With much candor, he made, under oath, the following statements: that he had converted his entire personal property into Government bonds; that he had done so within a week; that he had bought the bonds for the purpose of being able to make this statement; that he intended to sell them as soon as he could make anything by it; and that he should consider it a satisfactory profit that the bonds had served to relieve him from this assessment; and his assessment was accordingly cancelled. At another session of the committee, Mr. Andrews submitted a statement showing the injustice of the inequalities that existed. Take, for instance, he said, a block of stores right opposite the place where the committee were sitting, on Broadway. At No. 321 A has a stock of imported goods worth $100,000, and is exempt from taxation. His next-door neighbor B has a stock of miscellaneous goods worth $100,000, and he is taxed; C has the same amount of goods consigned to him, and he is exempted; D has $100,000 in stock which he owns, and he is taxed; E has $100,000 worth of goods manufactured in New Jersey, and he is exempted; F has the same amount manufactured in the city, and he is taxed; G has $100,000 for which he borrowed capital on United States bonds, and he is exempt; H has the same amount of goods which he sold United States bonds to pay for, and he is taxed; I has a similar amount of property in ships plying from this port but registered in Boston, and he is exempt; J has $100,000 in ships plying in the Pacific but registered here, and he is taxed; K has mortgages on New Jersey property, interest paid in Jersey City, and mortgages deposited there, and he is exempt; L has $100,000 in mortgages on city property, and he is taxed; M has $100,000 in money in his pocket, and he is exempt; N has $100,000 in bank, and he is taxed; O has certificates of deposit in the Sub-Treasury for the same amount, and he is exempt; P has $100,000 in certificates of deposit in bank, and he is taxed. Again, Q has $100,000 in specie in the Assay Office, and he is exempt, while R

has $100,000 in specie in his safe, and he is taxed; S has a check on the United States Treasury for $100,000, and he is exempt; T has a check for the same amount on a bank, and he is taxed; U has $100,000 in Treasury notes, and he is exempt, while V has a similar amount in promissory notes, and he is taxed; W has $100,000 in United States bonds, and he is exempt; X has the same amount in State or city bonds, and he is taxed; Y has certificates of indebtedness to the United States Treasury, and he is exempt from taxation, while Z has $100,000 in certificates of indebtedness of a corporation, and he is taxed.

The upshot of the whole matter is that, from the uncertainty of the law, from the ease with which personal property may be made to change its form, from the facility with which it may be concealed and enquiry as to its whereabouts baffled, and the great readiness of persons to avoid inquisitorial proceeding either by the *suppressio veri*, the *suggestio falsi*, or downright perjury, the personal-property tax in New York is a failure; and within twenty years, from 1852 to 1873, the uncollected tax of the city has swelled to the enormous figure of nine and a half million dollars.

This is the practical result of the simple, democratic system of taxing everything equally. It has been long obvious to most persons who have looked into the subject that the first step towards reform must be the acknowledgment of the fact that the present method is a failure; and we believe that Mr. Wells's substitute of taxing a few things—tangible property and fixed signs of property, as he puts it—leaving the taxes to diffuse themselves, as they must, over all property, is gradually recommending itself more and more as the most promising way out of the present chaos. But the first thing is to convince the powerful interests centred in this city that it is a chaos we are living in, and the speeches of Mr. Andrews before the legislative committee seem to furnish some proof that this is being gradually done.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, October 29, 1874.

DURING the recess several elections have occurred, but they have shown no revival of Liberalism in the country; on the contrary, the result, so far, has been the gain of another seat to the Conservatives. Neither is there much prospect of a new leader being found for the guidance, failing Mr. Gladstone, nor a policy for the union, of the Liberal party. There are many candidates for the leadership, but grave objections rise at the thought of any one of them. Mr. Lowe is unquestionably the ablest; but it is scarcely possible to imagine Mr. Lowe with any following. Some elements, peculiar in their character, are essential for the position of leader in the English House of Commons. Personal popularity, such as Lord Palmerston possessed; exalted genius, like that of Mr. Gladstone; great prestige, like that of the Duke of Wellington; or some occult quality which strikes, you know not why, the national imagination, such as Mr. Disraeli possesses, and such as perhaps Mr. Forster might develop—any of these will do. But Mr. Lowe has none of them. He has many gifts, but he has not the gift of popularity. Neither has he exalted genius nor great prestige. He may have the fourth quality, but it has not come to the surface yet. Mr. Forster, Mr. Göschen, the Marquis of Hartington, Mr. Childers, and Sir William Harcourt are all spoken of as possible future leaders. Another session may bring out capacities which have hitherto lain dormant. When a policy has been developed upon which the different sections of the Liberal party can unite, the leader destined to carry out that policy will doubtless arise. Resting in that faith, the party has temporarily gone to sleep—a troubled and a fitful sleep, no doubt, disturbed by nightmares of past and dreams of future greatness.

A partial awakening there may be shortly. If the mistakes or internal dissensions of the present administration should render a temporary change of government necessary while the country is in its present conservative mood, it is not impossible that the Marquis of Hartington and Sir William Harcourt might be called upon together to preside over the destinies of the kingdom. They could form an administration differing but little in complexion from the more moderate section of the present Government—an administration that could count on a strong contingent of able men from the House of Lords, and which would command the confidence of the landed aristocracy, of the old Whigs (and there is some life in these old dogs yet), and of the well-to-do people in the country. The Radicals and the crotchet-mongers—those troublesome busy-bodies of modern English politics—would keep aloof from such an administration. Neither the one body nor the other could expect much from the straightforward, common-sense son of one of the most influential of the landed aristocracy, nor from his aide-de-camp, who, though astute enough to coquet both with licensed victuallers and Radicals when he sat below the gangway, can never throw aside the oligarchic sentiments which he inherits through his boasted kinship with the ruling families of the land, and who has too much real vigor of intellect to feel, or even to affect to feel, any sympathy with sentimental agitations about woman's rights or the repeal of acts of Parliament passed in the hygienic interests of the soldiers and sailors of England.

But such an administration would be necessarily of the nature of a make-shift, and could be possible only during the prevalence of the Conservatism in which the country is wrapped up at present. Just for the moment all the country wants is rest. It will not go backwards, not one step, and if the present Government should be so foolhardy as to attempt another retrograde movement, it will be all over with them. But there is no desire to move forward. We are all (politically) "marking time." We are not gaining ground, nor do we wish to do so; neither are we losing ground; and it is possible that this process of "marking time" may go on for some years to come. There may be, as we have suggested, a change of front, and Lord Hartington or Lord Granville, and an administration of Liberal-Conservatives, may be called upon to set the time instead of Mr. Disraeli or Lord Derby and an administration of Conservative-Liberals. But this sort of Whig revival cannot last for ever. Less prosperous times may come, or some European crisis may rouse us from our languor, or it may be that ecclesiastical questions, of which already we hear the distant mutterings, may come prominently to the front.

And there are not a few indications that the real awakening of the Liberal party will be produced by a great ecclesiastico-political struggle, in which the Church and the High Tory party, and many of the Moderates, both Tory and Whig, will be arrayed, on one side, against the Dissenters, the Radicals, perhaps the Ritualists and the Roman Catholics, the Materialists, and the educated Gallios who care little for party politics, but who abhor the priests. In estimating the value of the various indications of such a struggle, I do not attach much importance to the smart electioneering manifesto published in the last *Fortnightly Review* by Mr. Chamberlain, in which he lays down the definite programme of disestablishment and disendowment of the Church, in favor of a system of universal free education after the American model. As leader of the Young Radical school, he offers his vote and that of his faction to any leader who will buy them at this price. Mr. Chamberlain is a young man of some activity and considerable audacity of mind, which promise with experience to mellow into better qualities, but like most young Radicals he takes but a one-sided view of the political forces in this old country. He forgets the overwhelming dead-weight which the prejudices and traditions of centuries have heaped up. Disestablishment and disendowment of the Church of England may, and probably will, come sooner than many of us anticipate, but clever squibs like this *Fortnightly* article will not precipitate the crisis. Neither do I dwell with any emphasis upon the eagerness, almost the fanaticism, with which the House of Commons rushed into the crusade to "put down Ritualism" at the close of the session, because there always is a large stock of bottled Protestantism, so to speak, in that assembly (especially when as now it contains a majority of Conservatives), ready to explode with violence at any suggestion of "the church in danger." But what I do attach importance to, and would wish to dwell on for a moment, is the fact that so many eminent and really able laymen, uninfluenced by political or other considerations, but simply from the love of the thing, are turning their attention to theological questions at the present time, and are freely handling subjects hitherto relegated to the very different handling of the clergy. Not to mention Mr. Gladstone's recent articles on Ritualism and the Ritualists, which are in everybody's mouth, we have had important announcements from Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, Mr. Matthew Arnold, Mr. Rathbone Greg, Mr. Freeman, and Professor Tyndall, and, lastly, we have had a Lord Chief-justice, whom no one could have accused of Evangelical proclivities, urging arguments against the "sacerdotal principle" which would have done credit to a Presbyterian divine. There seems to me to be no small significance in these announcements. When the intellect of England is stirred within itself by matters ecclesiastical, and from its fulness is pouring out floods of reasoning and of speculation upon all the bearings of the different questions which surround the most interesting, to many minds, of all subjects, it does not require the gifts of prophecy to foretell that that subject will shortly become one of practical politics. Two years ago an old political observer and a thoroughgoing Liberal remarked to me that "you might as well attempt to scratch down Westminster Abbey with your nails as to disestablish the church." He would not say that now. Great changes

come rapidly upon us even in this old country nowadays. There is no basis for the union of the Liberal party so likely to command support as an attack upon the Church establishment. Many old Liberals would of course desert and throw in their lot with the other side. But in the course of a few years the Centre and Left of the party might advance, if not to victory, at least a good way on the road, and stragglers from the Right-wing would flock in as the main body were getting nearer to the goal. The watchword, "Abolition of purchase in the church," has already been passed along the line. A few years hence, and even more than the watch-word may become an accomplished fact.

Correspondence.

ORIGIN AND SIGNIFICATION OF "SCIENTIST."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent Mr. Hall is in doubt as to the originator of this word, and thinks it yet to be proved that it "had its birth on our side of the Atlantic."

In Webster's unabridged edition of 1864 it thus appears: "Scientist, n. One learned in science; a savant. *Gould.*" And from the published proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at their eighteenth meeting, in August, 1869, we quote the following paragraph from the address of ex-president of the association B. A. Gould, now Director of the National Observatory of the Argentine Republic at Cordoba:

"By an unhappy, though perhaps, natural mischance the English language has had no name for the scientific investigator, nor word to denote his calling. There is no nobler word than philosopher—lover of knowledge; yet in the score of centuries since this grand old word has been in use, its meaning, if not perverted, has been at least narrowed and distorted. The French expression, *savant*, has sometimes been pressed into service by those who have felt the want of some appropriate term; but without undertaking to criticise the aptness of this word, it is most certain that the time has come when our own language demands some name for the class of men who give their lives to scientific study. Therefore it was that twenty years ago I ventured to propose one which has been slowly finding its way to general adoption; and the word *scientist*, though scarcely euphonious, has gradually assumed its place in our vocabulary."

It will be seen that the significance intended for the word by its originator differs widely from the dictionary definition above cited. The French *savant* and the German *Gelehrter* undoubtedly signify "one learned in science," but Professor Gould sought for himself and brethren a title of more modest pretensions, and which should indicate a seeker for knowledge rather than its possessor. Whatever may be its present meaning, the purpose of the word's coining was simply to designate the class who give their lives to science.

S. M. Quincy.

Boston, Nov. 9, 1874.

A MUSH OF CONCESSION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: The times are out of joint. What is the good of hitting out when nothing will stand to be hit? You remember the picture in *Punch*—a good while ago—in which the little boy with the face of Lord John Russell is seen running away, after chalking "No Popery" on the door. Now, here is Tyndall, who chalked up on the Temple of Science at Belfast something which was thought to read "No God." But now he says he does not mean that at all, leastwise when in his best mood of mind. All honor to his frank Irish soul for his candor and the pains he takes to make himself rightly understood. We thought he was dragging his coat through the Belfast Fair, and asking any Christian gentleman if he would be so kind as just to put his foot upon it. But now he tells us in his Manchester lecture that all that he meant was to give in a dubious assent to the doctrine of evolution, which is quite another matter.

Then here is Mill's legacy. We were sure of a good fight over that, and of a doughty opponent. But, if what we hear is true, even Mill has his doubts whether there is not a creator and moral governor of the universe and a future life, and appears to have no doubts that it is, on the whole, best to favor and cultivate a belief which he concedes must be beneficial, and may possibly be well founded. What is to be done in such a state of things? The sword of Richard, wielded by a sturdy arm, may be relied on to cleave the tough, resisting helmet; but only the keen blade of Saladin can divide the down cushion tossed in air. And this is not a weapon for the handling of your greatly disappointed correspondent,

Philomachus.

Notes.

Nash & Rogers, Petersburg, Va., are printing 'Outlines of Lectures delivered by Prof. W. E. Peters to the Senior Latin Class at the University of Virginia,' in 31 numbers of 4 pages each, large 4to.——Under the head of "Bibliography of Science," *Nature* for Oct. 22 occupies two and a half pages with classified lists of scientific works, of every kind and degree, to be published in England during the present season. "Geography and Travels" is one of the divisions.——Patrons of the dime-novel literature may now find a more profitable investment for their money. Mr. K. Tompkins, of 16 Cedar street, this city, is issuing in really handsome style poetical and prose selections—the latter under the title of 'Worth Reading'—at ten cents each. They are drawn from the stores of household and classic English, and are all worth preserving after they have been once read. One of the poetical numbers includes Tennyson's "Charge of the Light Brigade," Montgomery's "Make Way for Liberty," Cowper's "Loss of the Royal George,' and Drake's "The Flag." The prose series begins with Lamb's "Dissertation upon Roast Pig."——This is certainly a year of catalogues. The last one we have received is that of the English prose fiction in the Baltimore Mercantile Library, which is brought down to October, 1874. Peculiar features are: referring the several anonymous works by one author to the title on which the writer's reputation chiefly depends, and then grouping all his works under that title; and certain somewhat arbitrary classifications—*e.g.*, translations from the French, German, Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian; fairy tales; and musical stories. Typographically, this catalogue is less attractive than the excellent one published a year ago by Mr. Noyes, of the Mercantile Library, Brooklyn, and it is difficult to estimate the comparative number of volumes in the two collections. They are by no means identical, however, and will be found complementary to each other by fiction-hunters.——T. Whittaker has in press for the holidays a work with the somewhat fanciful title, 'Myndeful of Hym, or Our Heavenly Father and his Children.' The text is by Rev. Dr. Kramer, and has been written to accompany twenty-six full-page steel engravings on Scriptural subjects, mostly by Doré.——The merits of the *Railroad Gazette* are such as to have made it the vehicle of the best writing on the subject to which it devotes itself, and as a weekly publication it is likely to maintain its position as the leading though independent exponent of the railway interest in this country. A quarterly *Journal of the Railway Association of America* has just come to us from St. Louis (No. 1, October). It is designed to be rather eclectic than original, and to reprint in a form suitable for preservation the most important contributions to railway literature. The first number is almost wholly made up in this way, quoting liberally from the several reports of the Massachusetts Commissioners, and copying the admirable paper by Mr. O. Chanute on the "Elements of Cost of Railway Traffic."——A lecture for the benefit of the Burns monument in the Central Park will be delivered at Steinway Hall, on Tuesday evening, Nov. 24, by Mr. Wallace Bruce.

—We owe an apology to our readers as well as to Professor Lowell for a typographical error marring the fine sonnet on Jeffries Wyman printed in our issue of Oct. 8 (No. 484), and for the delay which has ensued in making this correction. The fourth line,

"Nothing to court in Wor'd, or Church, or State,"

should read, "Nothing to *count*, etc."

—A valued correspondent, whose experience in the matter of which he writes entitles his opinion to great weight, sends us the following: "A catalogue made on the Bonnange system (recently described in Nos. 487 and 488 of the *Nation*) must be much more bulky than those now in use in American libraries. Our last form of card is 2 by 5 inches, and probably no one uses cards larger than 4 by 6 inches. M. Bonnange's cards have of course the flap in addition. His method of placing them also is less compact than drawers. He gives a lithograph of a stand containing 16,000 cards. A stand of similar size in the library of Harvard College will contain 225,000 of the cards used in Prof. Abbot's system. The library now has three such cases, and will need three more to contain its complete catalogue, covering 168 square feet. With M. Bonnange's cards it would require eighty-four such cases, covering 2,352 square feet, which is more space than most libraries have at their command. The catalogue of the 'Bibliothèque nationale,' made with equal thoroughness, which, however, is hardly to be expected, would cover 46,000 square feet. The 'Catalogue universel national,' that is, a catalogue of all the French books and manuscripts in all the public and larger private libraries in France, which the author urges his countrymen to undertake, would require a small village to hold it. It should be said, however, that M. Bonnange does not propose a full analytical catalogue, and that an ordinary alphabetical list of authors would occupy

much less room. The cost, as given by the author, is nearly five times that of the Abbot cards ($11 instead of $2 25 a thousand). Nevertheless, it must be allowed that the Système Bonnange has some great advantages. It is easier to read the pages of a book than cards placed in a drawer; and some method of fastening the cards, though unnecessary as experience has shown in our college libraries, will probably be required by the insubordination and carelessness of the public admitted to city and town libraries."

—The late Charles Knight, it appears, left a sketch of an historical novel which has since been worked up and is just published in England as a 'Romance of Acadia.' It is one which ought to repay reprinting here, inasmuch as the scene is laid on this continent, and the principal characters, though French, had curious relations with the confederated New England provinces. The heroine is Madame de la Tour, wife of Charles the son of Claude de la Tour, two adventurers of remarkable versatility, who were, as has been said, "always French or English according to circumstances." No writer of fiction ever conceived a more truly romantic story than that which Charlevoix was the first to tell concerning the founder of Fort La Tour at the mouth of the River St. John, the stronghold which his intrepid wife twice defended successfully against Charles de Menou d'Aulnay-Charnisé. Haliburton, in his 'History of Nova Scotia,' says that after the surrender which followed the second defence (1647), D'Aulnay made Madame La Tour witness, with a rope around her neck, the execution of her little garrison, and so hastened her death, which occurred shortly afterwards. Palfrey ('History of New England') suggests that Haliburton misread the older authorities, and that no such brutality was enacted. As La Tour, a few years later, married the widow of D'Aulnay, it is charitable to suppose that his grudges against his former rival were mainly political, though his nice sense of honor, displayed towards his father when the latter in 1630 urged him to an act of disloyalty, soon oozed away under the necessity of holding his own in Acadia; and already before his second nuptials he had "turned pirate," as Winthrop says, with a Massachusetts vessel entrusted to him. D'Aulnay's character, on the other hand, has been upheld in 'Preuves de l'Histoire de la Maison de Menou' (Paris, 1852, translated in the 'Massachusetts Historical Society's Collections,' Vol. IV., fourth series, p. 462); and still more recently in M. Moreau's 'History of French Acadia,' from 1518 to 1755 (Paris, 1873). M. Moreau dwells particularly on the administration of D'Aulnay, deriving his facts from some unpublished family documents entrusted to him by a descendant.

—Guizot's 'History of France,' it seems, was left in a completed form only as far as the end of the reign of Louis XIV. The author left no other manuscript intended for publication; nor is this surprising when one reviews the published works of this most industrious and prolific writer. A list of them, purporting to be nearly or quite complete, is given in the *Polybiblion* for October. M. Guizot's 'Dictionary of Synonyms,' not yet in its last edition, was put forth in two volumes in 1809, and marks the beginning of his literary activity. It was followed in 1811 by his 'Study on the Fine Arts in France,' in two volumes, and by a translation from the German of a recent work on Spain, again in two volumes. In the same year, he became the conductor of a monthly journal called the *Annals of Education*, which was suspended in 1816. In 1812, he began the publication of his critical translation of Gibbon in thirteen volumes. From that time scarcely a year elapsed that did not witness some fresh writing of his—book, pamphlet, article in magazine or encyclopædia, public address, political letter. His 'Mémoires pour servir' appeared in eight volumes in 1858–67. The attraction which English institutions had for Guizot is well known. In 1826, he gave to the world the first part of his 'History of the English Revolution' from the Accession of Charles I. to the Restoration,' which was followed by 'Pourquoi la révolution d'Angleterre a-t-elle réussi?' (1850); 'Monk, chute de la République et rétablissement de la Monarchie en Angleterre, en 1660' (1837 and 1851); 'Etudes biographiques sur la révolution d'Angleterre' (1851); 'Cromwell sera-t-il roi?' (1852); and 'Histoire du protectorat de Richard Cromwell et du rétablissement des Stuart' (1856)—the third part of the original work. A translation of Hallam, revised by M. Guizot, and preceded by a preface, was published in 1828–29. Besides his services rendered to this author and to Gibbon, Guizot assisted in 1821 in revising Letourneur's translation of Shakspere's complete works, and prefixed to it a biographical and literary notice of the dramatist, whom he again made the subject of a literary study in 1852 ('Shakespeare et son temps'). The United States, as the lesser Britain, also received some of his attention. He edited a French edition of Sparks's 'Life of Washington' (1839–40), to which he contributed an introductory essay on the life and character of Washington in the Revolution; he also revised Lorain's 'Origin and Foundation of the United States' (1853). A notice of Madame de Rumford (1841) had an indirect relation to this country, and on that account may be mentioned here.

—The *Revue des Deux Mondes* for October 15 contains a very interesting article, by M. Alfred Maury, on a new branch of historical science, in which despite its recent origin, the French have won honorable distinction. *Sigillographie* or *sphragistique* is the study of seals and the impression of seals on public documents and other records of the past. The system of classification adopted by M. Douët d'Arcq in his 'Collection de Sceaux' has been found most convenient in the pursuit of this study. He distinguishes between the types majestic, equestrian, and armorial; the female, ecclesiastic, legendary, topographical, and arbitrary types; and the examples selected by M. Maury from each of these categories strikingly illustrate the value of sigillographic monuments to archæology and chronology, to the history of religion and art, of manners, modes of dress, and domestic pursuits of past generations. While in some cases allowance must be made for the ignorance and crude taste of bygone ages, the authority of seals in general must be considered as final. We quote, as a specimen of real and we may say French ingenuity, M. Maury's argument in defence of the faithfulness of the female costumes as engraved on the seals of the Middle Ages:

"The modifications of the female dress can be much more satisfactorily traced on seals than those of the male attire, for all the women of the Middle Ages were not Joans of Arc or Joan Hachettes, girding on their armor when occasion required it; they generally preferred to appear on their seals in the costume prescribed by the fashions of the day. We may safely regard the details of such seals as true to nature. The *coquetterie* of the fair sex, which detects at a single glance the slightest derangement of attire, would not have allowed the engraver to deviate from the requirements of fashion, imperative at all times, and always more willingly obeyed than those of law."

The practice of attaching the impression of a seal to important documents originated in early antiquity, and, although at first confined to the governing classes, attained universal prevalence in the dark days of the Middle Ages, when ignorance of the art of writing, and insecurity of property, called for some guaranty in the transaction of business. Such a guaranty was no longer necessary in the more enlightened days of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and with the disappearance of the feudal world the use of the seal, except for official purposes, may be said to have become extinct.

—Professor Ludwig's *Jubiläum*, or the celebration of the twenty-fifth year of his professorship, took place at Leipzig, Oct. 15. This eminent teacher, founder of the Saxon Physiologische Anstalt, has in the past quarter of a century had more than a hundred and fifty private students, whom he has trained in special investigations, and of whom many have since become distinguished professors. There was a large assemblage of friends and pupils to take part in the ceremonies, including Professors Ernst Heinrich Weber, the Nestor of physiology; Helmholz, Du Bois Reymond, and others of less fame from Upsala, Moscow, Edinburgh, Brussels, Vienna, etc. The oldest scholar proved to be Professor Fick, of Zürich, and on him devolved the congratulatory address, at the conclusion of which a curtain fell, uncovering a bust of Professor Ludwig which had been made by Professor Schilling of Dresden. Professor Cyon, of St. Petersburg, spoke in behalf of Ludwig's Russian students, and the curtain fell again, displaying an exquisite silver clock. Professor Müller presented an album with photographs of all his pupils. But the finest of possible gifts was the superb volume of sixteen memoirs on anatomy and physiology which had been prepared as a lasting commemoration of the day. Then followed addresses from former colleagues in Zürich and Vienna, and presentations of memoirs dedicated to Ludwig and sent by various learned societies. In the afternoon the company assembled again in the Hôtel Hauffe for a dinner given to the Professor, at which there was more speech-making. "I am an old man," said Weber in private conversation, "but I have never seen or heard of so much honor being done to any professor. It has never happened (*Es ist nie dagewesen*)." In the evening, at Professor Ludwig's own house, the guests found fifty congratulatory telegrams spread upon the table, which had been sent from the principal towns of every part of Europe.

—The study of Dante, which has received so powerful an impulse from the political events of the past few years, has naturally resulted in directing attention to early Italian literature and history, which were previously much neglected, even in Italy. The most valuable materials were to be found in the old Florentine historians, Malespini, Compagni, and Villani, and they have consequently been carefully studied and published in popular editions. It was reserved for a German to call in question the authenticity of the two first-named chroniclers, and to prove quite conclusively that the history of Malespini at least is a clumsy forgery. Paul Scheffer-Boichorst first announced this theory in Von Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* in 1870, and has now republished this article in a work entitled 'Florentiner Studien' (Leipzig, 1874), which contains in addition an article on Dino Compagni and one on the 'Gesta Florentinorum.' It had previously been supposed that Villani had borrowed, without any acknowledgment, large portions of his materials from the older Malespini. The above work proves quite conclu-

sively that the reverse was the case, and that the object of the forgery was to magnify the Bonaguisi family. One is more reluctant to see Dino Compagni, with his strong love for his city and his bold invective against party-spirit, disappear from the list of Italian historians; and we hope the Italians will attempt to answer these doubts as soon as possible, by publishing critical texts based on the various manuscripts and whatever else may throw fresh light on the relation of the above historians to each other and to any common source. It may be well, in passing, to remind our readers that it is only a few years since another German (Wilhelm Bernhardi) proved beyond question that the 'Diurnali' of Matteo di Giovenazzo, more generally known as Matteo Spinelli, previously considered the oldest historical work in the Italian language, was a forgery of the XVIth century.

CURTIUS'S HISTORY OF GREECE.*

It is natural in taking up this new history of Greece, the English translation of which is now complete in five volumes, to compare it in general with the last great work in the same field. Yet such a comparison ought not to be made with the idea that the two are rival works in the sense that the new one must supersede the old in order to justify its own existence. Grote's 'History of Greece' is not likely to be superseded in this century, unless a new revival of learning as marked as that of the fifteenth century should occur. It is much to say of this new history, and yet it may be said with truth, that it is worthy of being compared with Grote's work and of taking a place by its side as an authority. The special student will of course consult both; the general reader may choose either without fear of being led into serious error or imposed upon by superficial semblance of knowledge. To the latter class this new history will probably commend itself in preference to the other, because it is shorter, and because it presents results with less interruption in the form of argument; and yet it does not deserve to be condemned by the investigator on that account. Every writer of history must choose for himself what place he will take along the line that joins the two extremes of unmixed narrative and of abundant citation and discussion, and his readers cannot complain of the choice, though they may regret it. Grote chose to fill both text and notes with discussion and criticism, but it was almost a necessity for him to do so, because on so many points his views differed from those generally current before him. The historic value of the myths, the land-distribution of Lycurgus, the claim of the Athenian democracy to a reputation for sanity and common decency as a government, the character of the Sophists and the relation of Socrates to them—these are some of the more important topics on which the independence of Grote's opinions and his arguments in support of them are well known. It is impossible to declare upon such points a view widely different from the prevalent one without full statement of the reasons for it. Grote's work was that of a pioneer. He was alone, for his investigations were in a field and on a method in which no one, at least of his countrymen, had preceded him. He had to win almost every step of his way by clearing away obstacles of prejudice and inherited opinion. He had to take and hold his positions by his own judgment and his own resources. Such work needs to be done only once for all. The ground is cleared for everybody, and even if others differ in minor points from him who cleared it, they do not have to go back to the point from which he started.

Thus it is to be expected that Curtius's work will be widely different. He has been trained as a scholar in a country where scholarship is a profession with organized division of labor, and where men learn what others have done before they do their own work, so that each new worker can advance the sum of knowledge. So coming some fifteen years after Grote, with command of the contributions to knowledge made during that period, some of which were suggested by the appearance of Grote's work, he is able to view the whole subject from a somewhat different standpoint, to supplement deficiencies, and correct what seem to him errors—in a word, to write the history in a form which before Grote would hardly have been acceptable, if it had been possible. Thus we may understand why Curtius goes almost to the other extreme from Grote in the matter of discussion, excluding it from his pages almost entirely. In regard to the citation of authorities there is a noticeable and welcome change in the course of the work. The first volume (of the German original), published in 1857, contains only six notes; the second (1865) and third (1867) contain two hundred and nine and two hundred and fifty-five notes respectively. These are a very valuable part of the work, for they contain frequent references to recent monographs and essays in periodicals, as well as to the latest discoveries in archæology, of which students in other countries might not be informed. But the presence of these notes in the later volumes makes us the more regret their absence from the first one, for it is just there where the materials for history are so scarce and so heterogeneous that we most desire to know the precise ground for the author's views.

In the treatment of the mythical period in this first volume appears the most important divergence of method from Grote. Curtius regards the myths, so far as he can use them for his purpose, as personified history, if we may so term it, in that they describe real events, the movements and relations of bodies of men, under the form of the actions of individuals. In order to determine what to accept and what to reject of the mass of material, and how to shape his explanations, he avails himself of inferences from the subsequent relations of tribes and cities, of arguments drawn from Oriental inscriptions and from the prehistoric remains of Greece, and of his remarkable knowledge of the distribution of geographical names. His method is in fact a modern scientific Euhemerism, differing only in the tools it uses from that ancient system of interpreting mythology. We think Grote would have said of it, It is very ingenious and possibly true, but it is not history. It is evident to any one how much scope this method gives to personal opinion, and how great a demand it makes upon the reader's confidence in his author. We admit readily the justice of such a demand in the present case, but we dread the effect of this as an example, and regret that Curtius has so cast the weight of his name into the scale against the science of Comparative Mythology.

The points in which this history supplements deficiencies in Grote's work belong mainly to the departments of literature and art; and, on the whole, its distinctive merit, the most valuable special contribution made by it to our knowledge, seems to be in showing the connection between the life of the people as manifested in these arts and their other more organized activities which belong to the old idea of history. Nearly a quarter of the space is devoted to sketches of the development, at different epochs, of philosophy, oratory, the various branches of poetry and prose literature, painting, sculpture, architecture, and the arts of government. Thus one chapter ("The Years of Peace"), covering 180 pages in the second volume of the translation, presents a most complete and interesting picture of the age of Pericles, in which the many-sided activity of that wonderful central figure binds all parts together, and in the combination and correlation of so many triumphs of genius the reader grasps the peculiarly Athenian idea of harmonious development. The fulness of detail, in which, however, the excellent arrangement prevents any sense of weariness, makes the life of the people seem that of a real community, and goes far to overcome the distance of time and difference of civilization by showing the little things in which all civilized communities are alike. Thus Curtius does for the more private life what Grote had done for the political history of the Athenians. In the life of Pericles particularly there are many new points of view and suggestive combinations full of interest. We recognize gratefully the fruit of Curtius's long study and familiar knowledge of ancient art in each of these chapters where the narrative of events makes no progress, particularly in the analysis of the temple architecture in the first chapter of the second volume, in the description of the temples and statues on the Acropolis in the same volume, in the criticisms upon the later poetry and art of the period after the Peloponnesian war in the second chapter of the fourth and also of the fifth volume. Especially in the former of these last two chapters will be found an interesting and valuable estimate of the place of Euripides in the history of tragic poetry. We confess that we never have admired Euripides any more than Aristophanes did, nor do we find that Curtius overlooks his faults or places him more nearly on a level with Æschylus and Sophocles than seems just. But he explains his relation to his age, and vindicates for him a position in the development of literature, so that at least we understand better than we could before the admiration that others have felt, and are less disposed to quarrel with the popularity that his works had after his death.

The account in the same chapter of the life and character of Socrates suggests comparison with Grote's famous chapter, but does not bear it so well as other parts of the history. The analysis of the teaching of Socrates, and of the relation to him of Xenophon and Plato, is less thoroughly and less clearly given by Curtius. Also the fatal result of the trial he ascribes to hostility on the part of the court and to the plausibility of the charges; whereas Grote shows clearly, quoting also Xenophon, Cicero, and Epictetus in support of his opinion, that it was almost a necessary consequence of the remarkable course of Socrates in the conduct of his case. But on the other hand Curtius points out what Grote does not, that the coming on of the case at this time was only an incident of the "dark time of hostile insinuation and mutual recrimination" which followed soon after the overthrow of the Thirty. And after all we are thankful to him for this sketch of Socrates, as well as for the vivid delineation (in Vol. III.) of the character of Alcibiades and his relation to Socrates.

The translation is, on the whole, so good that we cannot help hesitating

* 'The History of Greece. By Prof. Dr. Ernst Curtius. Translated by A. W. Ward, M.A., Professor of History in Owens College, Manchester.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.

to complain of it. But we find in every volume misprints, or instances of careless revision, where a form of expression is changed in the middle of a sentence without the erasure of the first form, or of needless loss of the point of the German sentence. Such expressions, too, as "stapling-p'ace" (Stapelplatz) and "helmbush" (Helmbusch) ought not to disfigure an English page. The book needs careful revision and correction once more before an English reader can rely upon it and quote it as giving always surely the author's meaning.

SIR AMIAS POULET.*

THIS is another and an important contribution to the secret history of a story of which the interest seems only to grow with time and debate. The chivalrous glamour with which Walter Scott has invested the unhappy fate of Mary Stuart, the intrinsic elements of romance abounding in her career, and the polemic acerbities which render her life and death a battle-ground between two great religious beliefs, give a perennial attraction to the minutest details concerning her, and with each fresh instalment of new facts brought to light the contest over her memory waxes more bitter and the final verdict seems further postponed. Father Morris has done well in publishing some hitherto unpublished letters of Sir Amias Poulet, her jailer during the last two sombre years of her captivity, and in supplying from other sources the correspondence requisite to afford a partial glimpse into the intricate plots with which his prisoner was environed. A very interesting preface is prefixed, by another hand, which sheds light upon the character of Sir Amias as developed in his despatches while ambassador at Paris, some ten years earlier, in 1577 and 1578. The editor, however, would have better fulfilled his duty had he abstained from giving a polemical cast to the running commentary which accompanies and explains the documents, while the perpetual pointing out of inaccuracies in Mr. Froude's narrative is not only superfluous, but tends to give the reader a feeling of distrust in the work, as being not a colorless collection of historical material, but a book with a purpose, for which the historical material is, to some extent, merely a vehicle. It is bad enough when a professed historian like Mr. Froude writes with an animus which leads him, consciously or unconsciously, to distort the facts of history; but when an editor of documents betrays an evident leaning to one side of a vexed question, the student who is not thoroughly familiar with all that exists in print and MS. on the subject can hardly help feeling that possibly some other motive than a judicial one has prompted the selection of the special papers set before him. In the present case the prepossessions of the editor are undisguised, and the result is unfortunate, for the facts so clearly established by the documents themselves are quite sufficient.

Yet granting that the Babington conspiracy was really set on foot by the subtle Walsingham, through his miserable tools, for the purpose of entangling Queen Mary in its meshes and forcing Elizabeth to put an end to her rival; granting, what is by no means so clear, that forged interpolations were made in Mary's famous letter, by which she was rendered an accomplice in a pretended attempt to take Elizabeth's life, it will not do for us to judge the actors in the wretched business by the standards of to-day. It was an age of force and fraud, when the world was filled with the Titanic conflict between a new and an old civilization, when every man who took part in public affairs staked his head on the success of his cause, and was not apt to be more nice in the means by which he overcame an antagonist than a commander in the field would be in deceiving an enemy or setting an ambush. When Philip II. was completing the preparations for that Armada which was to precipitate upon England all the strength of Spain, of France, and of the Low Countries, stimulated by the gold of the New World, Elizabeth and the men who stood around her knew that their religion and their lives were on the hazard of the die, and if they loaded those they played with they were only doing what their antagonists did. As long as Mary lived she was a perpetual source of agonizing care, a centre around which the hopes of the disaffected clung, and a mainspring in all the plots which were to restore the old church on foundations cemented by the blood of those who had destroyed it. That the danger was not contemptible, and that these fears were not childish, is shown by the perpetual anxiety of a stout old soldier like Sir Amias lest his charge should be rescued from him by force in spite of his soldiers and the fortified houses in which she was kept. To have awaited the shock of the Armada with such a source of internal trouble to paralyze resistance would have been madness, and the impartial student will consider it rather a tribute to the inborn sense of justice in the English race that Walsingham and Burghley should have wasted such infinite subtlety in making and proving Mary to be a traitor in the eyes of the nation. The admiration of Sixtus V. for Elizabeth's queenly qualities as manifested in sending her rival to the block, sufficiently shows how lax was the morality of statecraft; and in an age of political assassination which witnessed the deaths of Jeanne d'Albret, of Coligny, of the two Guises, of Henry III. and IV., of Montiguy and Berghen, of William the Silent, of Don Carlos, men would rather condemn the employment of such tools as Gilbert Gifford, Poley, Phelippes, and the Brewer of Burton as over-nice than as immoral. Let us not judge too harshly the players on either side of that tremendous game, but let us hope that when, some centuries hence, the secret correspondence of De Morny and Persigny, of Bismarck and of Cavour, may be laid before the eyes of the curious historian, they may reveal higher standards of motive and conduct than are afforded by the archives of the Record Office and of Simancas.

Apart from all these questions, however, the letters of Sir Amias will abundantly repay the reader by the numerous glimpses they afford of the history and manners of the time. Queen Mary's character receives a fresh illustration in the indignation which she felt at the removal of her "cloth of estate" or dais from her dining-room after her sentence—the insult was almost as keenly felt as the condemnation to death. Elizabeth's penuriousness is vividly represented to us, not so much by Sir Amias's constant complaints of the lack of money for the support of his troublesome household as by his seriously urging upon the Queen the expense of Mary's support as a reason for hastening the execution, which was postponed until he began to despair of ever seeing it. The character of the sturdy Puritan soldier, Sir Amias himself, as unconsciously portrayed in his correspondence, is a delicious study. Prompt, careful, and vigilant in the discharge of his most unwelcome task, he was not over-tender of the feelings of his captive when following orders "from above," and yet, when duty was not at stake, there are symptoms of kindliness which show that a human heart was hidden under a stern and rugged exterior. If he eagerly desired the death of his unfortunate charge, it was not from his ill-repressed impatience to be released from his irksome and responsible position, but because he believed that the cause of Gospel truth required her sacrifice. In his most confidential and unreserved letters he speaks of the toils which treachery was winding around the victim as "the merciful providence of God towards her Highness and this State"; and when the plot succeeds, he exclaims: "God make us thankful for these singular mercies." So after Mary's sentence, when urging on her execution, it is with evident conviction of the holiness of the cause that he says: "And to that hope I beseech God give full perfection."—"Now I trust the next messenger will bring your last resolution, which God grant."—"I thank God I have conceived a most steadfast hope of a happy resolution."—"If the execution of this lady be delayed, it may be repented as well in policy as in Christianity."—"Beseeching God so to direct the sequel thereof as the same may redound to his glory and her Majesty's safety, whereof there were no doubt if we were as willing to take the advantage of great and urgent occasions to further this expected sacrifice, acceptable to God and man, as we are easily diverted from it upon every sinister suggestion."—"The delay is fearful; God send it a good and happy issue."—"It is some satisfaction to hear somewhat, and that God hath decreed a day which can neither be prevented nor disappointed."

Yet the fanaticism which thus led him to long for the sight of Mary's head on the block as a sacrifice acceptable to God and man, did not blind him to the foul dishonor of the proposal made to him when Elizabeth, anxious to put the sentence into execution, yet shrinking from the responsibility of signing the fatal warrant, asked him to compass the death of the victim by secret means. In days when the prince's lightest wish was the courtier's absolute law, it required no little uprightness and manliness for Sir Amias to reply in these noble words, written within an hour after the receipt of the request:

"My answer . . . shall deliver unto you with great grief and bitterness of mind, in that I am so unhappy to have liven to see this unhappy day, in the which I am required by direction from my most gracious sovereign to do an act which God and the law forbiddeth. My good livings and life are at her Majesty's disposition, and am ready to so lose them this next morrow if it shall so please her, acknowledging that I hold them as of her mere and most gracious favor, and do not desire them to enjoy them, but with her Highness's good liking. But God forbid that I should make so foul a shipwreck of my conscience, or leave so great a blot to my poor posterity, to shed blood without law or warrant."

So bold a reproof was not the act of a courtier or a time-server, and shows that Sir Amias, in the discharge of his ungentle duties, while obeying the commands of his superiors, was no mere jailer, but a soldier and a gentleman, acting under the fear of God and according to the dictates of a conscience more delicate than was common among the soldiers and gentlemen of his day.

* 'The Letter-Books of Sir Amias Poulet, Keeper of Mary, Queen of Scots. Edited by John Morris, Priest of the Society of Jesus.' 1 vol. 8vo. London: Burns & Oates. 1874.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

MRS. HALLOWELL'S stories so well deserve to be read by more boys and girls than those among the *Christian Union's* subscribers that we give them a cordial welcome in their more permanent book-form. Their most obviously good point is the vigorousness and soundness of their minor morals; and that is observed not more—nor perhaps so much—where the instruction is intentional, as in the healthy and sweet spirit pervading the volume. There are even some places where the "lesson" is hardly pointed so sharply as it might be, considering the immaturity of the audience, as in the case of San.'s meddling with the cuckoo clock, or of the "thoughtlessness" of Cephas's drinking whiskey and leaving Polly alone in the boat all night. But the tone of the writer makes itself felt, as does the atmosphere of some Quaker houses, where a stranger is affected by the purity and peacefulness, the innocence and cheerfulness, without any one of those virtues being mentioned by the inmates—an atmosphere which is the result of the habits of generations, and not to be at once acquired by admirers of it. Another merit of the book, and one which may have a natural relation to that just commented on, is the thorough Philadelphia flavor it preserves throughout. Now, Boston is just as good as Philadelphia, and New England is full of excellent and worthy States not inferior to Pennsylvania; but New England and Boston have given us a great many stories. That "section" has been endlessly and profusely and minutely admired by its sons and daughters. We have had "parin' bees," "huskin's," and evening singing-schools, and pork and beans, and squashes and doughnuts, and Mayflower relics and Puritan manners and Yankee dialect served up so often—and it ought to be said so well—that most of us have come to accept them as the chief national characteristics, and the more docile of those born out of New England probably fancy by this time that such things really were familiar to them in some stage of their existence, or, if they were not, they ought to have been. This modest little book of Mrs. Hallowell's, which portrays Philadelphia so well as far as it goes, was probably never intended to make a stand against the flood of New England juveniles. It only shows what might be done in that direction, and how refreshing it would be for a change—grateful to Philadelphians, and instructive to the world beyond the Delaware and Schuylkill. "The Little Crippens" is a Christmas story of the Dickens charitable variety. It is as well told as any, and probably no harm will be done by the rather sentimental character of its philanthropy. "Cinderella" is an exceedingly well-conceived parody on the old story. The two letters to boys from Italy which are included under the title of "Enchanted Land," are noteworthy for their vividness and their excellent adaptation to children. Nothing in the book is better to our mind than the story of "Dumb Bec." It is so good as to seem true, and is told in Mrs. Hallowell's quietest—which is her happiest—manner.

There is hardly a boy of any age who would not take delight in the stories contained in the good-sized, well-printed volume on 'Dog-Life.' They are collected chiefly from well-known Scotch and English sources, and have been seen in print before, most of them probably many times. But this does not prevent the collection from being a good one, nor the subject from being one of the most absorbing and charming that can be set before the young. A boy that has grown up without having ever seen a book about dogs has missed a portion of his education and of his proper and deserved recreation.

It is perhaps a little difficult to conceive of even the 21st of June being stretched out into a tale of 236 pages, but the ingenious historian of little Archie Dundas's fourth birthday has contrived to accomplish that feat. A more innocuous feast for the evening hour before retiring could scarcely be laid before little children by a careful parent than readings from this book. It will no more excite their minds and prevent them from sleeping than the clear, large type will inflame their eyes. From the early morning when Archie wakes and is hushed to sleep again by his nurse till the proper time for rising comes—the hours, like everything else in the Dundas family, are elegant—until he goes to bed at night, there is a gentle flow of innocent incidents, told with all that fulness of detail in which children delight, about gathering wild-flowers, going to see the chickens, receiving the birthday presents, eating the birthday dinner, etc., etc. In gentility and quality of church doctrine (the latter not too often nor ever offensively introduced), the book is most British and unimpeachable. Each of the multitude of serving men and women knows his place, and takes pride in the bearing or accomplishments of his young masters and mistresses. And all of the little gentry know their places, too, and are most gracious and affable towards their honest dependents. It is all so comfortable, even to read about, that it is no wonder Mrs. Dundas, who possessed it all, went up into the children's rooms after the head-nurse and the under-nurses had got them to bed and asleep, and thanked God for her abundant mercies, her "strong, healthy children," and "plenty of money." The accent of the Scotch hinds on the estate is as powerful as any we remember to have read. The French illustrations differ characteristically from those of the same class of subjects by Pletsch and Frölich. The childish peculiarities and the realism of the little scenes are all exaggerated in a sentimental direction, as shown by an excess of short skirts and bare legs, an excess of dumpiness and babyishness in children performing actions which show them to be older than mere toddlers. The women, too, are similarly absurd; as, for instance, the young girl standing on the round of a ladder in bare feet, picking cherries in an attitude inspired by the ballet.

'Roundabout Rambles' was so very well-told a collection of stories that it was natural to suspect Mr. Stockton's heaven-born mission to be writing for children. That suspicion becomes a fixed belief after reading his volume for this year. It is one of the funniest, most entertaining, and otherwise best-considered little books we have seen for a long time. The scene is laid in a country place in Virginia after the war. Kate and Harry London are a bright, enterprising, and generous brother and sister who, rather than see their favorite and now very aged "Aunt Matilda" go to the almshouse, undertake to support her in her cabin. They first raise the trifle of money necessary for this by picking sumac-leaves to sell for tanning, and the boy by disposing of the wild turkeys or other small game he occasionally shoots. All these devices producing only a precarious income, they are led to take hold of a singular chance which fortune has brought in their way. A mica mine has been opened in the neighborhood by a company whose many telegrams and letters are often intercepted by the sudden rise of Crooked Creek. Harry's intimacy with the telegraph operator at Hetertown having brought him a fair knowledge of telegraphy, he considers, and finally, with the aid of his father, carries out a plan for placing a wire across Crooked Creek, and with himself in Aunt Judy's cabin on one side, and another boy whom he has taught, in "one-eyed Lewston's" cabin on the other side, telegraphing the company's messages across during the short periods when the Creek is high. The Mica Company are sharp and forethoughtful, and render the boys' company great assistance, with the view of ultimately buying them out, which they do. It will be seen from this brief sketch that the plan of the story includes some events which verge on the improbable. If this be a fault, it does not perhaps remedy it much to say it is not a tenth part so bad as the faults of the popular Trowbridge in the same direction; but much as we deprecate the too common tendency to sensationalism in juvenile literature, it is hardly worth while to condemn the slight stretches of imagination in the present instance—first, because they are slight, and next, because the carrying out of the details is so meritorious. It is a pleasant change to read an American story at once truly boylike, spirited, humorous, and distinctively *American*, that is neither slangy, nor underbred, nor full of impertinent young folks. The "local color" is well laid on, though not violently. The negroes are plentiful and deliciously "cullud," but the book is not overburdened with negro talk. There are some particularly good scenes; one describing Aunt Matilda's "Christmas," that obstinate old child having persisted in her one wish of having a "Christmas Tree." The negroes about enter into the spirit of the preparation for this event, and get a tree so big that it can barely be contained in the cabin. This is ornamented by Kate's cast-off Christmas-tree baubles, and the gifts—a shoulder of bacon, jug of molasses, sweet potatoes—strung along the branches, etc. When the tree is lighted, it is a scene of splendor, attended by a crowd of colored folks. Aunt Matilda is spell-bound, and at last exclaims:

"Laws-a-massy! It's wuth while being good for ninety-five years to git such a tree at last!"

The disasters of the mule and horse team make a funny chapter, as does the opening of the boxes containing the telegraph apparatus; but both are too long to transcribe here.

Mrs. Phelps's Life of Washington is not the first that has been written for children, but it will, we apprehend, share the fate of its predecessors. Though the author asserts (p. iii.) that "the framework and arrangement is (*sic*) entirely our own," the narrative is devoid of method; and although she remarks on p. 182 that "we have said General Washington was born on the 22d February, 1732," she really omitted to mention the year in due course on p. 13, and is generally lax in regard to her dates; and when she says on p. 101, "if my young friends will look at the map," she does not

* 'Bec's Bedtime: Being Stories from the *Christian Union*. By Mrs. Joshua L. Hallowell.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

'Dog Life: Narratives exhibiting Instinct, Intelligence, Fidelity, Sympathy, Attachment, and Sorrow. Illustrated by sixteen engravings after Sir Edwin Landseer.' New York: Thos. Nelson & Sons.

'The Story of a Summer Day. By the author of 'Busy Bee,' 'Strawberry Bank,' etc., etc. With twenty-four illustrations by E. Fromont.' New York: Thos. Nelson & Sons.

'What Might Have Been Expected. By Frank R. Stockton, author of 'Roundabout Rambles,' etc.' New York: Dodd & Mead. 1874

'Memoir of Washington. Written for Boys and Girls, and dedicated to the pupils, past and present, of Mrs. E. Brockenbrough Phelps.' Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1874.

give them any map to look at, though we do not blame her but a faulty custom for that. No one ought to try to teach history to the young who has such notions of evidence as are implied in the following note to the story of Pocahontas (p. 22):

"Some historians now affect to disbelieve the story of the interposition of the Indian maiden to save Smith. *The elements of probability in this incident challenge our belief.* Some persons are unbelievers in all heroism. 'When a man is infected,' says Dr. Arnold, 'with anti-romance, he has lost the finest part of his nature.'"

By the same reasoning we suppose we ought to pass over the statement (p. 13) that "the family of our Washington has been traced back by Mr. Irving to the time of William the Conqueror." Mr. Irving, however, did nothing of the kind, and any one who may have pretended to go further back than John Washington, the first emigrant to America, has been led astray. Mrs. Phelps says (p. 15) she "remembers to have seen in her childhood aged ladies who, although they had not studied the *rules* of grammar, yet were perfectly familiar and appreciative of the writings of Addison, Johnson, Shakespeare, etc.," and "spoke as pure and elegant English as the ladies of the present generation." Mrs. Phelps's own English may be better when spoken than as here written, and more in accordance with the rules of grammar, though we suspect her of a propensity for coupling a plural subject with a verb in the singular. Her etymology, too, is sometimes defective, as when (p. 11) she tells her past and present pupils that "this war is called the Revolutionary War because an entire change was wrought by this war in our country." Of our author's original reflections a fair sample is the following:

"He [Washington] was sent to a council of Indian chiefs on the Ohio, and to meet French officers near Lake Erie. A poet speaks of a man in solitude or on a desolate island as being denied the greatest of human pleasures, 'the sweet music of speech.' It must have been a great embarrassment to Washington to be compelled to transact business with men when both the savage and the civilized man must speak to him in an unknown tongue."

We have been unable to discover the principle on which Mrs. Phelps has divided her work into chapters. Each one is prefaced by a poetical extract of greater or less relevancy, and more or less astonishing considered as an appetizer for the youthful reader. Not even here, we are sorry to repeat, do we find any qualification for the task she has undertaken.

Homes, and How to Make Them. By E. C. Gardner. Illustrated. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1874.)—These "hints on locating and building a house," contained "in letters between an architect and a family man seeking a home," first appeared, if we are not mistaken, in the columns of the Springfield *Republican*. They were well worth reprinting, and we can but wish for them the widest possible circulation. Mr. Gardner belongs to the school of architects who are, we are happy to think, rapidly taking the lead of their profession—giving it its tone, at least—and whose work may, perhaps, in its intention be characterized as original in its fitness, and as the strictly natural outgrowth of the conditions on which each building is undertaken. Mr. Gardner states his own creed in this way (p. 223):

"This, too, I hope you will insist upon. Every man who would build himself a house shall first sit down and—not count the cost, that comes into my department, but—ask himself solemnly what the house is for. To live in, of course. But living is a complex affair; it is constant growth or gradual death; there can be no standing still. Is the house to be an end, or a means; a help to make the life-work larger and better, or an added burden? Shall it lift or crush him? When this solemn questioning is honestly done, we shall have a new order of domestic architecture. It may not be classic, neither Grecian nor Roman, Gothic nor French, but the best of all that has gone before and the last best thing thrown in. We shall have more cheap houses, more small ones, I think; more comfort and less show, more content and fewer mortgages."

Our author, it is plain to see, is something of a moralizer. Elsewhere he says, and says truly, that "a well-ordered home, though it consist of but two members, is a tremendous missionary society." But his preaching is not all solemn. He manages to develop all his points by assuming in turn half-a-dozen different characters and carrying on a love-story, much as has been done in the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' and with no little of the Yankee humor. To quote all of his doctrine which we heartily approve would require too much of our space; but here are a few passages we had marked:

"A chimney is most useful and honorable, and you are on no account to be ashamed of it. Don't try to crowd it into some out-of-the-way corner, or lean it off to one side to clear a cupola,—better burn up the cupola,—or perch it daintily on a slender ridge like a brick martin-box; let it go up strong, straight, and solid, asserting its right to be wherever it is needed" (p. 103).

"Let your doors and windows be wide, and your roof be high. A wide door is far more convenient than a narrow one, usually much better in appearance; and for the windows, when shall we learn the unspeakable worth of the bountiful light of heaven? . . . Practically, the larger opening is scarcely more expensive than the small one" (p. 138).

"You do, however, give one reason for your preference [for a French roof]—the complete chambers—which is merely another way of saying you like three stories better than two—a good argument, by the way, for the basement, which is surely more convenient than an attic" (p. 234).

"Do you suppose the bravest artist that ever swung a brush would dare put an ordinary two-story house of modern style on the front seat in a New England landscape? It would ruin his reputation if he did—even without the French roof. Can you tell why?" (p. 120).

While we cordially recommend this clever attempt to popularize the principles of sensible construction, and know of nothing better adapted to make friends between an architect and his client, there is, as we ought to point out, one disappointing omission. Mr. Gardner has modestly refrained from saying it outright, but the moral of his book is the opposite of "every man his own architect." "By-and-by," he promises, p. 33, "you shall have a chapter on the whole duty of architects, as I understand it." This chapter does not occur in the present work, being perhaps reserved for separate treatment. It will be interesting to have Mr. Gardner explain why it is that one hesitates more to employ an architect than a doctor, a lawyer, or any other professional man. The reason, we take it, is to be found in the complexity of the service rendered, and the comparative irretrievability of failure on the part of the architect. We can change lawyers and ministers and (in most cases) doctors until we are suited, with a chance of repairing the mischief already done by the original bungler; but the man who builds, or can afford to build, more than one home for himself is of course the exception. The house when finished may "crush" him by being unsatisfactory in its plan or in its external design, and the latter in two ways—in the mass or in the details. To bring an example home: Mr. Gardner's talk disposes us to esteem him highly for his views, and so far to consider him a most desirable architect. Yet the sketchy illustrations interspersed with the letters do not show artistic ability commensurate with his soundness of doctrine. More specifically, we will say that we could not live comfortable in a house adorned with the "square heads with brick caps" figured on p. 77.

The Original Lists of Persons of Quality, Emigrants, Religious Exiles, Political Rebels, Serving Men Sold for a Term of Years, Apprentices, Children Stolen, Maidens Pressed, and others who went from Great Britain to the American Plantations, 1600–1700. With their Ages, the Localities where they formerly Lived in the Mother Country, the Names of the Ships in which they Embarked, and other Interesting Particulars. From MSS. preserved in the State-Paper Department of Her Majesty's Public Record Office, England. Edited by John Camden Hotten. (New York: J. W. Bouton. 1874. 1 vol. crown 4to, pp. 580.)—This work, though possessing a certain value, is by no means of the importance attributed to it in the publisher's circular. The valuable parts have already been printed before, and this publication is chiefly of interest as a new collation of a well-known text. It may be stated briefly that few official lists have been preserved of the early emigrants from England. One volume, covering the period from Christmas 1634 to Christmas 1635, was found over thirty years ago, and is still preserved in the State-Paper Office, London. In 1843, the late James Savage examined the original and made extracts from it, published in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Collections, Third Series, Vol. VIII. In 1860, Mr. Samuel G. Drake made a re-examination of the manuscript, and published his copy with other documents in a book called 'Result of Researches among the British Archives, etc.,' still probably to be obtained of the booksellers. Both the gentlemen deliberately omitted the lists, to be found in the original, of passengers to Virginia, or to Barbadoes and other islands in the West Indies. There were various smaller lists also known to exist, which were printed by Mr. Drake. The late Mr. Hotten's book is largely made up of a third issue of this information, adding for the first time the lists for Virginia and the islands. These additions are of very little value to any citizen of the United States, for very few of our settlers ever reached these shores by way of the West Indies. As to Virginia, the total lack of genealogical enquirers there renders the collection of such materials useless. The convicted rebels are those who were partisans of Monmouth in 1685, and they seem to have been despatched to Jamaica and Barbadoes. The section of "Tickets granted in 1678–9" affords us but a few names of emigrants to the mainland. "The Parish Registers of Barbadoes for 1678–79"; "The Lists of the Living and Dead in Virginia in 1624"; and "The Musters of Inhabitants in Virginia in 1625," complete the volume.

It is to be remembered that the mortality among the early settlers of the Southern States, and especially among the unfortunate white bondsmen of the West Indies, was terribly great. Even had the records been preserved, we should undoubtedly find that but few of those whose names are herein inscribed have living descendants. When we further consider the lack of the necessary records connecting the emigrants of the seventeenth century with our

own times, we may well doubt if these lists are of more value than the roll of some regiment stationed here before the Revolution would possess. The volume is well printed and carefully indexed, and it may do service by renewing public interest in such matters; but certainly the previous editions have destroyed all claim to novelty in this, except so far as it adds lists of names which former editors thought to be not worthy the space they require. So far as we have been able to compare the text with those of Savage and Drake, we judge that Mr. Hotten's copy has been made carefully; but in all doubtful cases of discrepancies we still prefer the authority of the American decipherers.

It is to be hoped that among the unassorted papers in the British archives similar lists of emigrants may yet be found. A few very short records have been discovered since the first great prize was drawn, and there is no improbability in the expectation of future gains. In the meantime, the genealogist who has easily traced his pedigree to the first settler of his race in America, has either to search all the county records in England, or, at best, to get such faint hints as he may from the associations and friendships of his ancestor here.

Causeries avec mes Elèves. Par Lambert Sauveur, Docteur ès Lettres et en Droit. Fit fabricando faber. (Boston: Schoenhof & Moeller; New York: F. W. Christern.)—Dr. Sauveur has been well known for some years in New Haven and Boston as a highly successful teacher of French in the School of Modern Languages, of which he and Professor Heness are the conductors. The method pursued in the school with such excellent results differs from that usually followed, in that the pupil learns the language which he undertakes to acquire without the aid of grammar or dictionary, purely as a spoken language, and much in the same way that a child would learn it. English is banished from the class-room; the time is used in conversation, beginning with such simple elements as the familiar objects in the room may afford, and the vocabulary is formed by degrees, every day fixing in the memory the words already learned and adding others, until, in a surprisingly short time, the learner finds himself carrying on some animated discussion, of limited range to be sure at first, but with a sufficient command of his new language for the purpose. Pronunciation is acquired and the ear formed at the same time, without the confusion which the written form of French or German is apt to create at first.

The risk in following this system doubtless is, that in the hands of an incompetent teacher, or of one only moderately interested in his work, it may degenerate into Ollendorffism. It is no part of Dr. Sauveur's theory, however, that the learner should spend his time in ringing the changes upon "the handsome waistcoat of the bad carpenter" and the like. So far as the pupil's vocabulary goes, he contends that it should be made the vehicle of thoughts, that other mental faculties besides the memory should be stimulated, and that the easy use of language should be gained by exciting interest in the actual exchange of ideas, as well as by practising the mere mechanical glibness at which other *vive-voce* systems aim. How this important end is to be secured is shown by the little book which he has just published, made up of such conversations as he holds with his pupils in his every-day classes. These "causeries avec mes élèves" open with a chapter, sufficiently simple, on "The Fingers," in which the teacher—qui "montre sans cesse," as a note informs us—begins: Voilà le doigt. Regardez. Voilà l'index, voilà le doigt du milieu," and so on. Naturally enough the pupil learns to count; one finger being longer or stronger than another introduces the simpler comparisons of adjectives; distinctions of gender are noted; and, in short, many of the elements of speech are placed at his command by variations on the original theme. In succeeding chapters "The Hands," "The Arms," "The Shoulders," "The Class-Room," "To-day, Yesterday, and To-morrow," are in the same way made to serve each as the text for a discussion—one may fairly say "a talk," so easy is its flow—in which new words and new constructions are given to the pupil, in a natural order and in rapid succession. The book itself, however, is only a part, and not the most important one, of the system:

"It must be borne in mind that I always suppose the pupil to be led by an attentive and intelligent teacher. No book can quite take the place of oral instruction. Besides, my work is only a portion of the lesson to be given; it can guide the teacher, suggest to him ten questions where I give one, and also inspire the pupil, excite him to ask questions, and awaken his curiosity. This is the whole system of Socrates. If the teacher spend eight days on one of my lessons he will have employed the time well. They ask me also if the pupil is to read my book with his teacher. . . . If you wish to have my advice on this point, do as follows at the commencement: give your pupils the book to read at home, as a preparation for your teaching, but forbid them to open it in the class. Their ear alone must be occupied there. When they are before you, put to them a hundred questions on the lesson of the book, and, if you wish, read to them yourself a page from the book, and make them understand everything without ever pronouncing a word of English. There is the secret and the condition of success."

As before, "un maître qui montre sans cesse," who can invent such questions on simple objects as shall fix the attention and quicken the faculties, is indispensable. It is a part of Dr. Sauveur's system, however, that the master should do even more than this, and that he should give a living interest to his lessons by making literature, history, and criticism the subjects of his conversations, as soon as the pupil is advanced enough for such discussion. Thus, for many of his chapters he takes some fable from La Fontaine as his theme, recites and comments upon it, illustrates it by historical reference or digresses to some inviting collateral topic—all, be it understood, in question and answer, skilfully and sometimes even artistically managed. Molière, Pascal, a humorous passage or two from Töpffer, in the same way supply the texts for chapters which give variety and freshness to what is usually a monotonous and dry road.

The result of all this is a book of an entirely different order from the familiar book of exercises. It must be said, also, that for its successful use it requires a teacher of a different class from the ordinary teacher of French. The book gives the heads for a series of spirited conversations, but they are to be conversations between eager and curious pupils and a cultivated master, who is able to give to their questions answers which shall instruct and satisfy the mind as well as meet grammatical requirements. It is only here and there that we find the teacher of French who, like Dr. Sauveur, can make his exercise a *conférence* on the masterpieces of poetry and the drama. For this reason we are less confident than Dr. Sauveur as to the immediate practicability of the revolution which his enthusiasm foresees in the method of learning modern languages, though not less persuaded of its desirableness. As for the dead languages, the instruction in which he would also reform in the same manner, his efforts will at any rate help, we trust, to strengthen the movement for freeing the path of the student from the mass of grammatical pedantry which has long obstructed it, and for opening to him the literature of those tongues, while he still has the time and spirit for its full enjoyment.

The French Humorists, from the Twelfth to the Nineteenth Century. By Walter Besant, M.A., Christ College, Cambridge, author of 'Studies in Early French Poetry,' etc. (London: Bentley. 1873. 8vo. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.)—This work is made up in a great measure of articles that appeared in various magazines. It is pleasant, light reading, and on the whole more satisfactory than Mr. Besant's 'Studies in Early French Poetry,' in which the many untranslated quotations in the original must have been provoking to those not familiar with Old French. In this instance the author has in general avoided what must be to many of his readers merely a useless display. The book will in fact be read principally by those who are unfamiliar with French literature, the chief merit of these sketchy essays being that they give an adequate idea of the lives and times of the French satirists in a simple, clever way. They are full of little anecdotes of men of letters that have been current in the French *anas*, which were so pleasantly used by the elder Disraeli in his 'Curiosities' and 'Amenities of Literature.' There is some absence of critical discrimination, the anecdotes being accepted without a word of comment in many cases, if they read well. Mr. Besant has an off-hand way of talking of men and things which might puzzle even special students of the periods he treats of: he alludes to obscure points as if every one knew all about them. Sainte-Beuve and the best French critics, who must be looked upon as models in writing of this sort, do not introduce in this vague, unsatisfactory manner allusions to things not generally known. Yet they write for Frenchmen who are as a rule somewhat familiar with their own literary history. It seems as if the readers of Mr. Besant's magazine articles would be better served if it were not taken for granted that they knew so much.

Outlines of the World's History, Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern, with Special Relation to the History of Civilization in the Progress of Mankind. For use in the Higher Classes of Public Schools and in High Schools, Academies, Seminaries, etc. By William Swinton, author of 'Condensed History of the United States,' etc. (New York and Chicago: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. 1874. 16mo, pp. 498.)—It is only necessary to compare Mr. Swinton's compendium of history with the works of the same class published in this country a generation ago to satisfy one's self that there has been great progress in historical studies in this interval. It is in every respect a creditable book, and we should think would do excellent service in the class-room. The feature that most pleases us is the method of arrangement, which aims to present with considerable fulness the most important epochs and series of events, passing over the others very slightly. In this respect, in the art of giving due prominence to leading events, Mr. Swinton seems to us more successful than Mr. Freeman, whose 'Outlines' is otherwise superior. Mr. Swinton is, of course, not an historical scholar in the sense in

which Mr. Freeman is; he is a skilful compiler, who has in his eye the practical needs of the class-room, and who knows how to use the results of the labors of others. This Mr. Swinton has done faithfully and skilfully, and his book is in general free from errors, except those misprints which the most careful proof-reading will rarely escape altogether—such as A.D. 1093 for 1073 (p. 249), and B.C. 223 for 233 (p. 147), and 33 tribes for 35 (p. 146). As might be expected, on subjects like the Roman Constitution and the Feudal System we miss the precision of view of special students in these fields. The Exodus of the Israelites is assigned (p. 19) to the reign of Thothmes III., while the general consent of Egyptologists (assented to, we notice, by Prof. Owen at the recent Congress of Orientalists) places it under that of Menephthah. Odoacer is called (p. 211) a Goth, chief of the Herulians; we suppose he was not a Goth at all, nor *the* chief of the Herulians, although he may possibly be called *an* Herulian chief. In the statement (p. 277, note) that "at the commencement of the eleventh century Henry V. conceded certain privileges to the free cities," we are unable to determine whether is meant Henry I. or the twelfth century. There were not three descendants of Otho I. who sat on the throne (p. 286), for Henry II. was descended from a brother of Otho. On p. 320 the Augustinian friars are called Augustan. Wallenstein's guilt is said (p. 367) to have been "established by undoubted proof"; it ought not to be overlooked that the first living authority, Ranke, has recently come forward as a defender of Wallenstein.

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MONEY on call has remained easy at 2½ to 4 per cent. upon the usual Stock Exchange collaterals, but with a tendency towards greater firmness, caused in part by the revival of speculation and the consequent shifting of loans. Cable advices to-day report an advance in the Bank of England discount rate from 4 to 5 per cent. The continued withdrawal of bullion from the Bank has been the cause of the change. The amount withdrawn during the week ending on Thursday last was £274,000. The Bank of France gained during the same time 5,556,000 francs in specie.

The statement of the Clearing-house banks of this city for the week ending on Saturday was favorable, owing to the large gain in specie, which was sufficient to bring the surplus reserve of the banks up to $18,914,750—an increase of $3,576,725 over that of last week.

The stock market, after having been irregular during the week, closed strong on Saturday with a general improvement in prices. There has been a greater desire upon the part of the professional operators in stocks to take an interest in the market, while considerable outside buying has been going on, influenced by the more favorable reports of railroad earnings as compared with those of last year. The different investment stocks have been strong, especially Illinois Central, Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, and New Jersey Central. The increased enquiry for dividend-paying stocks is traceable to the fact that first-class railroad mortgage bonds have advanced so much in price that the income to be derived from investing in them has been reduced from what buyers have been accustomed to look for heretofore, and investors who may have to sell at a future time run a great risk of having to make a considerable concession from present prices.

The following table shows the course of the stock market during the past week:

	Highest.	Lowest.
New York Central	102¾	102
Harlem	130⅜	130
Erie	29¾	28⅜
Lake Shore	82⅜	81½
Wabash	32⅜	30⅝
Northwestern	40⅞	38¾
Northwestern preferred	57⅝	54¼
Rock Island	100¼	98⅝
St. Paul	35⅝	34⅜
St. Paul preferred	55¼	54
Pittsburg	* 87⅛	87¼
Del., Lack. and Western	109¾	109
New Jersey Central	107⅛	106¼
Michigan Central	77¾	75

* Extra dividend.

	Highest.	Lowest.
Illinois Central	99¼	96¾
Union Pacific	36⅝	35
C., C. and I. C.	11⅞	9¾
Hannibal and St. Joseph	27¼	25⅝
Hannibal and St. Joseph preferred	35⅝	32¾
Ohio and Mississippi	31⅛	30⅜
Panama	115	115
Western Union Telegraph	80⅝	79⅛
Atlantic & Pacific Telegraph	19¾	19¼
Pacific Mail	45⅞	44¼
Quicksilver	32⅛	31
Quicksilver preferred	39	37
Adams Express	120	116¾

In Southern State bonds, Tennessees and North Carolinas show a further improvement, while the old bonds of South Carolina were in good request at higher prices than those existing before the election. The improvement in the prices of Southern State bonds for the week has been from 1 to 3 per cent. Railroad bonds continue strong. There has been a fair amount of transactions in Governments, especially in the 5-20's of 1862. The principal buyers of Governments have been the savings-banks and other financial institutions, while the foreign bankers have been the sellers.

There was a marked firmness in the gold premium all the week, which was due to the firmer tone of the market for foreign exchange. The advance in the Bank of England discount rate to-day further strengthened the exchange market, advancing the price to a point at which it paid a profit to ship gold to the other side against bills drawn here. The price of gold advanced to 110⅞ at the opening this morning, and afterwards to 111⅛, at which it closed.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 26, 1874.

The Week.

THERE is no part of the country in which the effect of the election has so immediately made itself felt as in the South. The evident disinclination of the Attorney-General to interfere in Louisiana now, compared with his ferocious attitude toward this State in time past, and the refusal of the President to see the necessity of recognizing anybody in Arkansas, are encouraging indications of the improvement of the relations between the Southern States and the General Government. These States, speaking generally, have been rescued from their carpet-bag governments, and though there are, and for a long time will be likely to be, a horde of needy adventurers scattered through the South, hungry to get possession of any part of the government that any number of ignorant and credulous voters can be induced to put under their charge, there will be no longer a despotism at Washington exercising its unlimited powers to keep these rascals in power for life. Whatever misfortunes happen to the South now, will happen through its own fault; and we are glad to see that a vigorous effort is being made to effect a just and reasonable composition between the various States and their creditors, as a first step to reform. The plan, as given roughly by the newspapers, consists of a general funding scheme entered into by each State and its creditors, the latter agreeing to take new bonds at less than the par value of the old bonds, and in return the State agrees to incorporate this funded debt in its general scheme of taxation and government, in such manner that legislatures will hereafter have no power over it. There is no doubt that some such scheme as this is not merely advisable, but necessary. With this done, with the carpet-bag régime at an end, with the production of cotton at the same level as before the war, it will only need immigration to make the South far more prosperous than it was before the war.

The Indian Commissioner has made his annual report, and, like most reports on this branch of the service, it is in its way a curiosity. He begins at the beginning, and divides the Indians scientifically into three or four groups, as the wild tribes, the civilized and semi-civilized Indians, and vagrants, estimates their respective numbers, and shows that "a general Indian war" is impossible; then discusses the subject of their treatment, declares that the President's so-called policy is a good one, that feeding the Sioux has been gradually taking the fight out of them, that the Indian treaty system is a failure; and finally recommends the adoption of a sort of Indian code by Congress, which, among other things, would bring Indians within the domain of the criminal law in several respects. There is, we suppose, little hope that Congress will attempt to deal with the Indian question this winter in an intelligent way, or even that, if it desired to do so, it would know how. The resignation of the Indian Commission last summer, after being rendered powerless by the Indian Ring, did not look as if the President had a very serious intention of carrying out his policy, and besides this there are other circumstances connected with Indian administration at Washington which point in the same direction. Mr. E. P. Smith, the present commissioner—formerly a Congregational minister, and an army chaplain, who was once believed to be so excellent a man that Secretary Delano, at some public meeting, said, "If there is a man living whom not having seen I love, that man is Edward P. Smith," and who, as agent of the Minnesota Chippewas, made a good reputation for himself—has now fallen from grace, has lost his character of a truly good man who might be loved, even without a personal acquaintance, and is now much suspected and doubted by the real friends of the Indians, who believe him to be the tool of the Indian Ring.

In addition to this, it would require a good deal of astuteness to discover what the present policy of General Grant with regard to the Indians actually is. On the 3d of March, 1871, Congress declared that "hereafter no Indian nation or tribe within the territory of the United States shall be acknowledged or recognized as an independent nation, tribe, or power, with whom the United States may contract by treaty." In this there certainly seemed at the time to be the germs of a new policy, and a rather remarkable policy too, considering that it was aimed at a method of dealing with the Indians which had been used for a couple of centuries, and under which some three or four hundred treaties had been made. But one thing was evident—that if the old treaty system was to be broken up, something else must be substituted; but, so far as we know, Congress has never provided any substitute; and the consequence is that, as a matter of fact, the Indian Bureau has been compelled to go on as before in spite of the law. The calling in of the Quakers and other religious bodies to supervise the distribution of supplies is not a policy, particularly when the Government does not sustain them in their supervision.

The policy really pursued by the Government for many years has been this: A treaty has been made with a tribe, giving us the greater part of their lands, and giving them in exchange a diminished reservation, with a provision that there shall be maintained upon the reservation for a term of years a dozen or so of "educators," consisting of a superintendent of teaching and two teachers, a superintendent of farming and two farmers, two millers, two blacksmiths, a tinsmith, a gunsmith, a carpenter, and a wagon and plough maker, with shops and material—the whole civilizing machine being contrived with little or no regard to the peculiarities of the tribe to be dealt with, or their condition (for the tribes are of every possible variety, from self-supporting communities to wild savages). The Government proceeds to carry out its part of the bargain, and the Indian, enthusiastic for civilization, comes in and harnesses his hunting-pony to a plough, and makes an heroic attempt, perhaps for a whole afternoon, perhaps for a week, or for a month even, to civilize himself. A very short experience, however, satisfies both the Indian and his horse that they have not arrived at the agricultural stage, and both betake themselves to the chase. After that, he only comes back to the Government shops to have his gun repaired. This goes on for the number of years specified by the treaty, then all supplies cease; population has closed round the reservation, the animals of the chase have disappeared, and one more Indian tribe has entered on its last stage of existence—vagabondage. These, by the way, are not discoveries of our own, but have been all set down in black and white by General Walker; so that the Government cannot pretend even not to know what has been going on. Such is our present Indian policy, and we doubt whether the Democrats will be able to find a better field for investigation than this branch of the Government.

After looking into Indian affairs, perhaps in the way of a "side speculation" it would be a good thing for the Democrats to make a few enquiries into the working of the Bureau of Agriculture, presided over by the Hon. Frederick Watts. The principal operations of this Bureau during the past year, it seems from the report of Mr. Watts, have been the distribution of one million two hundred and eighty-six thousand packages of seeds. Besides this, the usual predictions as to the cotton crop have been published—perhaps the most worthless statistics collected by any government on earth. A careful comparison, recently made in England, of the actual crops for the last half-dozen years with the Bureau's estimates, shows not merely that the estimates are worthless for any practical purpose (and the only practical use to which the figures are ever put is to

affect the price of cotton), but that they are almost invariably wrong *one way*—in almost every case they are ridiculously below what the crop turns out to be. The Bureau ought to be abolished as a public scandal. It is our firm conviction that the people of this country have now reached that point in civilization at which they can get their own seeds without the aid of paternal information from such a department of Government as is presided over by Mr. Watts.

Of all the reports which have yet appeared, that of the Internal Revenue is the most encouraging. While the customs revenue during the past year has fallen off some millions, the internal revenue shows an excess in domestic receipts over the estimates of $2,600,000. The Commissioner suggests that if Congress wishes to abolish the remnant of stamp duties still in force, it might be done by an increase of the tax on spirits, and he refers to the subject of spies and informers in a cursory way, saying that since the Sanborn business was put an end to, the Department has kept its own officers at work looking into cases of alleged fraud. The report on the whole makes a good showing for the business of the country. The internal taxes are now almost entirely collected from spirits and tobacco, and arguing from this alone, it might be perhaps fallaciously inferred that the condition of the Department has little or nothing to do with general business interests, or that, as we have seen suggested in one newspaper, the continued production of spirits may be accounted for by the increased consumption caused by the unwonted rejoicings over the Democratic victories this autumn. But taken in connection with the fact that the railroad returns show no such falling off in gross earnings as was expected, it seems doubtful whether we have after all had such a terrible year since the panic as we thought we were having.

One of the most remarkable of the plans just now thought of for reviving the fortunes of the Republican party is a gigantic scheme of "public improvements," carried out at the expense and under the superintendence of the Government. This scheme has actually been produced and recommended to the present Congress by the Organ in Washington as a good piece of work for the coming winter. It shows how both the First and Third Napoleons kept the people at work in "developing resources" and "transforming" cities, and then asks whether this Government of ours has nothing to do but to "collect taxes to pay salaries and the interest on the public debt." This question it answers in the negative, and says that one of the great objects of the Government is "to enable the people in their collective capacity to undertake enterprises which are too gigantic for private capital." Therefore, we are to let the reduction of the debt alone, or apply all our surplus revenue "to improvements which will tend to revive business, and give labor and food to the laborer." In other words, we are to set up a great "national workshop," to convert the laborer into a proletary, and the Government into an almshouse. Such schemes, produced in a paper of the intelligence of the Washington *Republican*, would, of course, be hardly worth notice by rational men if it were not for two things: the first is, that we have a President who makes the *Republican* his organ, and has "public improvers" like "Boss" Shepherd for his friends and companions, and who invites a man on trial for a criminal offence of a grave character to a reception at his official residence while the court is sitting and the case pending. The second is, that the leaders of the Republican party are men who, as was shown in the inflation debates, are not likely to be deterred by its economical or political monstrosity from taking up any scheme which is likely to keep them in power. Therefore, it is not uncharitable to predict that we shall witness between now and March the introduction of a great many wild plans for reviving industry, beginning with the "three sixty-five" craze, and ending with canals, railroads, cuttings, excavations, tunnels, and other undertakings likely to attract voters and furnish offices.

Mr. Beecher's attorney has thought proper to appeal against the order of the Brooklyn courts refusing to compel Tilton to furnish him with a "bill of particulars" in the civil suit brought by the latter. The first result of this will be of course delay in this particular case, but as it does not affect the criminal cases it will not ward off investigation, though it may bring it on under conditions more favorable to Beecher than to Tilton. But the public impression is, nevertheless, that the object of the appeal is to get time and wear out the public curiosity, which, however ill-founded, is a very unfortunate impression to get abroad in a matter touching character. Now, we do not mean to say that Beecher is, guilty or innocent, not entitled to all the benefits of all rules of legal procedure, but we do mean to say that the public looks for some better reason for believing that he is acting in good faith, and not resorting to chicane, than the authority of his present lawyer, Mr. Shearman, can furnish. It is most unfortunate for Mr. Beecher that the gentleman who has charge of the proceedings should be a person who has won all his legal fame as a sharp and adroit practitioner in the service of Fisk and Gould. Indeed, it is one of the incidents of this unhappy affair which make many people believe that the gods are really bent on Mr. Beecher's destruction.

It is semi-officially announced that the new plan of taxation decided upon by the Assembly Committee, which has been holding meetings in this city, is that presented by Mr. Andrews of the Tax Commission. This is, in brief, to tax real estate, corporations in bulk on the value of their stock, exempt all manufacturing corporations carrying on business within the State, and repeal all other laws for assessing personal property. This may not be an ideally perfect plan, but will be an improvement on the existing system. For one thing, it would get rid of the monstrous tax on mortgages, about as glaring an instance of double taxation as has come down to us from barbarous times, which is still upheld even in commercial States like New York and Massachusetts, both by the legislature and the courts.

The main topic of interest in English politics is Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet on the Vatican Decrees and Civil Allegiance, which he publishes in the form of an expostulation addressed to English Catholics. He declares that these decrees are at war with modern thought and ancient history; that the Papacy has refurbished and again brought into use all the old weapons which it was not many years ago thought to have for ever laid aside, (and he quotes in support of this the anathemas of the Syllabus); and that "no one can now become a convert to Rome without forfeiting his moral and mental freedom, and placing his civil loyalty and duty at the mercy of another." He recalls the complete and solemn repudiation of the doctrines now promulgated by the church, by the English and Irish Catholic clergy before Catholic Emancipation in 1829; exposes the fatuity of the distinction which confines the Pope's infallibility to matters of faith and morals, as if morals did not include the whole field of human activity; and maintains that, be he fallible or infallible, the Council exacts "absolute and entire obedience to him," and points out that under this claim a large number of matters of the utmost civil importance have in every Catholic country been declared to be of ecclesiastical concern. He demands, consequently, from English Catholics a demonstration that the Pope is, under no pretence, able to make any claim on those who adhere to his communion that will in any way "impair the integrity of their civil allegiance," and that if any such claim were made, it would be energetically repudiated. By way of showing that these fears are not chimerical, he points to the struggle in Germany, and the one impending in Austria, and asserts that the Papacy would not engage in conflicts of this kind in the physical arena, if it had not in view the promotion of an attempt to recover, through bloodshed and violence, the temporal power in Italy. He says the position he has occupied in the Liberal party during the last thirty years, and the part he has taken in making the concessions to Catholics which have placed them on a footing of

equality with their fellow-citizens, render it proper for him to make these enquiries.

The pamphlet has, as might have been expected, made a great sensation, but the press is divided as to its expediency—the weightier opinion being that Gladstone has been guilty of an indiscretion which will cause him a world of trouble. Archbishop Manning has briefly replied, in a characteristic letter, in which he declares:

"1. That the Vatican decrees have in no jot or tittle changed either the obligations or the conditions of civil allegiance.

"2. That the civil allegiance of Catholics is as undivided as that of all Christians, and of all men who recognize a divine or natural moral law.

"3. That the civil allegiance of no man is unlimited; and therefore the civil allegiance of all men who believe in God, or are governed by conscience, is in that sense divided."

He also declares that he and his flock are as loyal as Mr. Gladstone, and deprecates the stirring up of the strife which, he says, is going to bring down great public and private calamities on Germany. The key to the above declaration, however, is to be found in the fact that the Pope is the exponent of the "divine or natural moral law," and that a Catholic may say that his allegiance is limited only by the divine or moral law, when he means that it is limited only by the decisions of the head of the church. Anybody who flatters himself that he can get Archbishop Manning into an "impasse," or, as they say on the Stock Exchange, "corner" him, will find himself greatly mistaken.

The fears that most candid persons entertained as to the probable result of Professor Tyndall's excursion across the "boundary of experimental science," have been fully realized. As was pointed out by many after the delivery of his now famous address at Belfast, a scientific man had no place beyond that boundary, and could be no better off there than a theologian, and could there discern "neither the promise and potency of all terrestrial life," nor anything else, any more clearly than the Pope. Professor Tyndall speedily found all this out for himself, for in the preface to the reprint of his address, dated September 15, 1874, he met the charges of "material atheism," which the address had very naturally brought down on him, by declaring that that doctrine "did not commend itself to his mind in hours of clearness and vigor," and that "in the presence of stronger and healthier thoughts it even dissolved and disappeared." More recently, in an address delivered at Manchester, he announced that he "did not profess that creed of atheism which had been so lightly attributed to him." It is difficult, but perhaps not impossible, to reconcile this disavowal with the declaration made at Belfast, that "he discerned in matter the promise and potency of every form of life," for he may say, and we believe does now say, that what he means is that organic life may have been produced from matter without special creation; but the fact is very clear that he took up a position at Belfast, about the origin of life, which a scientific man was not called upon to take up, and which was in no way scientific, and that he has since found cause to regret having done so and to back out of it. In other words, he has been found wandering about beyond the limits of experimental science by the theologians, and not being able to give any satisfactory account of himself, has been taken into custody by them and passed back again over the line, to the mortification and embarrassment both of himself and of his friends.

The explanation of this unfortunate occurrence we take to be, that the gradual conversion of scientific associations into popular audiences, with no scientific knowledge to speak of, has had the usual effect upon the scientists who, like Professors Huxley and Tyndall, happen to have remarkable powers of expression. It tempts them into making telling and effective addresses, full of sensational hints and inuendoes, and of little digs at the theologians, and covert challenges to the intuitionists—or, in plain English, into highly unscientific performances. Both these gentlemen have now had so many encounters with the clergy on scientific ground, and have so often come off victorious, that they have got to like fighting, and have at last been carried by their bellicose zeal into the one region which ought to be closed to all true scientists. That much injury has been done to the cause of science by this last affair there is no denying. Scientific men have as such nothing to do with the origin of things or the existence of a God, and their meddling with these things, while it lends no help to philosophic speculation, brings discredit on other things. But it will do good in the end if it teaches scientific men to mind their own business.

Bismarck, nothing daunted by rebuffs, is pushing on the war vigorously against the church. One or two incidents in the struggle have led the authorities to the belief that instructions had been received from Rome calculated to force on a crisis. One was the production by the Bishop of Hildesheim of a deed assigning all his property to his sister when the police called on him to levy a fine of two hundred thalers incurred for violation of the Ecclesiastical Laws. Another was the return of priests who had been expelled from their parishes, to celebrate mass in their churches. After winking at this for a while, the Government determined to stop it, and as, in one case at Trèves, the priest escaped when mass was over by a side door, it was determined to put the police in full view of the altar during the service, and arrest him there as soon as it was at an end. This was accordingly done, three officers making the arrest in the presence of the congregation, which was a good deal excited, but there was no disorder. Of course there is something painful about all this, but it is hard to see what else the Government can do. The clergy are setting the law at defiance under orders from a foreign potentate, and in such a contest the state must perish or triumph. Moreover, there is nothing whatever in the Falk laws which in the smallest degree interferes with the discharge by the clergy of their really spiritual functions in the sense in which that term is understood by everybody but the extreme Ultramontanists. They interfere neither with the celebration of the mass, with the administration of the sacraments, nor with preaching. They do interfere, however, with the exercise of episcopal authority, as the Ultramontanes assert it, and with the secular education of the clergy, but the state, which pays the clergy, could not avoid, since the Council of the Vatican, taking these or similar precautions against the abuse of the newfangled Papal authority.

The French Assembly is to meet on the 30th inst.—that is, next Monday, and the principal topics of speculation in the French press are whether Marshal MacMahon will in his message recommend any definitive organization of the government; and, if so, what? The result of the elections so far has not thrown much light on the situation. The Republicans have made slight gains, but the Bonapartists have made relatively greater ones, though at the expense of the Monarchists; but these will now hold the balance of power, and may help to hinder the passage of constitutional laws as heretofore in any sense they please. There seems to be little doubt that the Marshal will again insist upon the establishment of a permanent form of government by the creation of a Second Chamber and of an executive office, of which he himself will be treated during his present term as the first incumbent, or, in other words, by the establishment of a political system which cannot be any day overturned by a majority of one Chamber. The country is again becoming prosperous. The vintage this year is good almost beyond example, and Dr. Holland will be shocked to hear that the whole nation is made happy and hopeful by the prospect of a magnificent yield of wine. Specie payments, too, are coming back, the foreign demand for French goods is markedly returning, and there is, in fact, little now beyond the debt and the vacant places by the firesides, and the loss of the provinces, to remind the country of the war, except the absence of an established government. The Marshal tells every one that the Septennat will last seven years, but then the Marshal may die or the Assembly may vote him out of office. In the meantime, a strong effort is being made to have the state of siege raised which is still maintained in forty of the departments.

"GOOD MEN IN OFFICE."

THE Democrats in the present Congress nominated Mr. Fernando Wood for the Speakership. Their enemies have been saying recently that they will probably do the same thing next December, and many of their friends have thought it necessary to warn them against it very solemnly, as calculated to bring them once more into deep discredit and deprive them before 1876 of the Republican support which gave them their recent victory. To this some of the Democrats have replied, by hinting that they will probably select Mr. N. P. Banks for the vacancy, and seem to be under the impression that if they do this they will satisfy all reasonable expectations and silence all cavillers. Now, the career of the two persons above-mentioned is sufficiently notorious to make it needless to say one word as to their unfitness for the Speakership, or as to the oddity of nominating them for any such position, as the first step in a reform movement. We may add that, considering that a year has to elapse before the Democrats will be called on to elect a Speaker, and that this period will probably be passed by them in reflection and consultation, it is more than likely that neither Wood nor Banks has any chance of such an honor. Moreover, absurd as it may seem to those who think the Democratic party wholly given over to evil and incapable of regeneration, we venture to predict that the Democratic party, with a fair chance of restoration to power before it, will be found, if not a wise body, a very much wiser and shrewder one than it has been during the last ten years. Defeat and hopelessness had since the war deprived the organization of discipline and even vitality, and made the leaders somewhat indifferent to its fate. They had nothing to gain by caution or exertion, and little to lose by rashness or negligence. But now there is really a tolerable prospect of their getting hold once more of the Government, and of getting hold along with it of an amount of "spoils" of which the old Democrats of the period before the war never dreamed. To ask us to believe that under these circumstances the leaders will perpetrate any of the grosser follies of their recent history, is to make a very large demand on our credulity. We believe that if the truth were known at this moment, it would be found that they are as fully alive as Mr. Conkling himself to the perils of their position, and as familiar with the things they have to do and to avoid in order not to spoil their game. In other words, for the first time in fourteen years they feel the weight of responsibility, and perceive that they are contending for a great prize with a reasonable chance of success. It is fair to suppose that this will have a steadying and illuminating effect upon them.

When we mention the talk of Wood and Banks as candidates for the Speakership, it is not because we believe that either of them has much chance of nomination or election, but because even the talk of them shows how great the difficulty is of hammering into the heads of average politicians an adequate idea of what the term "reform" just now means, and what it is in our politics that is exciting the discontent of decent people. We think we are correct in saying that "reform," as the word is now used by people outside politics, means chiefly improvement in the personal character of public men. Of course the personal character of politicians is not the only cause of this discontent. Failures on the part of the Republican party, as a party, in the matters of legislation, such as its dealing with the Southern problem and the currency question, have had a great deal to do with producing it. But when a voter at this moment says he wants "reform," he means in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred that he wants to see "good men," as he calls them, put in office, and "bad men" turned out; and by "good men" he means men who will not lie, or cheat, or steal, or get drunk, or take bribes, or vote for their own personal interest, and who understand their business—that is, the work of governing a civilized commercial people—not profoundly, but fairly and reasonably. We shall find this view strikingly confirmed if we take up any bundle of newspapers coming in from various parts of the country, or talk with any discontented Republicans, and analyze the reasons given by them for the Republican overthrow. We shall find that most prominent among these are the Crédit-Mobilier affair, or in other words the corruption, real or supposed, of leading members of Congress by a railroad company, followed by falsehood or tergiversation on the part of such members; the Salary Grab, or in other words the putting of large sums of money, wholly disproportionate to the sums paid by the Government to its servants in other than the legislative department, by Members of Congress into their own pockets as payment for their own services; the Sanborn affair, or the connivance of officers of the Treasury at the appropriation of large sums, by an adventurer of low character, for performing duties which it was the duty of the regular collectors of the revenue to perform; the Simmons affair, or the appointment of an almost unknown and by no means respected politician to an important office against both the new civil-service rules and the old party usages, in order to please a disreputable politician. The Casey and Packard affairs, the Kellogg affair, the "Boss" Shepherd affair, and various others which have brought the party to grief, might be described in the same way, *i.e.*, as examples of the influence on politics of "bad men"—in the plain, everyday acceptation of the term. So, also, if we examine the causes of the popular dissatisfaction with the leading men of the Republican party, we shall find that it is rather their personal shortcomings than their professional mistakes which trouble people. Butler, Morton, Carpenter, Cameron, and the like are decried and distrusted not because people suppose them to be wanting in ability, but because they are believed to be insincere, corrupt, or self-seeking. As long as the "main question" was uppermost in the mind of the country, these personal defects made comparatively little impression, but with its decline in importance the character of individuals has become a matter of serious national concern; and when people denounce "corruption," they do not mean an abstract vice passing by that name, but certain men who practise it, or connive at it, or take no pains to prevent it. The great aim of politicians is, of course, to get the public to think of and look at corruption as an abstraction. When they personify it at all they do not call it Butler, or Casey, or Carpenter, or Murphy, or Shepherd, but a "foul bird," or an "unclean beast," or "a upas-tree," or "a black tide," or "mire." In short, they are willing to call it anything you please or denounce it with any degree of severity, as long as you do not seek to bring it home to anybody in particular of their own party.

The difficulty of bringing about a change for the better, as regards the character of public men, has been increased somewhat by the doctrine which a good many persons who ought to have known better, have of late years allowed themselves to preach or accept, viz., that as long as a legislator or other high officer of the Government represented the average intelligence and morality of his constituents, there was no reason to complain of him. Now, it is of course very difficult, if not impossible, to say what the average intelligence and morality of any community is; it is still more difficult of course to say whether any man represents it. But suppose it to be possible to strike this average, what it means is a standard obtained by mixing up the bad and good there is in the community, and then taking the resulting compound not only as the actual state of things, but as the only state of things to be desired or looked for, and an average man as the fittest man to speak for it. There is of course a constant tendency in politics to this state of things, but the business of people who want to purify politics and make the world any better than it is, is to fight against this tendency, or at all events not to resign themselves to it. The true doctrine of representation is, that the proper man to represent any constituency is the very best man they can be got to elect, and that no community is fairly represented which is not represented by its best men. Its bad elements are entitled to representation, or to enter into the average, as a matter of legal right or of expediency, no doubt. But they have no moral right to any representation at all, or if they have, it is to that of the very best men only. The wag who declined to go West and clear a farm for himself on the ground that "the highest civilization was not a bit too good for him," grazed a very important political truth. George Washington

would not be a whit too good to represent John Morrissey's district, if he could be got for the purpose. It is from this great rule, that every man is entitled to the best if he can get it honestly, that political progress has in our day to flow, and it is only by preaching it faithfully and striving for it zealously that the future of democracy can be assured.

The application of all this to the efforts of the Democratic party to set our affairs to rights is obvious enough. If it proposes to confine its reformatory efforts to setting a lot of old political hacks of its own to undo the work, even the bad work, done by Republicans, it may rest assured that its reign will be short-lived. If, on the other hand, it can bring a larger proportion of the talent and intelligence of the country to bear on its legislation and administration, or, in other words, introduce a fresh element into our political life, it may be assured of a long reign. We want our governmental affairs conducted in a manner more closely resembling that on which our great corporations are conducted. Nobody ever thinks, when looking out for a railroad or bank president, of trying to find a man for the office who will closely resemble the shrewdest and most foolish of the stockholders rolled into one. They try to find a man who will be the equal of the very best stockholder, no matter how good he may be; and if they do not always get him, they never pretend that "the average man" is the right one for the place, and, above all, they never put up, if they can help it, with a man who steals the securities and uses the bank funds for his personal advantage, and laughs when they ask him for an account.

THE "BLOATED BONDHOLDER."

It is not so very many years since a large body of eminent public teachers and statesmen, so-called, perambulated our country loudly enunciating a political faith, not unpopular at the time, which was tersely expressed in the dogma that "black men had no rights which white men were bound to respect." If we remember correctly, this code of political ethics was in vogue about the year 1858; at which period it received its fullest development in the State of Illinois at the lips of the late Stephen A. Douglas. That black men have a great many rights which white men are bound to respect is now quite generally conceded; but the pleasing doctrine, as old as history and as widespread as creation, that the rights of certain persons or things are matters which rest entirely in the pleasure of certain other persons or things—this familiar old doctrine is always giving some evidence of a brisk and hearty old age. For the apostles of this creed also, Illinois seems to be quite a favorite "stamping-ground"; for just as it was the black and white man in 1858 whose relative rights were so very questionable in that State, so in these latter years it is the bondholder and the Granger. The black man, however, in his time enjoyed one decided advantage over the bondholder now—though he may have been despised, he was not ridiculous. This aspect of the present controversy raging in the Granger States has hardly received its full share of consideration, and we now propose to try to do scant justice to it. That we may properly do so, let us first for a moment try to conceive what the bondholder is in the imaginings of the uncontaminated Granger. He is something of a very hideous mien; his purse is swollen with ill-gotten gains; his face is hard; his eye is cold and clear; his heart is as a flint; he goeth forth throughout all the broad West and reapeth where he hath not sown. Whoever loses, he wins. He is a usurer, almost a robber; he toils not, neither does he spin; his life is spent to no useful purpose, but his greatest pleasure as well as sole occupation is the raking of the hard-earned pittance of the children of the prairie into coffers already overflowing.

Such, or somewhat of this kind, is the Granger ideal of the bondholder. As an offset to the picture, we do not hesitate to say that a more ridiculous attitude is not easily to be conceived than that now occupied by these same "bloated bondholders." Not only are they belabored and berated and abused, but they have lost their money; and not only have they lost their money, but they have lost it to those by whom they are thus abused, berated, and belabored. It is really lamentable that the Granger should not at least be gifted with a more acute sense of the ludicrous.

A few weeks ago there appeared in the columns of the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle* a long array of figures showing the amount of railroad bonds upon which no interest was now paid. The result was absolutely startling, amounting as it did to five hundred millions of dollars, or one-quarter part of the entire amount of our railroad indebtedness, and equal to more than a quarter part of our whole interest-bearing national debt. In the light of such figures as these, the late financial crisis is no matter for wonderment. With that, however, we do not now propose to deal; our immediate object is simply to call attention to the true significance of these figures in a single point of view. In plain English, they mean this—simply this, and nothing more:—Certain regions of the United States, and more especially of the West, were thought to stand in pressing need of perfected means of communication with other regions of the country. Certain persons dwelling in those other parts of the country had capital, the accumulation of years of industry, which they desired to invest profitably. Tempted by the prospect of large gains, they invested that capital in supplying their neighbors with the means of communication which they so greatly coveted. In its immediate results the investment proved far from judicious; the simple fact was that one neighbor had bought a new farm "too far West," and the other had spent his money building a road to it; and when he got there he found no business in sufficient quantity to justify his investment. The farms were undeniably improved, and equally undeniably the roads became bankrupt. Notwithstanding this, however, neither roads nor the capital in them could be removed from the region in which they had been placed, and it only remained for those who had built the one and invested the other to make the best of a bad bargain and hope for better times. The position of affairs was exactly the same as if the bondholder had loaned the farmer so many millions of dollars with which to improve his farm; the farmer had then proved unable to pay his interest, and had stopped doing so, and the bondholder thereupon, having no mortgage, found himself compelled to wait as best he might until such time as the other could pay, letting him have the use of his capital, meanwhile, for nothing. At first blush, such an arrangement certainly does not seem one at which the farmer at any rate ought to complain. He has got his means of communication, he has got his improved farm, and he has got his borrowed capital without the necessity of paying any interest upon it. What more could he ask for? With the bondholder the case is very different; he asks for his interest, and he gets—the roundest of abuse. Now, that the farmer should laugh and chuckle every time that he looks at the railroad and thinks of the terms on which he got it, would seem natural enough; that he should wink and jeer and gibe and thrust his tongue into his cheek whenever he speaks of a railroad bondholder, would be thoroughly in accordance with the natural fitness of things. But, on the contrary, that he should, whenever he has occasion to refer to the poor, greedy dupes who had thus readily parted with their means, load them with abuse, is, to say the least, unkind. Such, however, is the melancholy fact. The "bloated bondholder," staggering along under his load of five hundred millions of defaulting securities, is the tyrant of our day, and loud is the cry his neighbor raises against him, because he has, to his own great loss, developed that neighbor's farm.

Now, let us see which of the neighbors it is who have secured for themselves the largest portion of this unremunerated wealth. The result is rather singular, for we uniformly find that those States in which the abuse of the "bloated bondholder" is the loudest—in which the largest portions of the $500,000,000 have been secured—are those in which the least interest is paid. Take Illinois, for instance. That prosperous and wealthy State is the creation of railroads, all built by foreign capital. The "bloated bondholder" has certainly played a very considerable part in the wonderful history of that community. He now, as nearly as can be ascertained,

holds something over $45,000,000 of their dishonored railroad securities. At the lowest conceivable estimate, these represent at least $30,000,000 of real wealth, for the full enjoyment of which the people of Illinois at present pay no consideration whatever. To those who contributed that wealth it may perhaps seem a little hard that they should throughout Illinois be popularly denounced as miscreants in whom are happily combined the worst qualities of the tyrant and the thief. That the Illinois railroad bondholder is *prima facie* an ass we think that very few will be disposed to deny, and least of all the members themselves of that unfortunate class; that just now he is in a condition rather of depletion than of unseemly "bloat" would seem fairly inferable; that every engine of legislation should be directed against him to aggravate the unpleasantness of his situation seems somewhat unnecessary; but that he should be abused like a pickpocket, and so made ridiculous in his own eyes as well as in those of his neighbors, is positively cruel. It is insult piled upon injury.

But let us proceed with our investigations. If Illinois gets forty-two per cent. of its railroad indebtedness for nothing, Iowa would seem to do still better, the percentage there rising as high as forty-seven. The aggregate of "free" capital in that State is, it is true, less than in Illinois, but it still amounts to the comfortable sum of $23,000,000—a matter in these days not to be despised. Next on the list to Iowa, however, comes the champion State; there is none other like her. Kansas stands alone, in that she has secured a very remarkable railroad system without apparently paying anything for it at all; it is, of course, almost unnecessary to add that nowhere is the "bloated bondholder" an object of more hatred or persecution. Kansas boasts of a trifle less than seventy-one millions of railroad indebtedness, and her soil is believed not to be polluted by a single railroad corporation which pays the interest on its bonds. It is sincerely to be hoped that the holders of the securities in question fully appreciate the humorous features of the situation, for there is little enough else in it to make it attractive. Leaving Kansas and going north, we find Minnesota not far behind her Granger sisters. Omitting the Northern Pacific from consideration, she boasts of $35,000,000 of "free" capital out of a total of $55,000,000; Nebraska has $7,000,000; Wisconsin has $5,000,000. Here, now, are six States—the six great Granger States—the six States in which the war against the bondholder is most fiercely waged—most incredibly waged, we may say, when these returns and tables reveal the curious fact that these States represent through their railroad systems one hundred and eighty-three millions of dollars in securities on which no interest at all is now paid. Including the Northern Pacific Railway, it would appear that these communities are for the present enjoying the free use of what represents $200,000,000 of wealth, which cannot be withdrawn from them. That the bondholder must once have been "bloated" would, in view of such tremendous losses, seem highly probable; just as it seems scarcely possible that he now exists outside of a poor-house. To him the mania which has swept over the country has brought only a lesson of bitter experience, in that his own folly and over-eagerness for gain have left him depleted, denounced, and ludicrous. It is, however, some comfort to reflect that in this case what one man loses another man gains, and the time will surely come when even the Grangers will realize that the man who ties up his money in improving at his own risk another man's farm may be very foolish, but he is, after all, neither a bad tyrant nor a good usurer.

WAITERS AND WAITRESSES.

I.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH has just written an article in the *Canadian Monthly* on American socialism, in which he gives as one of the reasons why so many of the socialistic communities have succeeded, the insufferable and growing dulness of family life as it exists among people of average means and intelligence, not on farms only nor in country towns, but even in cities; and this dulness he ascribes in large part to the absence of social intercourse. The days follow and resemble each other in most homes, at least in Anglo-Saxon countries, with almost killing regularity; the husband comes back after a hard day's work to a poorly cooked and poorly served dinner or tea, which he eats in silence in company with his wife, whose stock of ideas he has long ago exhausted, as indeed she has his. Social relations between the household and the outer world can, indeed, hardly be said to exist. He sees business men on business matters; she at most exchanges a dry and barren "call" at long intervals with other women of her acquaintance. Except perhaps the affairs of the church to which they belong, the couple have no external object of interest. No current of thought or feeling from the outer world ever reaches them except through the newspaper or magazine. In fact, it might be said without much exaggeration that the only time they take any formal notice of their neighbors' existence or their neighbors' affairs is when somebody happens to fall sick. A man may live next door to them for twenty years in good health, with many estimable and engaging qualities, and perhaps with considerable capacity for supplying social entertainment, and they will never notice his existence or display the slightest interest in his welfare beyond bowing to him in the street. Let him be confined to his bed, however, by an influenza or a broken leg, and although they may know perfectly well that he has the best of medical attendance and is supplied with every necessary comfort, they will send him, without the slightest knowledge of his tastes or wants, plates of jelly or pudding or fruit, which, in nine cases out of ten, is eaten by his children or servants, though the dish or basket is sent home with as much expression of thankfulness as if the indifference of years could be atoned for by a small occasional contribution to his larder, or as if the dull monotonous days of health and work were not the periods of a man's life when he most needed expressions of sympathetic regard.

Now, there can be little doubt that at the bottom of this social failure of the Anglo-Saxon race there lies its culinary failure. There is nothing more striking in its civilization, as has been often remarked, than its inability to make any progress worth mention in the preparation of food. The modern American or English family of the middle class—that is, of the class which is neither rich nor very poor—sits down every day to substantially the same fare as Hengst and Horsa when those two chiefs landed in Britain. Some additions have, of course, since then been made to the list of our edibles, particularly in the matter of vegetables, and there is more refinement in table appointments and in table manners; but we still prepare a meal, as the early Saxons did, by killing an animal and roasting or boiling the whole of it, or a piece of it, at a strong fire, and serving it in its own juice; and among the larger proportion of us, the savage dislike or distrust of the disguises caused by the more elaborate preparations and combinations of the French and other nations still survives with curious vigor. What is, however, a still more remarkable feature of our civilization, is the production, as the result of increased literary and moral culture and of the growth of wealth, among some of a certain contempt for eating and drinking as a low form of animal indulgence; among others of a strong determination to sacrifice the table to books and clothes and other more permanent and ostentatious forms of enjoyment; and among others, again, of a sort of shyness about eating with strangers, or admitting them to the family board, unless the meal possesses the variety and richness of a feast. The general consequence has been the degradation of the table among all but the very rich from an instrument or adjunct of social pleasure and of cheerful intercourse with one's fellows into a mere means of sustaining life, and the assimilation, in form as well as in fact, of the process of putting food into the human stomach to that of supplying coal to the furnaces of a steamboat. Apropos of this, there are few things in literature more melancholy or yet more droll than the efforts of many of our Sentimentalist friends—who, as might be expected, look on food with a certain amount of spiritual aversion—to persuade people through their papers and magazines that eating and drinking are by no means necessary to social enjoyment, and than the tales they tell of "a Boston lady of high culture," or of "a well-known philanthropist no less famed for his ripe scholarship than for his powers as a conversationalist," who used to have Attic evenings at her or his house over a meal composed of twelve stalks of celery and a bowl of lemonade, or of a dish of potato salad, or "some exquisite blanc-mange prepared by a bright young magazinist, whose last tale had made a genuine sensation in literary circles."

If there be a race in the world, however, which needs to have its social instincts stimulated by all possible external aids, it is that which has made its home, and supplied the basis for the social fabric, in England and the United States; and there is probably no other race on which the effects of a lonely feeding are so bad. For it is neither gregarious nor loquacious. It is solitary in its tastes and habits, moody, self-reliant, unsympathetic. The love of company, of saying something to somebody for the mere sake of say-

ing it, and even though it were the same thing that was said yesterday and a thousand other days before, which will enable a Frenchman to get genuine enjoyment from going to the same house and seeing the same people four evenings in the week for ten years in succession, is unknown among us. We take our pleasure sadly still, and take it with a secret sense of its vanity and sinfulness. The final result of our intellectual and moral culture inclines us to look on our fellow-man not as another human being to be loved, consoled, welcomed, or entertained, and allowed to go on his way rejoicing, but as a reprobate for whose salvation we are in a measure responsible, and whom we are bound to "save" or "elevate," or in some manner stir up and keep moving at any cost. As soon as any one of us begins to look at life at all seriously, he charges himself with the cure of souls, and enters on his duty with a solemnity which makes social intercourse seem a form of light-mindedness and profanity. Now, this morbid tendency, so full of danger to character, and so likely to form a crust under which greed and cunning hypocrisy may work their will unheeded and unchecked, derives much and unfortunate confirmation from all hindrances to social intercourse, and among these there is none more powerful than our dislike of allowing strangers to eat with us, and the false and unscientific notion which makes the supplying of the body with food the discharge of a coarse function, which wise men ought to keep private. This hallucination, too, has been fed and strengthened both by the growing luxury with which the rich surround their repasts, and by the extreme badness of the servants. The average man, in other words, dislikes bringing a friend home to his everyday dinner, both because he has acquired the notion that a dinner to which you ask a stranger ought to be something in the nature of a feast or "a banquet," as the reporters say, and because he foresees that the servants by whom his table is served will work so badly under a foreign eye as to distress his wife, distract his own thoughts, and embarrass his guest. For the first of these hindrances there is but one remedy, and that is the preaching of sound doctrine by those who find preaching their vocation, and the carrying out by those who have homes of "the great truth"—as the Sentimentalists say—that the eating of a meal in common by a family, in a decent and orderly manner, is, be the fare never so plain, a respectable and dignified act, and is as worthy of reverence and attention as the sacrifices by which the Roman husband consecrated and preserved his home, and cannot be too much cultivated and beautified; furthermore, that it furnishes the fittest, most fruitful and human occasion for seeing and talking with a friend; and that, in short, the position it holds in popular estimation is an indication by no means vague or inaccurate of the degree of civilization to which any given community has attained. The notion, not yet extinct among us, that dinner is simply feeding-time, and that you should not ask a person to it unless you have very attractive fare to give him, is essentially a barbarous notion, and, in fact, is a survival of the period when food was literally prey, and the man retired into the jungle to consume it from motives of prudence, just as the dog goes apart to gnaw his bone. The civilized view of the "mealtime" is that it is a period when conversation can be most readily enlivened, and the sympathies quickened by the aid of the process of physical reparation performed under the most favorable conditions.

In treating of the second hindrance, we touch on the cookery question of course, which is a very large one, which has been already very fully and very frequently discussed, and on which we have nothing either novel or useful to say. But as regards the service of the table, there is a great deal to be said besides what is usually said—which consists in somewhat unreasoning abuse of the Irish peasant-girls who, for the most part, do the duty of performing it in American families. With their faults everybody is familiar; but as they are the only kind of waiters now attainable or likely to be attainable, there is something childish in continually wailing over their badness. In all the lamentations about them, it is taken for granted that they cannot possibly be improved, and this assumption there are some very good reasons for believing ill founded. Neither the Irish girl nor any other girl can be converted into a good waiter unless her employers have a proper ideal of waiting in their minds, and desire to realize it. Waiting at table is an art in which there are various degrees of excellence, but in which, like other arts, no degree of excellence is to be attained without training. It is an art, too, in which, doubtless, proficiency is more often found in countries in which there is a class which has always made waiting its chief business and highest ambition, and in which there is another class which makes being waited upon a hereditary right. But the existence of neither is necessary to good waiting, if people who are training waiters know exactly what they want, and their ideal be a correct one. When we say that silence, and what we may, for want of a better name, call imperceptibility, are among the chief requisites of waiting, or, in other words, that waiting should be so done as to attract the least possible amount of the diner's attention and conceal from him as effectually as possible that his wants are being supplied by any physical agency, we pass the severest condemnation on the kind of waiting which some years ago was common in American hotels, and which thousands of simple folk, who never saw any other, were accustomed to look on as a fine and indeed awe-inspiring manner of serving food—we mean that in which a large force of negroes or Irishmen took their places, with a loud racket, in lines behind the guests' chairs, each with two dishes poised aloft in his hands, and, at a signal given by the head waiter, brought them down on the table with what a drill-sergeant would call "a smart rattle," the diners all the while sitting in somewhat uneasy and watchful suspense.

This was a thoroughly barbarous ceremony, but it was in all respects worthy of meals to which people were summoned by a gong, an instrument which should never be used to call men or women to any repast not composed of human flesh. Its sound should be always and properly reserved for cannibal feasts, and should be answered only at the double-quick and with cries of savage joy. It has, we are glad to say, gone out of use everywhere, except on steamboats and in the remoter regions of the West, where the hotel guests wait for their dinners in a compact mass at the locked door, and, as soon as it is opened, cast themselves on their food in a rush, like a pack of hounds. Even hotel waiting has now had generally a fair amount of silence infused into it. The evolutions of the waiters are not made a prominent feature of the dinner, and the guests are left to inform themselves of its readiness, as civilized men and women in our day should be, by their watches. Watches and punctuality are the civilized substitutes for gongs, bells, horns, tom-toms, and other ancient or barbarous modes of bringing people together. Even church bells are an anachronism, which association has hallowed; and when a bell *has* to be rung to announce a meal in a private house, it ought to be barely loud enough to attract attention. No row or uproar of any kind should precede a modern meal; if we are to herald it by artificial noise, it ought to be music. Moreover, no servant coming to announce dinner ought to halloo at the mistress of the house, or speak louder than is absolutely required, or speak at all, if any other signal will suffice. Nothing, in short, should as a general rule be allowed to interfere with conversation before or after a repast. And this will apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to all excessive or odd ornamentation of the table or its surroundings which is calculated to distract the mind of the guests, or interrupt their view of each other, or in any manner exalt the material side of the occasion unduly, at the expense of the moral and intellectual side. All this may be called the philosophy of the table service. About the details, as the china, the glass, the linen, the cutlery, the order of courses, any more than about the cookery, we have no message to deliver. The reader will find all that is known or thought of on these subjects in the voluminous literature of gastronomy and "household art." But we shall reserve until next week some other things which we think, if not new, are worth repeating, about the method of getting decent table-service out of the kind of persons who in this country are willing to make it a profession.

LAMARTINE.

I.

PARIS, November 5.

I HAVE spent many an evening at Monsieur de Lamartine's house in the Rue de la Ville l'Evêque. Two ladies used to do the honors of his *salon*, which was open every evening; one was Madame de Lamartine, and the other Mademoiselle Valentine de Cessiot, the niece of the great poet, who has assumed his name since his death, and is now called Mademoiselle de Lamartine. The name indeed belonged to her; she had completely identified herself with her uncle, her fortune became his fortune, she nursed him in his malady, she lived for nobody but him. If any man has the right to inspire such a devotion—a devotion which sometimes is almost suicidal—it is the poet; for he hardly belongs to himself: he is inspired, the living instrument of high and divine thoughts. Mademoiselle Valentine (I may be excused for calling her by the simple name she bore in her uncle's house) has already published four volumes of the correspondence of Lamartine. Volumes III. and IV. have only just appeared. You will perhaps be surprised if I say that, in a literary sense, nothing can be more commonplace than this correspondence. Lamartine had evidently not the slightest pretension to epistolary eminence; he never made, in reality, an effort in his life; and the beauty of his poetry is owing in a great part to the ease and, if I may say so, to the liquidity of his style. The poetical form, the necessities of the rhyme, gave of course a rhythmical and condensed form to his ideas; the ideas themselves are always of the most simple sort. Lamartine dwells on the eternal subjects of love and death, on the beauties of nature, and so on; his muse is lazy, like an Oriental sultana. In his prose works, and even more in

this newly-published correspondence, we see quite *au nu* this innate laziness, this nonchalance full of grace. His verses always make one think of the easy draperies of Greek art, falling in such rich and long folds. His letters cannot be read with *ennui*, because they are his letters; but there is nothing in them which could be cited, like so many passages in Madame de Sévigné or Madame Du Deffant, Paul Louis Courier, and some others. The correspondence has, however, one great interest: it is the real biography of Lamartine—a biography which has never been written, and which deserves considerable attention. The 'Confidences,' written by himself, are not a real biography; the actual life of Lamartine cannot be found in it any more than in 'Graziella,' 'Raphaël,' and the short commentaries which have been added to the 'Meditations' in their last editions.

Lamartine entered, so to speak, into glory out of complete obscurity. The 'Meditations' appeared in 1820, and, if I am not mistaken, thirty-two editions of them were published the same year. Here was something new—so different from the light poetry of the eighteenth century; such a noble and perfect form, such a sublime serenity! The cold-hearted Talleyrand read the 'Meditations,' and said: "There is a man!" But who was the man? Lamartine had for his mother Alix des Roys, who was born in the palace of St. Cloud, as she was the daughter of a member of the household of the Duke of Orleans. The Duke made her a *chanoinesse*, when she was fifteen years old, in the Chapter of Salles (the *chanoinesses* did not make any vows). The Chevalier de Lamartine, a cavalry officer, sometimes paid visits to Salles; he fell in love with Mlle. des Roys; he had large estates and she had no fortune; he married her and took her to Milly. Alphonse de Lamartine was born at Mâcon the 21st October, 1790. His father had gone back to Paris to offer his services to the king; he was wounded in an *émeute* in the Tuileries and escaped to Mâcon. All his relations were thrown in prison. The Chevalier was kept a prisoner in his own home. Madame de Lamartine implored the deputies of the Convention, and saved the life of her husband till the 9th Thermidor put an end to the Terror. The Chevalier returned to Milly; Lamartine has told the history of their journey in his 'Mémoires'; the roads were so bad that Madame de Lamartine, her three children (for she had had two children since the birth of Alphonse), an old friend of the family, the servants, the furniture, were drawn by oxen; as for the Chevalier he followed the caravan on foot, with his gun under his arm.

Lamartine has often described Milly; there his young mind was formed, imbued with all the tenderness of his mother and the quiet beauty of nature. He entered in 1803 the College of Belley, kept by Jesuits, and formed an early intimacy with Aymon de Virieu, who became afterwards his most constant correspondent. He began to write verses at the age of fifteen. He was very handsome—tall, thin, with an innate elegance; pious, lazy, of delicate health. He embraced no profession, contented, after leaving school, to live with his family, with his uncles, his aunts, reading all sorts of books. He had some desire to study the law, but his uncle, whose large fortune he was to inherit, would not hear of a Lamartine being a lawyer; nor any more would his family see him enter the armies of a Bonaparte. He spent a few months in 1810 at Lyons; his letters of that time contain no allusion to political events; he is much more occupied with the small debts which he has contracted in Lyons. He writes about them in verse to his friend Guichard:

> "A dix neuf ans mon front sera couvert,
> Des ennuis d'une vie à peine commencée,
> Et d'un vieux créancier la main sèche et glacée
> Le couvrira bientôt d'un honteux bonnet vert."

The *bonnet vert* means bankruptcy. We must of course expect him to fall in love, and to swear that his love will be eternal. "Yes, my friend," he writes to Guichard, "pity me, cry over me. I love for life. I no longer belong to myself, and I have no hope of being happy. Everything separates us, though everything unites us." In common language, the family of Mlle. P——, with whom he was in love, wished him to take a profession, and he had a strong dislike to any occupation. He consoles himself with a journey to Italy. "Je traine, je promène, je berce par toute l'Italie mes ennuis déchirants." Does not this prose read almost like verse? In Naples he was detained a long time by his love of the beautiful and, it is almost cruel to add, by his debts. He remains, for want of a few ducats, and falls in love with Graziella. The correspondence gives no precise indications about this poetical person; we only learn that she came from Procida, and was under the care of a young Neapolitan girl twenty-six years old, who was the *surveillante* of the girls employed in the manufacture of cigars. Graziella became afterwards a heroine, but she does not seem to have played a great part in Lamartine's real existence. The girl of Procida, whom the poet worshipped all his life, whom he sang in most admirable verses, was the image of his own youth.

On his return to Milly, he becomes morose; he runs away to Paris; he begins to gamble—a taste which he probably acquired at Naples; he runs into debt again. His mother goes after him, pays his debts, and brings him back to Burgundy. This was a short time before the invasion of France and the restoration of the Bourbons. The Chevalier went at once to do his homage to his king, and asked him to give his son a place among the Gardes de Corps. The young guardsman accompanied Louis XVIII. to the frontier of Belgium, after the return of Napoleon, and himself retired to Mâcon and to Switzerland. When Louis XVIII. returned after Waterloo, Lamartine was already disgusted with the duties of military service. His friend Virieu had just been made a secretary of legation; Lamartine wished also to enter into diplomacy, but he had not enough influence to be accepted by the Foreign Office. He got sick, went to Aix-en-Savoie, and there fell in love with Madame Charles, a young creole, who was married to an old member of the Academy of Science; he afterwards told the history of this platonic affection in 'Raphaël,' of course with many details drawn from his imagination. He returned to Paris, and offered some verses to the famous publisher Didot, who refused to publish them, as they were too little in accordance with the taste of the day. Madame Charles, who was consumptive, died in 1817; and Lamartine wrote after her death the meditation on the 'Crucifixe.' About that time also he wrote the 'Lake,' which may be considered as his *chef-d'œuvre*. His genius was at the very highest point of its development; and he was thoroughly unhappy. He was disappointed in every way. His lyric poems had been refused by Didot. He had sent, through his friend Virieu, a tragedy to the Theâtre Français. Talma, the famous Talma, heard the verses of 'Saul'; he declared that they had merit, but the piece could not be played. Immediately after this new misfortune, Lamartine writes the splendid piece called 'Désespoir.' Why cannot every soul echo misfortune with such a voice?

Lamartine was now twenty-eight years old, and in debt. "When any one," he writes, "has put his foot in this mire, he can never draw it out." He forms the wildest schemes; he thinks at times of cultivating a desert island near the coast of Tuscany. His fame, however, was slowly beginning to spread. The Duke of Orleans, who afterwards became Louis Philippe, invited him to read his 'Saul' in his *salon*. Some noblemen of the Faubourg St. Germain, hearing of a young nobleman who wrote religious verses, a thing unknown since the time of Corneille, made advances to him. His mother, who always treated him with the greatest tenderness, and who consoled him in all his troubles, was anxious to settle him in life, if it could not be by the choice of a career, by a happy marriage. Miss Birch was in 1818 living at Chambéry; she heard of a young poet whom enthusiastic friends compared to Lord Byron. She was not handsome. Madame de Lamartine, the mother of the poet, writes that she had "much *agrément*, much grace, a fine waist, superb hair, a remarkable education, much talent, and a superior mind." Lamartine was tired of his inactivity, of his restless life; but Miss Birch was a Protestant, and he was not only a Catholic—he was a Catholic poet. For a time this union seemed impossible, and Lamartine left Chambéry, where he had paid his court to Miss Birch. He wrote, on his return to Mâcon, the Ode to Byron, with whom the young English lady had made him better acquainted.

Meanwhile his friends in Paris used their influence in his favor, and when M. Pasquier entered the Foreign Office Lamartine was encouraged to return to Paris. He took with him the manuscript of the 'Meditations.' Everything now smiled on him; he entered into the best French society; he found an editor in the person of Charles Gosselin. It is interesting to know how much he received for his great work—one which will last as long as the French language: six hundred francs. The 'Meditations' took France and the world by surprise; Lamartine became at once more than a favorite—a sort of demigod; his extraordinary beauty added to this general impression; he was, as it were, a living Apollo. The oldest statesmen, such as Talleyrand, considered his acquaintance an honor; Decazes, Molé, Mathieu de Montmorency treated him like a friend. It is needless to say that in the female part of the community admiration became a kind of worship. Lamartine, however, was so little practical, he had such a disdain of money, that he sold the second edition of the 'Meditations' for the wretched sum of twelve hundred francs. Miss Birch accepted his hand. She felt for him that intense enthusiasm which is, perhaps, only found among the ladies of the Anglo-Saxon race; and this enthusiasm was as strong and vivid in her when she became an old woman as when she was still a girl. The Catholic marriage took place at Chambéry the 6th June, 1820, and the Protestant marriage a few days afterwards at Geneva. Lamartine and his wife then made their wedding-tour in Italy. He had been named Secretary of Legation almost immediately after the publication of the 'Meditations.' His wife had brought him what was then considered a splendid fortune. Edition after edition of the 'Meditations' spread his fame all over the world. He became a classic in his own lifetime.

Correspondence.

PHILOLOGY LAWFUL AND LAWLESS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: A short time ago I took occasion to criticise Mr. Alexander J. Ellis's rejection of *scientist* for 'man of science' on the alleged ground of its "barbarity," *barbarism* being of course intended. I showed that *scientist* may legitimately be founded on *scienti-*, the base of *scientia;* just as *dentist, jurist,* and *oculist* are referable to the bases *denti-, juri-,* and *oculi-*.

In matters of philology, "barbarity," Mr. Ellis tells us, "should . . . merely mean a foreigner's application of his own habits of speech to roots taken from other languages," and should not mean, he further tells us, "savage and uncivilized life."

Scientist, which he peremptorily analyzes into *scient* + *-ist,* and declares to be an Americanism, he writes about exactly as if he took it to be a typical specimen of American word-coinage.

In our asserted combination, as aforesaid, of *scient* and *-ist,* we have, it seems, exemplified "our application of our own habits of speech," etc. If, however, it be our wont, any more than it is the wont of the English, to amalgamate elements of words in this crude fashion, at least a fair sample of the resulting monsters should have been exhibited.

Yet not a single one is pointed out, while, on the other hand, Mr. Ellis specifies, with approval, "the Americanism" *pharmacal,* which also should owe its origin to "our application of our own habits of speech," and the rest. *Pharmacist,* too, is not objected to by Mr. Ellis, who may require to be told that the word is of everyday occurrence in the United States, and even is the name of a periodical published there. It should console barbarians to discover that, thanks to mere untutored instinct, they may every now and then stumble into a tenable position.

From φάρμακον we may as regularly make *pharmacal,* as *phenomena* from φαινόμενον or *noumenal* from νοούμενον. As to *pharmacist,* that the Greeks would have owned φαρμακιστὴς to be regular, is plain from the recognition of φαρμακίστρια, presupposing φαρμακιστὴρ, the duplicate of which would be φαρμακιστὴς, from the factitious φαρμακίζω. We have, as actual words, θεραπεύτρια and its antecedents θεραπευτὴρ and θεραπευτὴς.

Mr. Ellis, as I judge from the letter of his to which I am referring, would doubtless accept this as sound etymologizing of the old school. Yet more than such an acceptance I can hardly expect from him. In the letter in question I find some statements which look very strange, considering that they come from the late President of the English Philological Society. He says, for instance: "I have long doubted, for reasons far too many to unfold," whether "there is such a thing as legitimacy in word-formation." He writes of "that very rough and rude system of compounding words which we have inherited from our Aryan ancestors." Again: "All our present word-system is a field inherited from the uncivilized, and traditionally tilled without a scrap of scientific cultivation." Once more: "I feel that root-formation must have a new start, and that root-treatment by derivations through affixes and internal changes, and by compositions of half-words or letters, . . . must undergo a 'conscious development' to supplement its former unconscious development."

Acting on his convictions thus announced, Mr. Ellis proceeds to propose *uty* for what he calls "that fearful word," *utilitarianism,* and *utians* for "another awful word," *utilitarians. Philologists* and *philology* he likewise wishes to cut down to *phillogs* and *phillogy.*

"Words are the garment of thought; as thought grows, it must have fresh suits." Such is his parting dictum, and its truth is not to be gainsaid. It may, however, safely be submitted whether thought, when it takes to growing so outrageously awry as to require *utians* and *phillogs* to cover the nakedness which *utilitarians* and *philologists* have so long been able to conceal satisfactorily, had not better be stifled with all convenient speed, and put out of a world either too good or too bad to lend accommodation to its abnormal development. The sum of Mr. Ellis's teaching appears to be that something other than established analogies should govern us in our conscious efforts to enlarge or improve the domains of our current vocabulary. I need not dwell on the incongruousness of the mixture which would result from associating words formed on the new plan with those already formed on the old, for the latter would, no question, go on satisfying as before all but transcendental philosophers. It is enough to insist that words still wanted should in general follow the models of those we possess at present; and utility, euphony, and every other consideration, rational or æsthetic, must count as lawless that pseudo-philology which would amplify our language or modify it on principles such as have been operative in no ages but those of very partial enlightenment. The verbal irregularities which have been handed down to us are quite numerous enough; and we shall do well to study to diminish this class of anomalies rather than take it as exemplary.

—Your obedient servant, Fitzedward Hall.

Marlesford, Wickham Market, Oct. 25, 1874.

"SUBSOILING" AND ITS ANTIDOTE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: "J. C.'s" account of "subsoiling" will sound familiar in every voting district of the State, if not of the country; and his conclusions hardly less so that the remedy is not to be found in the attendance of voters at the primary meetings. Experience has demonstrated, *ad nauseam,* that independent voters will not expose themselves to the insult and humiliation they must undergo at the hands of professional politicians. The sooner, therefore, we recognize this fact, the sooner we shall begin to make progress in another direction.

Judge Hoar sacrificed himself to his constituents during one term. The reason why he refused to do so again, and why all men of character and ability draw back from it, lies in the position of a member of Congress and the manner of doing business there. Individual talent and character count comparatively for nothing. A seat in Congress is not a stepping-stone to win honor by public service. All the advantage which can honestly be derived from it is in the possession of the place and the receipt of the salary. It tends inevitably to fall, therefore, into the hands of men who can win no other honor or no greater income, or, on the other hand, into those of knaves who pursue the hope of greater but dishonest gain.

Without pursuing further this comprehensive subject, however, there is one concrete and definite arrangement which is the foundation and basis of the caucus system—the absurd restriction as to the residence of a member of the Legislature or of Congress in his own district. The logic and the effect of it are about equivalent to saying that no man should employ a lawyer or a doctor who does not live in his own town. The pretext for it is that a resident knows the wants of his district better than a stranger; but it is far less important that a representative should *know* those wants than that he should endeavor to satisfy them, and if we use the word in any elevated sense, there could hardly be a greater failure than under our present system. Even if the restriction were removed, there is nothing to prevent the people from electing a resident. Their freedom of choice would simply be enlarged. The fact is, that this provision, like so many other of our political arrangements, while nominally in the interest of the people, is really in that of individuals who wish to make use of the people for their own purposes.

A similar restriction was proposed in a recent plan for a French constitution, upon which the London *Spectator* commented as follows:

"It binds the highest statesmen to conciliate their own departments at any cost, or terminate their careers at each election, and disables any man popular with the country, but unpopular with his neighborhood, from standing at all. It gives to local jealousies the force of national feelings, and often compels electors to choose a fool because he is a neighbor, in preference to a statesman from just over the border. The professed object of the proviso is that the candidate may be known by his electors, but the real one is to prevent stupid landholders [we should say caucus politicians] from being opposed in their own districts by more popular or able men."

It is admitted that Dr. Ayer could have been beaten by Judge Hoar, but the refusal of the latter disabled the electors. If the malcontents could have invited a distinguished candidate from another part of the State, they would have had even a better chance, because a man of ability often excites personal jealousies in his district, which, on the principle of *omne ignotum pro magnifico,* a stranger would avoid.

In like manner, a man who wishes to promote a measure of public importance has no chance unless he can persuade his district; whereas, if he could canvass the State himself or by his friends, he might find a constituency to appreciate him. In England, for these very reasons, no such thing as a caucus is known.

But this leads to a point of still wider and deeper significance. Last winter I argued this question before the Judiciary Committee of our Legislature. They expressed themselves as quite satisfied, and reported in favor of a constitutional amendment. The House suppressed it instantly without debate, and it was even said that the Chairman of the Committee lost influence in a sensible degree. The members saw at once that it struck at the principle to which they owed their seats. The received idea is that reforms must be accomplished *by and through* the legislature; whereas they will need to be carried *against* the legislature. Nearly all our political abuses are bound up with the interest of the legislative bodies as at present constituted. Not only at Washington but in the States, and even the cities, this branch has absorbed or annihilated the powers both of the executive and the judiciary. The two latter have no power o appeal to or communi-

cation with, the people, except through the legislature, which strains out in the passage all that does not suit its interests, and colors the remainder. The first step to reform must be to give the executive an independent position, so that in its conflicts with the legislature each may act as a real check upon the other, public opinion standing by as umpire. This may not be easy of accomplishment, but it is a *sine quâ non*. G. B.

BOSTON, Oct. 25, 1874.

HOW BUTLER WAS DEFEATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "A." writing from Haverhill, under date of November 6, on the defeat of Butler, grossly misrepresents the facts in the case. I see no reason which he can have for so doing save the same which he gave to Gen. Cogswell for not supporting the General in his campaign against Butler, namely: because he was not consulted before Cogswell's name was put before the people. Now to answer some of the statements of "A." He says that almost the entire element opposed to Butler was kept away from the caucus because Cogswell was a Butler man. Nothing is further from the truth. Hitherto Cogswell supported Butler only as the regular nominee of the party, while on all great questions of the day he held different views from Butler. The people who stayed away from the caucuses stayed away simply and solely because there was no union of the Anti-Butler element. The Phillips part of that element, though greatly in the minority, would not give way to the Cogswell party, which composed two-thirds of the Anti-Butler strength, and had the support of the leading Republican papers in the district, as well as the Boston *Journal*, Boston *Herald*, Boston *Advertiser*, and New York *Tribune*.

Your correspondent further states that Willard P. Phillips consistently opposed Butler, but kept out of the fight. Does "A." know that Mr. Phillips met Gen. Cogswell and Col. Stone at Salem one Saturday, and told them he would "make any personal sacrifice to defeat Butler," read a letter withdrawing his name from the field, and promised to publish it in the Salem *Gazette* the following Tuesday, and yet did not publish it until some two weeks later? Does "A." know that the Phillips element in Salem and many other places voted in the caucuses for Butler? Such are the facts.

There is much more that I might write regarding this great contest and the glorious victory, and I only wish to defend Gen. Cogswell for his courage in daring to fight the "Essex Statesman." No result could have pleased us, who fought against Butler all the fall, more than the election of Charles P. Thompson.

W. S. N.

THE PROPOSED SUBMERSION OF THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you published in your issue of the 12th instant the letter of your correspondent at Luxville, Massachusetts, would it not have been fairer and more magnanimous to publish also my letter of the 7th instant, renewing my subscription to the *Nation*, instead of stating the fact of renewal simply, with the coloring given it by your remarks? Your readers could then judge fairly and fully of my motives in renewing my subscription, and of my consistency in doing so. Why not publish it yet, unless you wish to monopolize all the pleasantry the subject admits, and to direct attention from the true issue raised in my first letter by attempted ridicule too flippant to be approved even by your own sober judgment as journalists in the front rank?

But your correspondent calls attention to one point in my first letter which I wish to notice, as I hope I shall never be ashamed to acknowledge an error committed or to modify anything stated too strongly. In saying that I expected "scant justice from any Northern source to any one living south of Mason and Dixon's line," I said more than I meant. If I had said, as I really meant, "in political matters," I should have been compelled to adhere to my opinion, and could point, in justification of it, to your suppression of my letter of the 7th instant—while publishing the letter from Massachusetts on the subject, together with *your version* of mine.

But I have too many valued friends in the North, and too grateful a recollection of courtesies and kindnesses received at their hands, to permit the words referred to to stand unexplained, and this explanation, I trust, will be a sufficient reason why I may request the publication of this letter. I have no desire or ambition whatever for a newspaper correspondence; I had no thought of the publication of my first letter, and I assume no capacity to cope with you in such a contest; but neither legitimate argument nor attempted ridicule will deter me from expressing my convictions upon proper occasions. With regard to your correspondent from Luxville, Massachusetts, I may properly add that I decline to receive lessons in courtesy from him, as both the school in which I was educated and my own sense of propriety teach me that in presuming to subscribe to the *Nation* in my behalf, he was clearly guilty of impertinent interference with my private affairs. This letter closes all I shall say upon the subject.

Very respectfully and truly yours,

J. A. PEARCE.

CHESTER TOWN, MD., November 14, 1874.

[We subjoin Mr. Pearce's letter of the 7th inst. It will be readily perceived that we could have had no motive for withholding it, if it had reached us in time. It came to hand on our day of publication, and as it seemed likely to lose all interest under a week's delay, we inserted what we thought a fair though brief summary of its contents. Our great aim all through this painful business has been to satisfy Mr. Pearce, and it is really melancholy to see how completely we have failed. For the behavior of our Luxville correspondent we do not hold ourselves responsible. We deem it our duty, as a matter of business, on receipt of five dollars, to forward the *Nation* for one year to any person who may be pointed out to us, without any regard to his feelings or antecedents.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Good-humor is catching, I believe, and the good-humor of your comments in your issue of the 5th instant on my letter to you dated October 26 1874, has infected me.

Moreover, in pondering the playful language of your reply to ascertain its true meaning, I can resolve it into nothing but confession of the construction I placed upon your article, with a dexterous and humorous plea in avoidance; and confession without attempt at justification has always been permitted to condone many faults. I propose, therefore, with your consent, to continue my subscription to the *Nation*, and for this purpose I enclose postal order for five dollars in payment for the year commencing November 20, 1874.

Nor will I hold you to your promise to dedicate to destruction any portion of the North in order to appease my anger; not even the Essex district of Massachusetts. The "tidal wave" which swept over the North on the 3d of November and submerged Essex County has amply revenged the offence I received; and coming, as it did, without notice and without time to remove the sick persons and young children, I feel it would be cruel in me to ask that the water should be let in any further.

But, jesting aside, I regret that you do not recollect my first letter, for it would assure you of my genuine and settled respect for the high ability and general fairness which characterize your discussion of public men and public measures.

I know no journal which, in my judgment, is so sound in its views of constitutional questions, or so forcible and clear in their exposition, as the *Nation*, and the independent, impartial tone in which you have criticised the errors or vices of the Republican leaders has been in striking contrast with the blind support or feeble defence of these same leaders by the Republican press generally.

Such a sentiment as I understand to be expressed in the article referred to in my letter of October 26, coming from such a source, did shock me and rouse my resentment, but from your reply I believed you did not mean to convey the idea which it seems to me your language naturally expressed, and, believing so, I shall not spite myself by refusing to continue a paper which I generally read with unqualified pleasure.

Yours respectfully, J. A. PEARCE.

CHESTER TOWN, KENT COUNTY, MD., November 7, 1874.

Notes.

MR. F. LEYPOLDT'S second 'Trade-List Annual' has made its appearance, and bears the marks of the same industry and intelligence that produced last year, under much greater difficulties, the first edition. It has slightly increased in bulk, contains more catalogues than it did in 1873, and, in addition to the Index of Contributors and Advertisers, and Index of Specialties Represented in the Annual, is enriched by an Alphabetical Reference List (of works published from Jan. 16, 1873 to June 27, 1874), and an American Educational Catalogue for 1874 (classified). Mr. Leypoldt, with a view to the Centennial, announces that he shall leave no stone unturned to realize his plan of a complete "Finding List" within two years. It will be a remarkable achievement if completed in five years.——Prof. William E. Griffis, who spent four or five years in Japan (1870–74) as one of the instructors in the Imperial College at Tokio, and who since his return has been lecturing on "Japan of To-Day," is preparing a work upon much the same subject, in which he will explain fully the origin and causes of the recent political changes in that interesting country. Prof. Griffis's oppor-

tunities as an observer of Japanese life, character, and customs have been exceptionally good. His address is No. 137 West Fifteenth Street, New York City.——An excellent and really impressive map of the Russian Empire is given in Part 23 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (New York: L. W. Schmidt). A provisional, incomplete color-boundary leaves Khiva and Bokhara a show of independence, with an open door towards the invader. Particularly noticeable in Russia proper is the network of railroads protecting the heart and southern and southwestern flanks of the country.——In justice to the Rev. Isaac Taylor, since we lately quoted Corssen's summary disposal of his Etruscan dice interpretation, we ought to say that in the *Athenæum* for Nov. 7 he makes a strong *prima-facie* defence of his so-called numerals, as numerals and as words.——'A Dictionary of Religious Knowledge, for Popular and Professional Use,' is announced by Harper & Bros., the editors being Rev. Lyman Abbott and Rev. T. J. Conant, D.D.——The Rev. John Weiss, who one or two winters ago, as many of our readers will remember, delivered a course of lectures in this city on the "Characters of Shakspere," will begin another series on Thursday evening next, Dec. 3, at the theatre of the Union League Club, on the "Women of Shakspere."

—The *Nation* mail for Boston and Cambridge, deliverable in those cities on Friday last, was actually not distributed till Monday. Postmaster Burt assures us that it reached Boston *via* Albany—an irregularity which we have been unable to trace to its source. We need not say how much we regret the annoyance and expense thus caused to our Eastern subscribers; for the present, we must ask them to share our belief that the fault was not with our own mailing department, but with the New York Post-office, which has hitherto served us extremely well.

—Early next month will be published in New York by Messrs. Appleton, and in London by Messrs. Longman, Vol. I. of Mr. Hubert H. Bancroft's "Native Races of the Pacific States." This work will be complete in five volumes octavo, treating respectively of the following subjects: I. Wild Tribes, their Manners and Customs; II. Civilized Nations of Mexico and Central America; III. Mythology and Languages of both Savage and Civilized Nations; IV. Antiquities and Architectural Remains; V. Aboriginal History and Migrations; index to the entire work. For so ambitious an undertaking five times five volumes would hardly be thought sufficient. It is, however, judging from the prospectus and from other accounts which have been furnished the public, a digest and conspectus of all that has previously been written on the Pacific populations from Darien to Alaska, and not strictly an original contribution to our knowledge of them; invaluable as a key to the literature of that part of America, referring at every step to the authorities; but whether critical in its use of them—that remains to be seen. Whatever the product may be (and the aggregation and comparison of hitherto scattered facts, with maps and illustrations in the best style, cannot fail to be of the highest value), the collection and preparation of materials have been remarkable enough. Mr. Bancroft has in the course of fifteen years amassed a library of some 16,000 volumes devoted to his specialty, including the bulk of the Mexican library of the late Emperor Maximilian, the Vallejo, Bandini, and Hayes collections, etc. By the aid of several assistants, and at an expense of $12,000, the contents of these volumes have been indexed as if one book. With such a clue in his hands, and having extracts made at his pleasure, Mr. Bancroft addressed himself to his task, meriting very high praise for what he had accomplished before he had touched pen to paper. We hope that he may some day compass the publication of this combination of the index and of the *catalogue raisonné*, after it has served his purpose as a working tool.

—Some of our readers will be glad to know that Mr. John G. Shea has revived his 'Library of American Linguistics.' He begins the new series by a 'Grammar and Dictionary of the Language of the Hidatsa' (or "Grosventres of the Missouri"), by Washington Matthews, Assistant-Surgeon U.S.A. The Hidatsa, the Mandans, and the Arikaras or "Rees," now live together near Fort Berthold, D.T. "To the philologist," says Dr. Matthews, "it is an interesting fact that this trio of savage clans, though now living in the same village, and having been next-door neighbors to each other for more than a hundred years, on terms of peace and intimacy, and to a great extent intermarried, speak nevertheless totally distinct languages, which show no perceptible inclination to coalesce." The Hidatsa language is of the Dakota stock, nearly related to that of the Crows (Aubsaroke) and less nearly to the Mandan. The Arikaras speak a Pawnee dialect. *Minitari* ("Minnitarees") is the Mandan name for the Hidatsa, whom the French call "Grosventres," the same name having also been given to another tribe, the Falls Indians of the Saskatchewan, distinct from the Hidatsa in language and origin. Partial vocabularies of the Hidatsa or Minnitare dialect have been published by Say and by the Prince of Neuwied; a larger one, by Dr. F. V. Hayden, in his 'Contributions to the Ethnology and Philology of Indian Tribes' (1862). Dr. Matthews, while stationed at Fort Berthold, had excellent opportunities, which he knew how to improve, to acquire a knowledge of this language, and his grammar and dictionary are among the most valuable of recent contributions to American philology. Printed by Munsell, in the best style of the "Cramoisy Press," on thick and fine paper, they make a volume of nearly 200 pages in royal octavo. We have but one thing to find fault with. The edition is of only 100 copies. To some collectors, doubtless, a limited edition and a high price are additional inducements to purchase; but it is not for mere book-collectors that men like Dr. Matthews work. Scholars who buy books to *use* are not, generally, disinclined to buy *cheap*, and a grammar or dictionary which is worth printing at all deserves to be printed in a larger edition than of a hundred copies—seven-eighths of which will be speedily locked-up in private libraries.

—The apprehensions of great and unusual distress among the poorer classes last winter, in consequence of the panic, were, as is well known, unfounded. They led to extraordinary exertions and organizations for relief, and in this city to the formation of a Bureau of Charities, which happily promises to become permanent. Their first annual report is signed by Messrs. W. Butler Duncan, John Hall, D.D., Abram S. Hewitt, Prof. Charles A. Joy, Ezra M. Kingsley, Henry E. Pellew, Theodore Roosevelt, and Joseph Seligman—names which command universal respect in this community. Their labors in the past twelve months have demonstrated the need of the most intimate understanding and co-operation between our various charitable societies, which number, according to a directory prepared by the Bureau, 194, "without including 92 branch establishments in connection with the public institutions, and such societies as the Children's Aid Society, and the Society of St. Vincent de Paul." "Almost every known agency for meeting and supplying the material wants of a vast mixed population like that of New York is represented," and nearly $7,000,000 is expended annually in charities by instrumentalities of every description. The number of the worthy and suffering poor is not so great, the Bureau thinks, but that this vast sum of money, if rightly expended, would suffice. As it is, the smallness of the relief afforded is often in ludicrous contrast with the cost of the machinery by which it is dispensed, and there is no efficient means of detecting impostors. There are fraudulent societies, too, as well as beggars, but, however much they may be exposed and denounced, when once they have got their charters there is no one authorized to discontinue them. The tendency of the present system, or want of system, is to draw paupers to New York, and it happened last winter that the floating population thus brought in "continued for many months after the revival of business to enjoy the benefits intended to meet the distress of the moment." The Bureau has succeeded in obtaining precise information about the objects and resources of most of the benevolent societies in the city, though it encountered much reticence and some resistance in certain quarters; and it has devised and carried into effect a mode of registration which has furnished a list of 14,000 persons receiving direct relief, and which shows at the same time their place of residence and the number of societies from which each obtains relief—one person being found on the lists of nine societies, though receiving but $8 a month in all. A central office of investigation and relief, which shall be a sort of neutral ground for the various societies, is recommended, and that it be kept open all the year round. "At present it is the practice either absolutely to cut off all relief during the summer months, or to reduce it to such an extent that it may be truly said the poor suffer more then than in winter."

—We have received from Messrs. Chambers, Edinburgh, an "editorial statement," which has been prefixed to the revised edition of their Encyclopædia, "in the interests of literature and in defence of their rights as authors" against the publishers and editor of the American edition. Our readers will not be slow to guess the nature of this complaint, inasmuch as in No. 462 of the *Nation* (May 7, 1874) we were the first to point out the perversion—by wholesale substitution—of the article on *free-trade*. We remarked at the time on "the awkward plight in which the Messrs. Chambers are placed, when the American edition of a work bearing their name accuses them in their Edinburgh edition of falsely representing as 'an important truth' 'a dogma of modern growth,' and of 'putting forth sophistries to lull the suspicions of the deluded purveyors to the wealth of England,' with the 'end and aim of keeping every agricultural community chained hand and foot to the car of Imperial Britain.'" We also felt justified in saying that "the liberty which the American publishers have taken in exchanging their views for those of the British editors was doubtless the result of agreement with the Messrs. Chambers." It is precisely this, however, that the latter deny in the statement before us. The "extensive alterations in the articles . . . had not been contemplated in the agreement," though they would have been passed over if they had really been an improvement in point of accuracy and freshness; whereas "statements and opinions are introduced which are repudiated by, and hateful to, the original proprietors,

their name all the while appearing on the title-page." Messrs. Chambers then proceed to cite the two articles on *free-trade* referred to above, with two others, exhibiting the same perversion, on *protection*. So much we might have expected of the Philadelphia editor; but it seems that he could not keep his hands off the *slavery* article either. So he strikes out a passage contrasting the glittering generalities of the Declaration of Independence with the fact that they were put forth by slaveholding colonies, which afterwards in their Constitution expressly recognized the condition of slavery; and in place of it he inserts a specious apology for slavery, on the ground that the colonists had petitioned the king in 1770 to restrict the slave-trade. Finally, in the article on *Victoria I.*, his pseudo-republicanism leads him to make an alteration as indecent, to say the least, as that of the *free-trade* article, and rather more intolerable to the loyal subjects of the Queen. "Perhaps during no reign," reads the Edinburgh edition, "has a greater measure of political contentment been enjoyed." "But a growing discontent under her unequal institutions, and a progress towards republicanism, are plainly apparent" to the American editor, who shortly utters "a slanderous imputation concerning his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales," which the Messrs. Chambers would be ashamed to copy. "Was there ever," they ask, in taking leave of the subject, "so flagrant an abuse in the reprinting of an English work in the United States?" It would be hard to affirm or deny. When the Messrs. Lippincott are heard from, we hope they will be able to confess surprise that their editor so far exceeded his instructions, and will show themselves fully sensible of the gross indelicacy which he has caused them to appear to be guilty of towards their associates, the Messrs. Chambers.

—Mr. George Long has brought his twelve years' labors to a conclusion, by the publication of the fifth and closing volume of his 'History of the Decline of the Roman Republic' (London: Bell & Daldy). We have twice expressed our judgment as to the merits of this work (*Nation*, Nos. 97 and 274), and would now only draw attention to its completion. With all its shortcomings, it is a work of which English scholarship may well be proud, and which students may use to very good advantage. Whoever reads it should bear in mind that Mr. Long is an old-fashioned English scholar, of strong prejudices and dislikes, and that there are three things in particular to which he has an intense aversion—the philosophy of history, the German school of scholarship, and any attempt on the part of the interpreter to go one step beyond the record. Bearing this in mind, he will be found an admirable commentator, full of sagacity and humor, and thoroughly acquainted with his subject. We should say that he was at his best when upon military operations, although he would probably himself prefer the legal chapters. But there is a certain hard and unimaginative quality of his mind which interferes with a clear presentation of the legal and constitutional aspects of a distant period; and at any rate, in this last volume he has passed over the political side of Cæsar's career quite superficially. It is, we think, as a running commentary upon authors that this work will have its lasting reputation; and of these there is none who receives more thorough and satisfactory treatment than Cæsar.

—While Ferdinand Gregorovius, the historian of Rome during the Middle Ages, was engaged on the portion of his work relating to Pope Alexander (Borgia) VI., he discovered in the various archives of Italy a number of interesting and important documents relating to that infamous Pontiff and his equally infamous children, Cæsar and Lucrezia. It was impossible to use all these new materials in his history, and he consequently determined to employ them in a monograph of either Cæsar or Lucrezia Borgia. While hesitating between these, the discovery in 1872, in the Notarial Archives of the Capitol at Rome, of a large number of important papers mostly relating to Lucrezia, determined him to devote his work to her. This we have now before us with the title: 'Lucrezia Borgia. Nach Urkunden und Correspondenzen ihrer eigenen Zeit' (two vols. Stuttgart: Cotta. 1874). Of the value of this work in regard to inedited material it is only necessary to state that the second volume is an appendix containing sixty-two unpublished documents, among them the various marriage contracts of Lucrezia, letters from and to her, including a very touching one written by her two days before her death to Leo X., and many other interesting papers. Facsimiles are given of a letter from Alexander VI. to his daughter, one from Cæsar Borgia to Isabella Gonzaga, and one from Lucrezia to the same; and there is a portrait of her from a rare medallion struck in her honor. This is an age of rehabilitation of historical characters, and, as regards Lucrezia, it is to be remembered that no one has ever been more differently judged. While Guicciardini, Pontanus, Victor Hugo, and Donizetti have represented her as "a Mænad with a vial of poison in one hand and a dagger in the other," Aldus Manutius, Ariosto, and others have declared her a model of every virtue. Nearly seventy years ago, Roscoe, in his 'Leo X.,' attempted a defence of her as a much-slandered woman; and it was an Englishman, William Gilbert, who published in 1869 the first detailed biography of her, which, however, is badly arranged and superficial. The result of Gregorovius's investigations may be summed up in a few words: Lucrezia was a fickle, amiable, unfortunate woman, more sinned against than sinning. There is no proof of her participation in any of the crimes which stain her family's memory. She left Rome and her father's guidance when she was only twenty-one as the wife of Alfonso of Ferrara, and from that time to her death, in 1519 (Gregorovius has first discovered the precise date of her birth, April 18, 1480), she was a model wife and mother. Indeed, in this new biography, she loses all the romance with which she has hitherto been invested.

GARDINER'S THIRTY YEARS' WAR.*

THE great conflict of the seventeenth century ended as a drawn battle. Neither Protestants nor Catholics could look with satisfaction on its results. Protestantism had lost territories which it possessed at the beginning of the war. Catholicism had failed to destroy the new belief. Germany, the birthplace of the Reformation, lay prostrate, divided, and enfeebled. Spain, the stronghold of the old faith, had begun her course of decline. Later ages may see that the agonies of the Thirty Years' War were not endured for nothing. Though the battle was a drawn one, Protestantism reaped the fruits of victory. The successes of Gustavus Adolphus put a final check on the advance of the Catholic reaction. The Papacy lived on, but from the date of the Peace of Westphalia the Pope, however great his claims, has never been in fact more than the head of one of the sects of Christians. But to an observer of the time, the most patent and obvious fact must have been that the war had certainly produced endless misery, and had very probably produced no result sufficient to compensate for the misery which it had caused one generation and had possibly handed on to their descendants.

"What a peace," writes Mr. Gardiner, "it was when it really came at last! Whatever life there was under that deadly blast of war had been attracted to the camps. The strong man who had lost his all turned soldier, that he might be able to rob others in turn. The young girl . . . had turned aside, for very starvation, to a life of shame in the train of one or other of the armies by which her home had been made desolate. In the later years of the war it was known that a body of 40,000 fighting men drew along with it a loathsome following of no less than 140,000 men, women, and children, contributing nothing to the efficiency of the army, and all of them living at the expense of the miserable peasants who still contrived to hold on to their ruined fields. If these were to live, they must steal what yet remained to be stolen; . . . and then, if sickness came, or wounds, . . . what remained but misery or death? Nor was it much better with the soldiers themselves. No careful surgeons passed over the battle-field to save life or limb. . . . Recruits were to be bought cheaply, and it cost less to enroll a new soldier than to cure an old one. The losses of the civil population were almost incredible. In a certain district of Thuringia, which was probably better off than the greater part of Germany, there were, before the war-cloud burst, 1,717 houses standing in nineteen villages. In 1649, only 627 houses were left, and even of the houses which remained many were untenanted. The 1,717 houses had been inhabited by 1,773 families. Only 316 families could be found to occupy the 627 houses. Property fared still worse. In the same district, 244 oxen alone remained of 1,402. Of 4,616 sheep, not one was left. Two centuries later, the losses thus suffered were scarcely recovered."

This striking passage is written by a calm and almost frigid historian, who is thoroughly master of his subject. No one who considers this, and weighs the full meaning of the facts stated by Mr. Gardiner, can fail to perceive at least some portion of the load of misery laid upon Germany and, indeed, on the whole Continent of Europe, by the Thirty Years' War. The inevitable enquiry is: How could it have happened that a conflict so desperate, so long, and so fertile in suffering should yet have been so sterile in satisfactory results? That Protestantism ultimately gained much from the mere fact that the progress of the Catholic reaction was checked, is true. But the question still remains: How was it that Protestantism, which can now be seen to have had on its side the strongest forces of European civilization, should yet have come forth from the struggle, if not vanquished, yet certainly not a conqueror?

The external and, so to speak, accidental causes of the failure of the German Protestants, at any rate, to gain anything like a complete victory, are very well set forth by Mr. Gardiner. He shows, for example, clearly enough, that even at the beginning of the contest the party of Protestantism was far weaker than might be conjectured from the large number of its adherents. If the result of the contest could have been decided by the votes of the German people, it appears probable that the Protestants would have obtained the upper hand. They were strong in numbers, not only in what are now the Protestant states of Germany, but also in Bohemia and in Austria proper.

* 'The Thirty Years' War: 1618-1648. By Samuel Rawson Gardiner.' London Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.

But the matter was not one to be decided by counting heads. The national institutions of Germany were singularly defective. There was no means by which the wish of the nation could make itself legally felt. A far greater difficulty was that in Germany there was no chance that the head of the Government should become the leader in the path of religious reform. It is at all times extremely difficult for a people to effect a revolution except under the guidance and with at least the co-operation of its ruler. This difficulty has been heavily enough felt in the nineteenth century. It was felt with tenfold greater force in the seventeenth century. If the Emperor could have performed the part of Henry VIII., German Protestantism might have triumphed over its foes with even greater ease than the Protestantism of England. But it was impossible that the head of the Holy Roman Empire should lead a reform which at bottom was hostile to the very system of which the Empire no less than the Papacy was a part. Both Mr. Gardiner and Mr. Seebohm occasionally wonder that the German Emperors did not become the leaders of the German people. To expect them to have performed such a part seems on calm reflection as wild an expectation as the hopes which visionaries have entertained of seeing a Pope place himself at the head of the modern democracy.

In default of guidance from the Emperor, German Protestants were naturally thrown back on such leaders as they could obtain among German princes and nobles, and the second great cause of Protestant failure is that, with the one exception of Gustavus Adolphus, no leader worthy of the name came to the front throughout the whole of the Thirty Years' War. Nothing is more strange than the fact that the Germans seem at this period to have been utterly deficient in great men.

"The German people in the beginning of the seventeenth century was plainly inferior to the German people in the beginning of the sixteenth century. During the whole course of the war, Maximilian of Bavaria was the only man of German birth who rose to eminence, and even he did not attain the first rank. The destinies of the land of Luther and Goethe, of Frederic II. and Stein, were decided by a few men of foreign birth. Wallenstein was a Slavonian; Tilly a Walloon; Gustavus a Swede; Richelieu a Frenchman."

What a German hero might have achieved may be conjectured from the achievements of Gustavus, who, foreigner though he was, might but for his death have changed the whole result of the contest. Whether it be possible to account for fluctuations in the moral and intellectual vigor of nations may be doubtful. It is, however, impossible not to conjecture that the savage suppression of the revolt of the peasants worked deeper injury to the country than was apparent to the nobles who re-enslaved their serfs. Mr. Seebohm asserts that tenfold as many men perished in the war of the peasants as were executed in Paris during the whole Reign of Terror. A country does not thus lose 50,000 of its cultivators without suffering both physical and moral damage. The suppression, at any rate, of the revolt points to one of the more general causes which hindered the progress of Protestantism. The cause of religious freedom is indeed, in the long run, bound up with the cause of political liberty. But when Luther refused all sympathy to the peasants, he inevitably deprived Protestantism of the strength which it derived from democratic enthusiasm. In Germany the cause of religious reform did not enlist the strenuous sympathy of the mass of the population. It seems to have been the creed of the nobles and the burghers rather than that of the peasantry. In another respect, Protestantism ultimately suffered from characteristics which it derived from its author. The Reformation has conduced to the spread of freedom of thought and liberty of opinion. But the division between Luther and Erasmus represented the hostility entertained by the Reformers to the movement in favor of mere intellectual freedom and enlightenment. Hence by degrees arose a state of feeling which, if opposed to the bigotry of Rome, was equally opposed to the intolerance of Geneva. Nothing is more marked than the general tendency, during the seventeenth century, of great statesmen in every country to struggle with more or less consistency and success for the establishment of toleration. Barneveld in Holland, Cromwell in England, Richelieu in France, Gustavus and even, strangely enough, Wallenstein in Germany, one and all wished to pursue a policy of toleration. In other words, the sentiment of the age was gradually undergoing a change. When the war began each party fought, and fought honestly, for the establishment of what each deemed to be the truth. As the war came to an end, men of all classes, in part from a feeling of despair, in part from perception of the fact that religious conviction is not to be spread by force of arms, began to ask not for the spread of the truth but for mutual toleration. The prevalence of this sentiment suggested the rough and unsatisfactory system of compromise by which the conflict was closed. It also naturally left the guidance of Europe in the hands of France, since the France of 1648 seemed prepared to follow out the policy of sceptical toleration which had been inaugurated by Henry IV. when he sacrificed his creed to gain his crown.

ADMIRAL FOOTE.*

At the beginning of the Rebellion there was much discussion at Washington as to the possibility of the employment of a flotilla of iron-clads on the Western rivers. The Southerners, who had begun the war with much greater energy than was displayed by the North, had succeeded already in dividing the country territorially into two nearly equal parts. The so-called neutrality of Kentucky had made the Ohio the northern rebel line; and, indeed, from the Mississippi at Cairo, where the Ohio empties itself, to the mouth of the Potomac, the Secessionists had an almost unbroken line of fortified posts. Below Columbus, the Mississippi was completely closed; the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers were strongly fortified; and between Nashville (on the Cumberland) and the Mississippi were massed large bodies of troops, easily disposed to resist attack from any quarter. A glance at the map of the Western and Border States will show what sort of a position the Southern troops held, and how difficult the enterprise of opening the way into Kentucky and Tennessee, to say nothing of obtaining possession of the Mississippi, seemed in 1861. That much of it could be done by gunboats was regarded by military officers at the time, as Mr. Welles, in a letter to Professor Hoppin, declares, nearly impossible; and, allowing for the jealousy always existing between the army and the navy, the belief that "shore batteries would riddle and destroy vessels faster than they could be brought into service, unless protected by the army," seemed well founded. It was, however, at length decided to make the experiment, and on May 16, 1861, Commander John Rodgers was directed to report to the War Department for this service; but before active operations commenced he was succeeded by Captain A. H. Foote.

From Mr. Hoppin's narrative it is not difficult to make out the character of this officer. Born in 1806, he was now about fifty-five years of age, and, though not much known outside the navy, he had already gained a well-won reputation in it. He had seen hard and very disagreeable service, requiring a peculiar combination of professional and unprofessional qualities, off the slave-coast of Africa, and he had on one occasion distinguished himself in China in the affair, in 1866, of the "Barrier Forts" near Canton, when, receiving an order from his superior officer to "prevent" the Chinese (their forts having opened fire, for no apparent reason, on one of the boats of the *Portsmouth*) from "increasing" their "means of defence or assault"—even though he should "be led to the capture of the forts"—he gave the order so liberal a construction that at 6.30 the next morning the *Levant* and *Portsmouth* opened fire on the forts, at 7.45 a storming party of two hundred and eighty-seven persons all told, with four howitzers, under command of Foote, left the ships, and, after passing through a hostile village under fire, in the face of an army estimated by Foote at 3,000, took the first of the four forts; the other three were taken in the course of the succeeding forty-eight hours, with a hundred and seventy-six guns, many of them of the largest calibre, the forts razed to the ground, and the enemy thus effectually "prevented from increasing his means of defence or assault." Fond of fighting as Foote was, he seems to have endeared himself to those under his command by many other qualities. He was a genuinely religious man; his heart and soul were in his profession; he was amiable, a man of the world, and withal, by the common consent of those who knew him, he had foibles (among which may perhaps be considered his fancy that he was an orator) that endeared him to his friends. He had, above all, that quality which is so essential to the completion of all the other qualities of a good officer—sincere determination to sacrifice his own interests to those of the service. He was fond of praise—according to Mr. Hoppin, over-fond of it—but throughout his entire campaign, notwithstanding the irritating relations existing between the gunboats and the army, there is no trace of even a momentary desire to do anything but obey orders and carry out the general plan of operations agreed upon. His mental qualities can best be judged by what he accomplished as an officer; outside of his profession he does not seem to have had a very wide range of interests; indeed, when off duty, religion and morality still had so strong a hold upon him that he occupied himself in lecturing on temperance, Christian missions, and writing about the African slave-trade. The abolition of the grog ration in the navy was due to his unremitting and persistent efforts. To understand his character still more thoroughly, we must remember that his grandfather and great-grandfather were New England ministers, that his father was the mover of "Foote's Resolutions," and that he himself came from the "land of steady habits" when they were a good deal steadier than they have been since the introduction of railroads and Sound steamers.

Foote's campaign in the West was brilliant and rapid. On the 6th of September, 1861, he took command, with the anomalous title of Flag-officer,

* 'Life of Andrew Hull Foote, Rear-Admiral United States Navy. By James Mason Hoppin, Professor in Yale College. With a portrait and illustrations.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1874.

of a fleet consisting of three wooden vessels in commission, nine unfinished iron-clad gunboats, and thirty-eight mortar-boats. The service was novel and peculiar, and to a seaman disagreeable. The fleet was attached to and under the orders of the army, and at the same time its duties were independent, and more naval than military. Foote received orders from Halleck, but Halleck, from the nature of his training and profession, was unable to know whether his orders could be carried out except through information derived from Foote. Already a great opportunity of seizing the Mississippi, Cumberland, and Tennessee before they could be fortified had, through the non-completion of the gun and mortar boats within the time specified by contract, been lost, and the only expedient that remained was a combined attack of land and naval forces on Forts Henry and Donelson. Foote's plan of attack was characteristic of the man. He determined to make his boats as impenetrable to shot and shell as possible, and then engage Fort Henry at close quarters, pouring into the fortification an unendurable fire. Fort Henry was a strong earthwork, constructed with great skill on the right bank of the Tennessee, commanding the river below for about two miles; the fortifications covered ten acres and mounted seventeen heavy guns, and were defended by about three thousand troops. On the 6th of February, 1862, Foote attacked the fort with four gunboats, at a mile range, steaming slowly up the river till within about six hundred yards, the fire on both sides of course increasing in its deadly accuracy and effect. The gunboats were supported at a distance by additional, weaker vessels, but the number of guns actually used in the hand-to-hand conflict between Foote and the forts seems to have been much the same, as the boats used only their bow guns. We must refer the reader to Mr. Hoppin's book for a description of the fight. After a bombardment of an hour and fifteen minutes, during which one of the gunboats was disabled and floated off, the fort had neither guns left to fire nor gunners to fire them, and General Tilghman surrendered. We are glad to see, by the way, that the contemporaneous newspaper account of the interview between the two commanders after the surrender is apocryphal, and must, like the celebrated "millions for defence, not one cent for tribute," be relegated to the limbo of mythical anecdote. The story was that Tilghman said to Foote, "I am glad to surrender to so gallant an officer," upon which Foote replied, "You do perfectly right, sir, in surrendering; but you should have blown my boat out of the water before I would have surrendered to you." The account of the interview, given by Foote to a friend, was this:

"General Tilghman came on board my boat, evidently in deep distress, wringing his hands and exclaiming, 'I am in despair; my reputation is gone for ever.' I replied, 'General, there is no reason why you should feel thus. More than two-thirds of your battery is disabled, while I have lost less than one-third of mine. To continue the action would only invite a useless sacrifice of life, and, under the circumstances, you have done right in surrendering. Moreover, I shall always be ready to testify that you have defended your post like a brave man.' I then added, 'Come, General, you have lost your dinner, and the steward has just told me mine is ready,' and taking him by the arm, we walked together into the cabin. This is all that passed between us."

This brilliant victory settled the question of the value of the gunboats. Followed as it was by the capture of Fort Donelson (which, though actually taken by the army, was probably rendered untenable by the bombardment of the fleet), the States of Kentucky and Tennessee were lost to the South. The evacuation of Columbus and the capture of Island No. 10 opened the Mississippi to Fort Pillow, and so rapidly were the operations conducted that by the middle of April (two months after the fall of Fort Henry) the struggle for the river defences of the South was virtually over, and it only remained a matter of generous rivalry between Foote and Farragut which should be the first to open the Mississippi to its mouth. On the 24th of April Farragut passed the forts below New Orleans, and the following telegram was sent to Foote: "To Flag-Officer Foote: Farragut has passed the forts below New Orleans, and appeared off the city at 1 P.M. of the 24th instant. His orders from the Department are to push up the river until he meets you. G. V. Fox, As't Sec." But it was too late. In the attack on Fort Donelson, in which the fighting, at four hundred yards, was hotter than at Fort Henry, Foote had been severely wounded, and the remainder of his life is the painful record of the struggle of a high-spirited officer to return to duty, for which he was never destined again to be fit. He made a fight, indeed, with death and disease quite as gallant as any of his naval encounters; indeed, it is probable that he fought too hard. He could not bear to be inactive, and, as his end drew near, his essentially religious temperament took more and more firm possession of him; his indomitable spirit made him undertake tasks which his declining health ought to have forbidden. On the 22d of July we find him taking charge of the "Bureau of Equipment and Recruiting," at Washington; in June of the next year he was ordered to take Dupont's place at Charleston, though at this time he was barely able to walk. The effort to take this command was fatal, and, while the country as well as the Administration was congratulating itself on his appointment, suddenly, on the 26th of June, 1863, his exhausted body gave out, and he died.

We are accustomed to hear it said, sometimes cynically, sometimes sadly, that the age of great men is past, and that the materialism of the day has made heroism and martyrdom obsolete. We doubt, however, if it would be easy to find in the history of any profession or country the story of a purer and finer life than that of Foote. Few people remember now how much he did to bring order and victory out of the anarchy which prevailed at the beginning of the war; no one knew during his life the difficulties he had to struggle with and overcome.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NOVEMBER 23, 1874.

THE leading feature of the week has been the free movement of currency from this city to the South and Southwest. The total amount of currency shipped during the past week is estimated to have amounted to about $9,000,000, and it is probable that still further shipments will be made. The Bank statement on Saturday reflects in part the shipments of currency in the loss of legal tenders to the amount of $2,020,700; but while the statement shows that the reserve of the banks has been weakened to the extent of $1,528,000, this loss is really encouraging, indicating, as it does, the revival of business and the prospect of greater activity in trade for the future. The following is the statement in full:

	Nov. 14.	Nov. 21.	Differences.
Loans	$283,787,900	$283,319,300 Dec..	$468,600
Specie	16,888,200	17,380,900 Inc..	492,700
Legal tenders	59,525,100	57,504,400 Dec..	2,020,700
Deposits	229,994 200	227,352,700 Dec..	2,641,500
Circulation	24,832,000	24,967,500 Inc...	135,500

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Nov. 14.	Nov. 21.	Differences.
Specie	$16,888.200	$17.380,900 Inc..	$492,700
Legal tenders	59,525,100	57 504,400 Dec..	2,020,700
Total reserve	$76,413,300	$74.885,300 Dec..	$1,528,000
Reserve required against deposits	57,498,550	56,838,175	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	18,914,750	18,047,125 Dec...	867,625

The money market shows no change on call loans, which we quote 2½ to 3½ per cent. Commercial paper of the best grade is in sharp demand, the choicest names passing as low as 5 per cent.

The stock market early in the week was strong, the principal features being Ohio and Mississippi, Northwestern common, Wabash, St. Paul, and Union Pacific. As the week advanced, prices receded, and the market finally closed on Saturday at a fraction over the lowest prices of the week. Among the low-priced stocks there was considerable activity. The decision of the United States Supreme Court confirming the sale of the Pacific Railroad of Missouri to the Company by the State of Missouri had a very favorable effect upon the price of the stock, as well as upon the preferred stock of the Atlantic and Pacific Railroad Co., by which the Missouri Pacific is leased, the latter advancing in one day from 40 to 48.

The following table shows the extreme range in quotations of the active stocks during the entire week:

	Highest.	Lowest.
New York Central	102¾	101⅜
Harlem	131	130
Erie	29⅝	28⅜
Lake Shore	82½	80
Wabash	32⅞	30⅜
Northwestern	42¾	40¾
Northwestern preferred	61	58¼
Rock Island	101¼	99⅜
St. Paul	37⅞	35½
St. Paul preferred	57¼	55½
Pittsburg	88⅛	87⅛
Del., Lack. and Western	109¾	109¾
New Jersey Central	107¼	107¼
Michigan Central	76¾	76¼
Union Pacific	36⅝	35⅛
C., C. and I. C	10¾	9⅛
Hannibal and St. Joseph	27¼	25½
Hannibal and St. Joseph preferred	34¾	34
Ohio and Mississippi	32⅛	31⅛
Panama	115	114½
Western Union Telegraph	81	79¾
Atlantic & Pacific Telegraph	20	19¾
Pacific Mail	45⅞	43⅞
Quicksilver	32⅞	32⅛
Quicksilver preferred	39½	39
Adams Express	120	119
Wells-Fargo Express	81¼	80¼
American Merchants Union Express	65	64½
United States Express	65	64½
Missouri Pacific	48¾	40
Atlantic and Pacific Tel. preferred	16¾	14

Renewed activity has taken place in the bonds of the Southern States, principally in Virginias, Tennessees, and North Carolinas. The reports which have come to hand relative to the financial prospects of the State in connection with the prompt and continued payment of interest upon Tennessee bonds, are very favorable.

Railroad bonds continue strong and buoyant, though prices have undergone no important changes.

Gold advanced from 110⅞ on Monday to 111⅜, and closed strong at 111¼ on Saturday. The specie shipments of the week were $1,608,000.

Foreign exchange has been firm, and bankers have been reluctant in selling their bills, owing to the uncertain condition of the European money markets. The Bank of England rate of discount, although left standing on Thursday at 5 per cent., is very likely to be advanced at any time to 5½ or even 6 per cent., the Bank having continued to lose in bullion from day to day since the rate was last raised.

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The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st December, 1873:

Premiums received on Marine Risks, from 1st January, 1873, to 31st December, 1873,	$6,511,114 22
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1873,	2,212,160 70
Total amount of Marine Premiums,	$8,723,274 92
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.	
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1873, to 31st December, 1873,	$6,290,016 78
Losses paid during the same period,	$2,960,882 49
Returns of Premiums and Expenses,	$1,258,319 26

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks,	$8,567,105 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise,	2,802,000 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages,	467,000 00
Interest, and sundry Notes and Claims due the Company, estimated at	422,894 66
Premium Notes and Bills receivable,	2,833,302 27
Cash in Bank,	521,340 59
Total Amount of Assets,	$15.613.642 52

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THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY.

1857–1875.

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J. R. LOWELL, O. W. HOLMES,
"MARK TWAIN"
(Sketches of Mississippi River Life, as he used to see it from a Pilot-House),
BAYARD TAYLOR, W. D. HOWELLS.
H. JAMES, JR., T. B. ALDRICH,
CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER
(Sketches of Oriental Life and Travel),
FRANCIS PARKMAN, JOHN FISKE,
EDWARD ATKINSON, DAVID A. WELLS.
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is expected to furnish Papers on Medical Science.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 3, 1874.

The Week.

THE *Evening Post* has recently been making one of those journalistic suggestions which give rise to an amount of discussion inversely proportionate to the probability of their practical adoption. The *Post* thinks that the next Congress ought to be called together immediately after the close of the present session, on the ground that otherwise there will be no means of knowing what the Democrats intend to do with the country till a year from now. In the early days of the Republic, the *Post* says, when travelling was difficult and communication between distant parts of the United States was slow, there was some reason why, on the election of a new Congress, a considerable interval should have been given to the newly-elected Congressmen to wind up their affairs, put their houses in order, and make plans for the approaching campaign at Washington. Now all this is changed. Even the Californian can get to Washington in a week; it is so easy to travel and telegraph back and forth that he need not wind up his business or put his house in order at all; while, if we may add a suggestion of our own, the statesmen of our generation do not require any time for mental preparation for the winter's campaign, for their mental calibre and acquirements are so different from those of their earlier predecessors that they are about as well fitted for debate and legislation at one time as another. Nevertheless, we suppose no one seriously believes that the Republicans will pass an act this winter calling the Democrats together in March, and on the whole we are inclined to think that the delay between the end of the present Congress and the meeting of the next will prove a salutary obstacle to much needless and partisan activity.

Indeed, evidence continues to accumulate from week to week that it is a fortunate thing, not only for the Democrats, but for the public too, that the machinery of the Government does not allow them to make an immediate use of their majority in the House of Representatives. Almost every paper that we see contains some new speech of some Democratic chieftain, warning his followers that they must not consider the recent victories as conclusive; that they are themselves in almost as much danger as the Republicans; and that if they expect to grasp the prize of the Presidency in 1876, they will only be able to do it by the display of much political virtue. Besides this, we believe that the conservative restrictions on the tremendous force of public opinion, reinforced as it now is in this country by universal suffrage, are almost in every case good. We should be sorry to see the Government so arranged that every change of public opinion should be at once reflected at Washington, because every step taken in this direction is one more step in the downward path which we began thirty years ago in most of the States, by making officers universally elective, at Washington by introducing rotation in office, and which, if continued, can only end in transforming a conservative representative government into a highly-organized popular tyranny. It is a noticeable fact that the only occasion on which Congress ever has fixed the time for the meeting of a new body of Representatives at the 4th of March was during Johnson's Administration—a revolutionary period, when half the country was in a state of siege, and the President was suspected of treason. The Congressional performances of that day are not a good subject for imitation now.

The only Department Report of much importance which has been given to the public during the past week has been that of the Post-office, the figures of which we shall not attempt to go into or discuss in detail, as they seem to be, like most Washington statistics, involved in obscurity. Immediately after the appearance of the report, a correction was telegraphed to this city, which made a difference, one way or the other, of some ten millions. Generally speaking, the report resembles other reports. During the year everything has been on the increase. There are more post-offices, more postmasters, more miles of transportation done, and more letters delivered than ever before. There is also a larger deficit. The difficulties with the railroads have been apparently settled (as it was obvious they must be to those who had read the wonderful report of Mr. Hipple-Mitchell on the subject, in which that distinguished statesman learnedly maintained that if the railroads would not come to terms the Government always had the remedy of appropriating the roads and running them itself), not by Mr. Jewell's confiscating Mr. Tom Scott's and Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt's properties, and locking up Scott and Vanderbilt in the Old Capitol prison, but by paying the roads a little more money. The number of officials, including contractors, employed by the Post-office has swollen to nearly 50,000.

Those people who are still infatuated with a belief in General Grant's consistency of purpose as a reformer must have some difficulty in reconciling with this theory of his character such acts of his as inviting Harrington to a private reception and appointing his brother, Orville Grant, to the fattest Indian trading post in the West. We pointed out last week that Grant's Indian policy is a humbug, but such appointments as this look like something worse. We have never accused General Grant of corruption in office, and shall not do so now; but we are compelled to say that when an Indian reform movement which for five years has been implicitly confided to General Grant's charge ends in the resignation of all the President's chosen commissioners on the ground that they are not supported by him in their efforts for reform, and when we are informed that this Indian post is handed over to Orville Grant, people cannot be expected to judge the head and front of the whole very leniently. Indeed, if General Grant were not General Grant, and had not saved the Union, it would probably now be difficult to convince people that he was entitled to anything short of impeachment for "mal and corrupt" administration. He is evidently made of such coarse material as to be impervious to public opinion, and incapable of discrimination between a popular demand for pure government and what his friend Shepherd calls "the howl and clamor of the mob."

The Civil-Rights Bill, which made such a noise last winter, is probably dead. The President has almost given official notice that he will veto it if it passes Congress; and as no one, even among the negroes, seems to be clamoring for its passage, there is very little chance of its being revived. There is in fact no reason why it should be. It is grossly unconstitutional, as we have pointed out in these columns—so unconstitutional that probably not ten respectable lawyers in the country could be found who would be willing to father it—and, as a remedial measure, it is open to the objection that the class for whose benefit it was intended is the very class which seems to be most terrified at the prospect of its passage—whether by this class we mean the negroes or the Southern white Republican politicians in those States in which the loss of a few negro votes hands the State machinery over to the Democrats.

The Safe Burglary trial has ended in a disagreement of the jury, and this has led to a very thorough re-examination of the case in the press. The best account of the matter we have seen is that published editorially in the *Post*, which is apparently done by some one familiar with the law and with courts of justice. The charge for which Harrington and the others have been tried is not burglary, as

might be supposed from the title which the case has popularly acquired, but a conspiracy to impute a burglary to Columbus Alexander, of Washington. Mr. Alexander, curiously enough, has turned out to be a gentleman of a nice sense of honor, who, far from being so likely to commit a burglary that a burglary might easily be "put upon him," was last winter the leading man among the memorialists who petitioned Congress for an investigation of the District Ring. In the course of the investigation which took place, books were produced purporting to be those of John O. Evans & Co., contractors. There was some doubt as to their genuineness, and it was for the interest of Mr. Alexander and the other petitioners to get possession of the real books, they being then in the District Attorney's safe. Alexander was approached, and the books were offered to him if he would pay for them. He declined to buy evidence, but said that he was willing to pay for necessary expenses. Perhaps the most remarkable thing in connection with the case is that the chief men indicted for this conspiracy are officials connected with the administration of justice, Harrington being Assistant United States District Attorney, Whitley having been Chief of "the Secret Service" of the Treasury Department, Nettleship his assistant, and Cunz a clerk in the office. Without going into the details of the evidence, there is little or no doubt of the guilt of the accused.

The sudden termination of Mayor Havemeyer's career has obtained for him at the hands of the press a kindlier estimate of his merits than he would have earned had he lived till January. He was not a good mayor, and there was no excuse for the petty chicane he practised, and which he seemed to consider the essence of the act of government. He made very bad appointments, and what made them worse was that they were in some cases appointments of his friends and cronies. He belonged to a past generation, and was little in sympathy with the very classes in the community who elected him to office, and on whom it was necessary for him to depend in order to govern successfully. It was impossible at times in his obstinate and queer career not to be reminded of some of the burlesque heroes of Diedrich Knickerbocker's history of a still earlier period; and his obstinacy could not have been more Dutch had New York been still New Amsterdam. Had he remained in a private station, however, he would have been remembered only with regret.

The Grangers are coming to grief in every direction. Their Grange treasurers are getting into the way of defaulting, just as political treasurers do; their California shipping-agents have failed; and, worse than all, the crops are in a flourishing condition, and the agricultural population of the Granger States is more prosperous than it has been for a long time. We do not make this statement on our own authority, but on that of the Chicago *Tribune*, which ought to be considered a pretty good witness, inasmuch as a year ago it had a strong inclination to believe the Granger movement against the railroads founded in justice. We quote the *Tribune* of the 18th of last month:

"A year ago, a terrible panic paralyzed the business of the country. Jay Cooke & Co. and many other large houses failed; the banks in New York and St. Louis, and most other cities, stopped payment, and financial ruin stared in the face everybody who had any considerable indebtedness afloat. Some of our own banks bowed before the storm, but more of them braved it, it is believed, than in any other city in the country. From this disaster the West began to recover sooner than any other section of the Union. The improvement has been slowly but steadily going forward, till now but little remains to remind us of the dangers and trials through which we were passing only a year ago. The causes which have promoted this early return to comparative prosperity can be found largely in the remunerative prices our farmers have received for their products; the fact that they had last year an abundance of them to sell; that their Eastern and European customers were forced to have them; and that the freight-charges for the year have been on an average less than usual."

When we take into account, also, the fact that the recent elections have not all turned on the Granger question, and that the public discussion of the farmers' wrongs has quite ceased, we may safely infer that the bottom of that agitation has fallen out.

Lord Acton's letter to Mr. Gladstone, in answer to his "expostulation" with the English Catholics touching the effect of the Vatican Decrees on their civil allegiance, had not reached our hands when we summed up Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet and Archbishop Manning's reply last week. Lord Acton's position among English Catholics has always been a very high one, and he acted at Rome, during the sitting of the Council, as a sort of unaccredited representative of more than one Catholic Government, as well as of his own, but was so well known to be in close sympathy with the opposition that he was in constant danger of a "descent" on his papers by the Roman police. Since the Council, though he has, we believe, shown no disposition to join the Old Catholic movement, he has been in close relations with Dr. Döllinger and others of its chiefs. What he says in reply to Mr. Gladstone is substantially a plea of confession and avoidance—viz., that the Popes have from very early times claimed the outrageous powers which the Vatican Council has finally accorded them, and have, besides, been guilty of shocking offences against humanity and decency, such as deciding that it is no murder to kill an excommunicated person—a rule which actually has for centuries stood and stands to-day unchanged in the "Corpus Juris"; that the murder of a Protestant is so good a deed that it atones for the murder of a Catholic; that faith need not be kept with heretic princes; declaring Queen Elizabeth dethroned, and commissioning an assassin to kill her; glorifying the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and urging the king to do it again. The Popes, says Lord Acton, did all these things among others without securing the approval and obedience of English Catholics, and they had done them before the emancipation of Catholics in 1829. Why, then, he asks, should English Protestants be alarmed now? and he declares that the Court of Rome is not able to carry English Catholics with it in all the follies and absurdities to which it may choose to commit itself now any more than heretofore. The reply of the Catholic press to this is that Lord Acton is a bad fellow. Lord Camoys, another English Catholic peer of high standing, has also written a letter somewhat in the same sense as Lord Acton, but he takes a much more serious view of the effect of the Vatican Decrees. He says "it is not likely that the present Pope will adopt against Queen Victoria the course pursued by the then Pope against Queen Elizabeth, but that there is no telling what edict might be issued by the author of the Syllabus." He says also that if an edict were now issued tending to destroy a Catholic's allegiance to his government he would be placed in a very painful dilemma, inasmuch as the Pope is now dogmatically infallible, which he formerly was not, and obedience to him is compulsory, which it formerly was not. The Catholic citizen would, therefore, be compelled in the above contingency to rebel or run the risk of eternal damnation, and Lord Camoys plainly intimates that he, for his part, would take the risk of damnation.

Sir George Bowyer, who passes for the best Catholic canon lawyer in England, has also written a letter, intended to confirm Archbishop Manning's position, in which he naïvely declares that the only difference between Protestants and Catholics in deciding where the line lies which separates the law of the land from "the higher law" is, that "the rule of faith of Protestants is private judgment, and that of Roman Catholics is the infallible voice of spiritual authority, which they [we] believe to be under Divine guidance." The Pope has also addressed a deputation of English Catholics about the Gladstone letter, and, being nearly as fond of mixed metaphor as Mr. Conkling, says that the ex-Minister has "suddenly come forward like a viper assailing the bark of St. Peter," and that he has not read the pamphlet, because he does not like to read "blasphemies," and hints pretty broadly that Mr. Gladstone is a liar. Archbishop Manning has also addressed a meeting of English

Catholics at his house on the politics of St. Peter, in which he proposed the Pope as a great international arbitrator, in lieu of such bodies as the Geneva Tribunal, and the Church as the proper person to decide in what manner the various sects of Christendom could be reunited, in place of the Bonn Conference or the Evangelical Alliance, and recommended the Pope's infallibility as a most soothing and salutary doctrine for all the nations of the earth, and he warned Catholics against any backing down about it.

The French Assembly has doubtless met at this writing, and has perhaps received Marshal MacMahon's message, but if so we are obliged to go to press in ignorance of its contents. The near approach of the opening of the session was, at the latest dates, a source of genuine regret throughout France, most people believing that the effect on business would be bad, and that the winter's debates and attempts at legislation would hinder the country from prospering as it might do under an abundant harvest—a state of mind about the national legislature by no means unknown on this side of the water. The great subject of popular speculation for some weeks back has been the nature of the attempt which it was thought the Marshal would make to bring about what is called "the organization of the Septennat"—that is, the provision of some sort of a constitutional fabric at its back which would enable the Assembly to dissolve. The difficulty in the way of this is the feeling of both the Bonapartists and Monarchists that anything of the kind might, and probably would, prove the foundation of the Republic, but it has been thought the Marshal may be able to carry his point through a coalition *ad hoc* of the Orleanists and Republicans, who, by threatening the Legitimists with a dissolution, might induce them to consent to a temporary arrangement. This would suit the Republicans as a possible beginning of the Republic, and the Orleanists as opening a way for the Duc d'Aumale to the executive chair. The relations of the Government with Germany have in the meantime visibly improved, the latter having semi-officially disavowed all connection with the recent somewhat insolent Spanish note, and officially expressed satisfaction with the arrangements made by the French authorities for the maintenance of neutrality on the Spanish frontier.

The Italian election returns are now all in, and show a majority of from fifty to one hundred for the Government out of about five hundred members. The electors are divided into as many "colleges" as there are members, and the successful candidate has to get at least half the votes cast, and two-thirds of those which might have been cast—that is, of the registered electors. The victory of the Government, which is essentially the victory of moderation, economy, order, and respect for established institutions, has furnished the English press with materials for some comparisons between the way in which the Italians have been managing their affairs, under the most terrible difficulties, and that in which the French have, with everything in their favor, been managing theirs, greatly and deservedly to the advantage of the Italians. But then it ought to be borne in mind that the Italians have not had to contend, as the French and Spaniards have, with the evils of ignorant suffrage. The Italian voters—what the French call "le pays légal"—do not number over 500,000, and they belong mostly to the class of larger taxpayers. This restriction of the suffrage, while it will undoubtedly weaken the Government in the long run and for general purposes, has probably helped it in its late conflict with the Papacy, and in dealing with such delicate questions as the army and the finances during the last fifteen eventful years. With universal suffrage, it is probable that many of the problems which vex the French and Spaniards would have arisen, but it is also a fair deduction from Italian character and recent Italian history that they would have been met with vastly greater ability and good sense.

At certain intervals, the "Eastern question" receives its share of the attention of European diplomatists, and its revival at the present moment is due to the attitude recently assumed by the Principality of Roumania. When, at the meeting of the Emperors of Germany, Russia, and Austria, in September, 1872, the Eastern question was mooted, it was thought desirable to preserve the *status quo*, and the Porte was confirmed in its rights of sovereignty over Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro. In consequence, commercial treaties between these and other countries have continued to be subject to the approval of the Sultan. Nevertheless, Roumania claims the right of independently concluding a commercial convention with Austria, for the purpose of settling minor details of tariff, and she is sustained in her course by Austria, Germany, and Russia, who addressed an identical note to this effect to the Turkish Minister of Foreign Affairs. Turkey replied through her ambassadors at Vienna, Berlin, and St. Petersburg, expressing her willingness to accede to the wishes of the three powers, and proposing that Roumania be induced to address herself to the Porte. She, however, insists on the rights of sovereignty guaranteed to her by the Treaty of Paris, and asks whether a continued violation of the articles of that Treaty would not tend to swell a current which one day the powers might find themselves unable to resist. There is, of course, more than a mere haggling about conventionalities at the bottom of this dispute. Roumania has all along shown an ill-disguised desire to magnify the conclusion of her commercial convention with Austria into a European question, and there are indications of an estrangement in the relations of Austria and Turkey which might serve to explain Count Andrássy's position. Russia has very good reasons for favoring the autonomy of the Turkish dependencies, and the co-operation of Prussia may either be a disinterested service of friendship to all parties, as the Vienna correspondent of the London *Times* believes, or, more probably, a manifestation of good-will towards Roumania, whose sovereign is a prince of the house of Hohenzollern. France and England, who were likewise appealed to, have thus far preserved an attitude of silent watchfulness, while Italy alone has remained unconcerned, and refused to take any action in this matter.

King David Kalakaua of the Sandwich Islands has landed at San Francisco on a visit to the United States of peace and goodwill. Negotiations of an interesting character have been going on for some time between the United States and the Islands, looking to a reciprocity treaty, or the acquisition of a harbor on Pearl River, or both, while there is a party always at work for annexation. For many reasons, however, both domestic and foreign, annexation is not a question likely to be much discussed between Kalakaua and the Great Father at Washington, while there is reason to believe that a treaty of some sort advantageous to this country, and at the same time not likely to do the natives of the Islands any more harm than intercourse with foreigners is already accomplishing, may be negotiated. The internal condition of the Sandwich Islands is peculiar. The native population, formerly cannibals, are now mild and inoffensive, and constantly declining in numbers, fifty or sixty thousand being all that is now left of them. They have a little sham government of their own, with a conservative monarch, one or two houses of parliament, and a body of judicial and administrative officials who come from England, Massachusetts, and other places, and, with the usual kind, obliging disposition of Anglo-Saxons when they find themselves among inferior races, have undertaken to govern the islanders, decide their quarrels, establish justice, and promote a general reign of order and harmony, on condition that they may make their fortune out of taxes by the way. The great crop is sugar, and the Chinese are now imported to cultivate it. A few years, and there will be no more Sandwich Islanders, but only a number of rich foreigners with their Chinese proletariat, and then or before then the Islands must fall into the hands of some foreign government. The United States, however, will do well to confine itself to commercial relations with this distant part of the world. The Fiji Islands, according to a popular rumor, were offered before their cession to Great Britain to the United States, and Mr. Fish wisely declined them. We have no machinery for the proper and efficient government of remote colonies, and the only safe course for us now is "home rule" in every sense of the word.

THE NATIONAL ARCHITECT.

THE New York *Tribune* has been at the ungracious pains of looking up the expenditures made by the British Government for its royal parks and palaces, the British Museum, and all other public buildings, and of instituting some unpleasant comparisons between that oppressive and extravagant monarchy and our own simple and economical republic. It appears from the researches of the *Tribune* that the entire expenditure of the British Government in 1873 for what we call "public buildings," and for a great many things besides, such as the British Museum, harbors of refuge, ambassadors' houses abroad, and a national thanksgiving at St. Paul's, was only about $8,000,000, while Congress appropriated for the last fiscal year (ending June 30, 1874) over $12,000,000 for our public buildings, without having a royal park or palace, or a British Museum, or a harbor of refuge, or a foreign minister's residence abroad, or even a national thanksgiving to pay for. What the expenditures may amount to for the current fiscal year—the year of rigorous economy—the *Tribune* avers no ordinary investigator can ascertain, for Congress appropriated over $8,000,000 in definite amounts which the public can read or learn about, and then took a cross cut to the unknown and indefinite by adding in general terms the unexpended balances of the preceding year. In the "Finance Accounts of the United Kingdom of Great Britain" these unexpended balances are always fully set forth, but in the reports of the Treasury Department they do not appear. Undoubtedly, they are known to somebody, and can be ascertained by anybody with sufficient trouble and diligence, but for the public at large, and even for a powerful and painstaking newspaper like the *Tribune*, they are practically suppressed.

A comprehensive and at the same time rigorous comparison of the expenditures which these two governments, so old and so new, are making in the form of permanent investments in public buildings, might furnish some very instructive material. But a mere comparison of gross expenditures can be of very little service to anybody. The conditions that surrounded each case are too distinct to admit of strict numerical comparison. On the one hand, we have a much larger territory to provide for, and for the most part a territory that has never been provided for before; on the other hand, we have a dual form of government, and public buildings may be erected by the State governments which in Great Britain are paid for by Parliament. It must also be a matter of enquiry whether buildings which in the one country are a county or city charge, do not in the other fall upon the national treasury. So far as the *Tribune's* investigation has gone, it unquestionably shows by comparison an extraordinary outlay on the part of a people deeply in debt, and professing to practise rigorous retrenchment, and yet the comparison really understates the case. The British expenditures cited take in, as has been said, the parks and palaces, the British Museum, and houses for English ambassadors at foreign courts; they also take in the furniture and expenses of the Parliament House. The American expenditures which the *Tribune* cites do not embrace those made for the Executive mansion, nor for the Capitol, nor for Congressional furniture, nor for the public grounds at the seat of Government. In short, it is a comparison where everything may not be included in the statement of British expenditures, but where a great deal has certainly been left out of the American. In other words, it is a comparison which, when looked at from the economic point of view, is much too favorable to us.

The American expenditures which have thus been used as the basis of the comparison are those grouped in the appropriation acts under the title of "Public Buildings under the Supervising Architect of the Treasury." For the present fiscal year, these number upwards of forty distinct appropriations, varying in amounts from $5,000 to $1,344,207, and footing up in the aggregate (apart from the unexpended balance of last year) a little over $8,606,000. The objects of these outlays (thus placed apparently under the exclusive control of one man) are, for the most part, public buildings, which are scattered over the country from Boston in Massachusetts to Portland in Oregon. They also vary in every possible detail, one being the new State Department in Washington; another, the new Post-office in New York; a third, a mint in Carson; a fourth, a court-house in Raleigh. Some of the appropriations, though made for minor and incidental matters, nevertheless appear of colossal proportions. Thus, to recur to illustration by comparison, we find that Parliament appropriates for royal palaces £41,552, and Congress an almost precisely equal amount, viz., $225,000, "for fuel, light, and water, and miscellaneous items required by janitors and firemen in the proper care of the public buildings under the control of the Treasury." The common American idea that the palaces of England are a grievous burden upon an overtaxed people is thus exploded by our own Congress; for who shall say that they are a burden upon a much wealthier community than ours if it does not cost as much to keep them up as to keep our Treasury janitors and firemen supplied with "fuel, light, water, and miscellaneous items"?

But notwithstanding such items as this, it is evident that the bulk of this annual outlay of $8,000,000 is devoted to the erection of public buildings. Substantially, all of these buildings are of an expensive and some are of an exceedingly ambitious type. Every one of them is expected to outlast the generations who erect them, and a few to go down the ages and become historic monuments. None is of the temporary type—the type that betokens that a person or a people is waiting to grow rich—such as the old Post-office building which has so long served this city, or the plain brick "War and Navy Departments" in Washington. The latter, indeed, are about to be torn down to make way for one of the new type—an Ionic marble pile with a French or Mansard roof, known as the "New State Department." This transition from the plain and cheap utilitarian to costly art betokens a stage in the national progress where a people believe that they are not bound to the necessities of to-day, but may build for posterity.

When a nation thus takes to working for present fame or future admiration, and designs to give an element of perpetuity to its public buildings, every one knows that it necessarily builds in with its money its mistakes, and perpetuates them in marble or lasting granite. It is such buildings as these that we are now building (or trying to build) which require care and skill, the highest order of talent at least, and, when it can be procured, the most exalted architectural genius. If some of our growing structures do not fall down in the next century for want of skill in their construction, or are not pulled down as being unpardonably inconvenient or useless or grotesque, if, in short, they have the luck to live a hundred years, the question will naturally be, what care and foresight, what conscientious effort and faithful common-sense, did the people who built them give toward securing edifices at all commensurate with their great cost, or at all deserving of going down into history? Until the last week it is probable that there are not a thousand Americans out of Washington who would not have answered, if thus questioned, that they knew nothing at all about the matter. "Great structures," they would have added, "are going up at great cost, which appear certainly larger and probably better to the native eye than anything it has seen before, but what foreigners will think of them, accustomed as they are to world-renowned works of art erected by men who struggled with their whole might to make them perfect, is a question as to which most of us must confess some curiosity at least." During the past week, however, the accident of a personal quarrel has disclosed to the country the fact that these ambitious schemes and this great outlay have been confided to a single individual holding a position which is not even an office, *i.e.*, which does not involve the responsibility of appointment by the President and confirmation by the Senate. This person, by that adroitness which of late years forms so prominent a part of our public misfortunes, has worked up this entire business of public building to its present dimensions. From what we can learn, the craving for new public buildings in every part of the country has enabled him to form combinations in Congress which carry or defeat almost anything. Coming to Washington without any professional reputation, he has speedily become the final judge and arbiter of all our public archi-

tecture in every part of the country, with the solitary exception, we believe, of the Capitol. Furthermore, while Mr. Mullett has been the official architect, not only of great buildings in progress of erection at the same time with those in Washington, New York, and Boston, and of custom-houses, mints, post-offices, and court-houses in every part of the country, he has also been the superintendent, the manager, the contracting agent, and the disbursing officer of the entire business, and has even carried his unrestrained and undefined power so far as to set up an official furniture manufactory for the Government, and, indeed, to do what he pleased with the funds entrusted to him not by law, but by the appropriation bills of successive Congresses. For all this really vast responsibility, and for this labor, which, if really performed, would task a score of able men, he has been paid a paltry salary of $4,000 a year. In the matter of disbursements there may have been—there probably have been—the ordinary formal checks of the Treasury which apply to all disbursing officers, but beyond this there has been no Board of Control, no real supervising authority, and his official life apparently has been largely passed in managing committees of Congress, in cajoling "watch-dogs of the Treasury," and in riding over his only official superiors, the former Secretaries of the Department. For a former Secretary to have quarrelled with Mr. Mullett would have been as dangerous as to have quarrelled with Mr. Sanborn or Mr. Jayne. Mr. Mullett, indeed, has been one of our rulers, ruling Congress, and through Congress the Treasury and country. The part which he has played has been a part which many rulers before him have selected, that of adorning his realm with costly architectural works which he esteemed fine. The straightforward course of Mr. Bristow seems a part of the decree of fate which has given us the disclosures of the last two years. Whether there is anything worse behind the rupture than insubordination may be a matter for investigation by the next House of Representatives.

THE CIVIL ALLEGIANCE OF CATHOLICS.

THE controversy excited by the Decrees of the Council of the Vatican and by the Pope's list of damnable errors, is fast settling down on the only point which possesses much practical interest—namely, the extent to which they are likely to affect the relations of Catholic citizens to the civil government under which they live. The other point by which many people were in the beginning most disturbed—namely, the extent to which the Decrees and the Syllabus would probably affect men's relations to literature and science, has rapidly declined in interest under the influence of more mature consideration. For it needs only a very slight acquaintance with the state of the public mind in all Western countries to see that no part, or, at all events, only a very small part, of the class which allows itself to engage in the moral and scientific specula tion by which the world is now agitated, is likely to retreat from the arena on receiving a signal from Rome. In other words, the mental and moral conditions which lead a man to indulge in free enquiry on fundamental questions, may be fully relied on to prevent his being troubled by anything which either the Pope or the Council may say by way of prohibition. If a Catholic likes to hear Huxley and Tyndall, and has been in the habit of reading what books he pleases, the temperament, or bent, or influences which lead him into these ways are certain to make him indifferent to ecclesiastical directions for the regulation of his lines of thought; therefore, all warnings addressed to him by Protestants are apt to seem either useless or impertinent, or both.

On the other hand, the class of Catholics whose orthodoxy the Decrees and the Encyclical were likely to confirm or protect, were very unlikely ever to put their orthodoxy in danger. They were likely to be persons, in short, without any turn for speculation of any kind, and without the capacity, even if they had the desire, to construct a new theory of the universe. Of course, we do not mean to say that the solemn declarations of the government of the church would in no case lead educated and inquisitive Catholics to greater carefulness in their external conduct. Nonconformity or open external disobedience to the church might often prove a matter of great social or political inconvenience, and, for domestic reasons, a cause of real suffering, and would therefore be avoided by thousands who in private allowed their understanding to rove in forbidden fields. That this is the state of mind of a large majority of Catholic men of the middle and upper classes in France, Spain, and Italy, there is no denying. One of the most fruitful causes of error, in calculating the power of the church in modern society, is forgetfulness of the fact that there is a vast amount of concealed free-thinking or indifference within the church, or, in other words, that faith among those who are called the faithful differs very widely in clearness and intensity. There are Catholics, as there are Protestants, who believe most fervently and devoutly all that the most orthodox doctors of their church have ever taught; others who do not know exactly what they believe, and who, for social convenience' sake, or through mental indolence, do not care to examine their own belief at all; and others, again, who are as sceptical as Voltaire, but think the church a useful institution. All these pass outwardly as Christians. Upon Catholics of these three classes the recent deliverances of the Vatican have, as far as their creed is concerned, probably produced no effect worth mention. The devout man remains devout, but he would have been as devout as he is now if the last Council had never met. The indifferent man remains indifferent, the sceptical sceptical, but all keep silent as mice. It is not the fashion of our time to "come out," or secede, or found new sects, or go to the stake for points of doctrine, and in fact it is very difficult to elicit strong, vigorous opposition to any religious proposition, however wild. People having seen many centuries of fruitless controversy over doctrine, have lost their ardor about it.

Now, this state of mind has been one of the greatest difficulties of the Ultramontane party in the Catholic Church. It has seemed impossible of late years to bring about a revival, or, in other words, to rouse people into even decent attention to religious matters. The promulgation of new articles of faith touching things with purely spiritual or abstract did no good, because the laity looked on in indifference or swallowed languidly anything that was offered them in the way of signs or wonders. The Pope might adopt any system of astronomy or any theory of the origin of the universe or of the future life he pleased, and put it in a Bull, and nobody would make much fuss over it. It has been found necessary for him, therefore, to come down on the solid earth as a mundane power, and put forward more vehemently than ever before a string of propositions of the most startling character touching men's duties and relations, not in the life to come but in this life. Accordingly, he offers to damn anybody who says the press ought to be free, or that the church may not employ physical force against its enemies when it can, or that the ecclesiastical power ought not to be superior to the civil power, or that the Pope ought not to be temporal sovereign of the Papal States, or that any state has a right to regulate the education of its children, or that any form of worship but the Catholic ought to be tolerated. Now, when these things are said with a great flourish of trumpets they do startle people. When men are told they must believe in the Immaculate Conception, or in the Miracle of Lourdes or of La Salette, or that an old man in Rome speaking *ex cathedra* is "infallible," they are not roused by it; but when they are told that the foregoing definitions of the duty of citizens are promulgated as of divine authority, they naturally begin to ask how many of their neighbors believe them or are likely to act on them; whether any attempt is likely to be made to carry them into effect, and whether they are likely to be seriously taught to children.

Accordingly, the controversy between Protestantism and Catholicism, which, long after the Reformation on the Continent and during the early part of the present century in England, turned on faith and works, and penance, and purgatory, and confession, and transubstantiation, is now recurring with considerable violence to the questions with which it was occupied in England in the reign of Elizabeth, namely, the extent of the Pope's political power and

the capacity of Catholic citizens for civil allegiance. This is a burning question, as we see. It accounts for the passage of the Falk laws in Germany, and for the stir created by Gladstone's pamphlet in England. Protestants in both countries begin frankly to declare that though they do not particularly care what a man thinks about purgatory or the age of the world, they care a great deal what he thinks about the comparative claims of the Emperor William and the Pope on his obedience at serious crises. Bismarck has characteristically chosen to bring the matter to an issue by legislation intended first of all to repudiate the formal limitations recently put on the authority of the state by the church—in which we hold, he is, "humanly speaking," perfectly justified; and, secondly, to prevent the ecclesiastical view of the relations between church and state from being taught to the common people—and this he does by insisting that the priest shall, before receiving his ecclesiastical education, receive a sound secular one.

No collision of this kind can be brought about in England, because the Catholic clergy is not, and has not been for over three centuries, in the pay of the state, or in any formal or official relation to the state, and because the state in England exercises no such supervision over the higher education as it exercises in Prussia. Accordingly, in England, when the public gets alarmed, the politicians, instead of bringing bills into Parliament, write pamphlets and letters to the newspapers. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet,* "expostulating" with his Catholic countrymen for not making some active demonstration against the Vatican Decrees, which has made a great sensation, is open to nearly all the criticism which has been directed against it. The Catholics cannot, as Lord Acton points out, show now that if the Pope were to make any such claim on their obedience as Mr. Gladstone thinks under church law he might make, they would resist him. It may be, too, as Lord Acton asserts, that the Pope is no better armed with authority than he was a century ago, and is much worse armed with power. And it may be, as the *Pall Mall Gazette* points out, that Mr. Gladstone's appeal is from first to last clumsy, and irritating to the very class which the author professes to be trying to persuade. But it none the less furnishes expression to a desire which has, since 1870, been spreading in all Protestant countries with a large Catholic population, and which the language of the Catholic clergy has helped to intensify, viz., the desire to know how the Vatican Decrees have affected the actions of their Catholic fellow-citizens in their duties to the state; or, in other words, how Catholics would act if their own Government and the Court of Rome should ever come into collision about a piece of domestic legislation? That there is any way of getting a formal answer to this question we do not well see. Indeed, it is in its nature a question to which no formal answer can be given, and which we cannot hope to have much light upon until such a collision actually takes place. But the discussion of the matter now is none the less necessary. There is a cloud over it which may be at least in a measure removed by pushing the Catholic prelates a little more closely to the wall. This discussion seems to be rendered all the more necessary by Archbishop Manning's reply to Mr. Gladstone, of which we gave a summing up last week, and which was eminently characteristic of that subtle but by no means ingenuous divine, who says in it that "the civil allegiance of Catholics is as undivided as that of all Christians, and of all men who recognize a divine and natural moral law," and that the civil allegiance of Catholics is limited only, like that of other Christians, "by conscience and the law of God." The question which this statement of Catholic doctrine leaves in the dark happens to be the only question in the controversy which possesses any importance, and that is, to whom does a good Catholic go since 1870 when he wants to know what the law of God is? If "his conscience" said one thing about an act of the legislature, and the Pope said another, to which would he listen? In short, where does a good Catholic find his "natural moral law" when he gets into a dispute with the state? If he finds it at the Vatican, what is the difference between having one's allegiance limited by "the natural moral law" and having it limited by the Syllabus? Every good citizen will see the desirableness of having Catholic divines express themselves freely and without fencing and equivocation on such points as these. They go to the root of civil polity.

* An edition in large type, with Archbishop Manning's and Lord Acton's replies, has been published by the Appletons.

JOHN RICHARD DENNETT.

BOTH the *Nation* and its readers have during the past week suffered a loss which it is hardly an exaggeration to call irreparable, in the death of Mr. John R. Dennett, who has been one of the editorial staff of this journal from its foundation, and whose contributions to its columns have from the very first furnished one of its strongest claims to public approbation. That a writer of whose services we speak thus warmly should not be known even by name to the great majority of our subscribers, and still less known to the public at large, is not in his case wholly, or even in large part, a result of anonymous journalism. It has not been our fortune to meet with any one who could so easily, and by so small a change in his relations to the world without, have won a fair share of the fame which is in our day divided so lavishly among literary aspirants of all kinds and conditions, and who was so completely and unreservedly indifferent to it. It might truly be said of him that if he toiled at all he preferred to toil obscurely, and that though far from heedless of the praise and sympathy of the small circle of friends with whom he lived, the satisfaction he derived from his literary work was due almost wholly to the fact that it furnished the means of expression to a mind of remarkable power and acuteness. He became connected with the *Nation* in 1865, when he was only in his twenty-seventh year, and while studying law at Harvard, and with the exception of a year passed at the South as our special correspondent, continued regularly to contribute literary reviews and other matter of a similar character to our columns down to the last month of his life; and we believe that after nine years' experience of his work none of those who were familiar with it can now recall a single case on which more mature consideration would lead them to pronounce his judgment fundamentally erroneous. It would indeed be very hard to find anybody whose literary sense was so acute, whose perception of fitness was so quick, and whose standards exercised so constant and powerful an influence on his conclusions. To say he did not sometimes seem captious and even harsh would be a tribute which his memory does not need, for all those who knew him well knew also that there has rarely been a critic whose criticisms were less colored by personal feelings or relations. His likes and dislikes, however strong, were purely literary, and indeed their very strength was to his friends an illustration, which often had its comic side, not of the sharpness of his temper, but of the fervor of his devotion to his own ideal of excellence. His faults as a critic, trifling as they were, were those of a man "qui avait trop tôt vu la beauté parfaite." Whether better health and wider social relations, with their constant demands on his charity and forbearance, might not have made him more patient with feebleness, and pretence, and affectation, and vulgarity, and the rest of the vices which the swelling tide of popular literature carries daily under the eyes of those who bring high aims and clear perceptions to the critic's calling, it is unhappily useless now to speculate. It is no part of our present purpose to defend him or apologize for him; we are only trying to make him better understood of some of those who were troubled by his judgments, without always knowing who had uttered them.

The mention of his health is necessary to explain his failure to produce as well as to criticise. That he was capable of creation of a very high order nobody who knew him well ever doubted. His early promise was very great. He graduated at Harvard in 1862, and was the class poet, and his poem was one which, in the judgment of all who heard it, and James Russell Lowell was among them, was not only probably the best class poem ever produced, but would have well borne comparison with the best poems of any kind. He went to the South immediately afterwards, and for a year or two had charge of a cotton plantation in South Carolina, an experience which gave him a curious and useful familiarity with the negroes and negro life, and with most of the leading features of what we have still unhappily to call "the Southern question." In the winter of 1865–6 he travelled through the Cotton States as the correspondent of the *Nation*, and our subscribers of that period will remember the remarkable descriptive power and keen sense of humor displayed in his letters, published under the general heading of "The South as It Is" in our first two volumes. That more than this cannot be said of them was due to the restrictions imposed on him, for he was specially directed to confine himself to depicting what he saw; but more remarkable writing in this field, we think, is not often met with in periodical literature. After his return he never left the office of the *Nation* except to pass two years at Harvard—1869–72—as Assistant-Professor

of Rhetoric, a position for which, however, though he filled it well, his temperament unfitted him, as its duties involved a considerable amount of drudgery. But through the whole of these slight changes in his short career the shadow of the disease which had carried off nearly all his family, and to which he has at last fallen a victim, was upon him, and most certainly damped his ardor, weakened his power of persistence, and shortened his views of the future. Of what he might have accomplished with a constitution better adapted to his surroundings, one got an idea, however faint, from his extraordinary powers of apprehension, which we have rarely seen equalled and never surpassed. He had only to turn his mind to any subject, however foreign to his tastes and habits, to master it with singular rapidity, and hold its leading features with singular tenacity. As a trifling, and to his friends somewhat grotesque, illustration of this, we may mention that his knowledge of that very odious subject, Southern State politics since the war, was accurate and minute to a remarkable degree. His plantation life and his journey as our correspondent had given him an interest in the South which he never lost, and which was cultivated by tolerably regular reading of the Southern papers, and the result was that he became a perfectly trustworthy authority on recent Southern history. He was familiar with the career of all the leading carpet-baggers and scalawags, knew the details of their principal frauds and thefts and migrations, and of the various processes, savory and unsavory, by which the existing State governments were built up and maintained.

The oddity of this lore was of course only visible to those who knew his great proficiency in widely different fields, and how far away from scenes of vulgar political profligacy his own tastes carried him. Indeed, he had no natural liking for politics at all, and his studying law was probably a mistake. His mind was a great deal too subtle, his love of perfection too strong, and his perception of the allowances and reservations called for by strict accuracy in the presentation of any subject outside the realm of pure science was too keen, to permit of his ever being a successful lawyer or political writer. In fact, his writing on all subjects was somewhat marred by excessive watchfulness over his own statements. He had the hatred of exaggeration, of looseness, of reckless generalization, of flashy coloring, and indeed of all gross disproportion between means and results, which comes of the highest literary culture, but which nevertheless often reminds one that literary culture, like other culture in special fields, may be too high for much of the inevitable work of the world. But one of its curious results in Mr. Dennett's case was that it gave him what we might almost call an eager eye for the humorous and picturesque side of politics. He watched a political rascal or charlatan with much the same kind of interest with which a painter watches a Spanish or Italian beggar, and remembered him as a sort of literary study. He consequently liked attending political conventions, but bestowed his interest rather on the acting of the managers than on the conflict of passions and interests, or the working of the machinery, and usually brought away from them a large store of humorous reminiscence. The peculiarity of this taste, however, could, as we have said, hardly be appreciated by anybody who had not heard him talk in his best mood and in his own walks. We do not think we do him more than justice when we say that this was often an entertainment of the highest order. His knowledge of English literature, and of whatever was needed of history or mental or moral or social philosophy to light it up, was both wide and deep; and when in his best vein, and in society in which he felt at ease, he was capable of discoursing by the hour on almost any of the topics on which conversation is usual or possible, with extraordinary fulness of information and command of language, and this not as a well-read man simply, like so many of the smaller littérateurs of our day, who seem overwhelmed by their own stores, but as a man who had thought much and long of whatever he discussed, and who had examined it under various lights and from various points of view, and to whom what our friends of the daily press call "the ball of discussion" was really a ball, and not an anvil or a barrel of flour. Here, too, unhappily, the display of his great powers was checked by his temperament; for he was very shy, and the animation which was needed to loose his tongue only came in very few circles. The maudlin element in literature and oratory, and the growing practice of public weeping in print and on the platform, had no bitterer enemy; but, probably, few men ever had a tenderer heart. The very last words he wrote for the *Nation* were praise of Dr. Holmes's *Atlantic* article on Jeffries Wyman, for Wyman was a man for whose character Mr. Dennett, without in the least sharing his scientific ardor, had the keenest sympathy and admiration. The only communication which came from him after this was an announcement—written with the tremor of growing weakness—that the end was near, and that his old haunts would see him no more.

Mr. Dennett's family were originally from Nova Scotia, where he himself was born, at Chatham on the Miramichi River, and moved to Woburn, Mass., when he was only five or six years old. His father was killed by an accident when the son was quite young, and the narrow circumstances in which he had to struggle for education so affected a sensitive and somewhat morbid temperament as to produce a reserve from which he only released himself in the company of a very few intimate and loved friends. How strong was the attachment they felt for him, and how much more attachment they could have displayed than he ever permitted, those of them who may read these lines know well. He died at the house of one of them, a clergyman who had been his classmate, on a quiet New England farm, at Westborough, Mass., after having been tenderly nursed through a tedious illness. None of his kindred were able to stand at his bedside in his last hours. In paying this feeble tribute to his memory on the part of those with whom he labored during the last nine years, and who had learned to know and love him as he deserved, one is inevitably restrained by the reflection that, such was his inbred modesty, even the coldest and most guarded praise would, could it now reach his ear, only surprise and perplex him. Our regret, too, over the early termination of a career in which all his friends saw possibilities so splendid, is softened—and it is the only thing that can soften it—by the reflection that the limitations which his health had placed on the display of his powers, were such as would have made life only a prolonged and anxious struggle with cares which a proud and sensitive man finds it hard to bear, because he has to bear them alone.

LAMARTINE.

II.

PARIS, Nov. 13.

WE left Lamartine on the road to Italy with his young wife, Marian Birch; he had been named Secretary of Legation at Naples. His 'Meditations' were in every one's hand in France—thirty-six editions were published in a single year; in Italy he could still enjoy the pleasures of obscurity. He travelled leisurely, stopping on his way at Turin, at Florence, at Rome; he arrived at Nola at the very moment when the revolution of the 6th of July took place—a very small and mild revolution, which simply forced the king to swear to a constitution which he afterwards obeyed only when he liked. Lamartine at that time was still a royalist, of what may be called the sentimental school; he did not look on monarchy as an instrument in political machinery; he looked upon it with the eye of a poet; he did not care for constitutions; he was ready to obey the king as a knight of old times obeyed his lord. He cared little for what is called politics, and retired with his wife to the island of Ischia. His correspondence with Virieu, in the autumn of 1820, reads like poetry translated into prose. He wrote in that period the elegy of 'Ischia,' which is one of the most melodious poems ever written in the French language:

> "L'Océan amoureux de ces rives tranquilles
> Calme, en baisant leurs pieds, ses orageux transports,
> Et pressant dans ses bras ces golfes et ces îles,
> De son humide haleine en rafraîchit les bords.
> Du flot qui tour à tour s'avance et se retire
> L'œil aime à suivre au loin le flexible contour. . ."

This is musical poetry; the language becomes quite plastic in Lamartine's hands, and acquires a sort of fluidity which was unknown before him. The 'Chant d'Amour' was also composed at this time; it has all the beauty of an antique epithalamium.

In the middle of January, 1821, he went to Rome, where a son was born to him. He did not take any active part in the diplomatic service, probably thinking that the functions of a secretary were not important enough for him. He had a sort of permanent *congé;* went to Paris, to Mâcon, to London. He published from 1823 to 1829 the 'New Meditations,' which are, with the first 'Meditations,' his chief title to glory, the 'Death of Socrates,' and the 'Last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.' Some of the 'New Meditations' have an incomparable charm. The 'Adieux à la mer,' for instance, are as fine as Shelley's best productions, and Lamartine's muse has a placidity, a supreme serenity, which is more soothing to the mind than the troubled inspiration of the great English poet. Can anything be more touching, more eternally true, more in accordance with the deepest instincts of humanity, than the verses of the "Préludes,"

> "O vallons paternels! doux champs, humble chaumière"?

It is no small praise to say that in a French anthology such pieces must necessarily have a place, as well as the "Lake," "L'Isolement," the "Gulf of Baia," which belong to the first 'Meditations.' The 'New Meditations' were sold for 15,000 francs, the 'Death of Socrates' for 6,000, and 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage' for 9,000 francs. Such prices were very large for the time, and would be considered so now, though Victor Hugo can command almost any price he chooses for his works.

Lamartine lost his first-born in 1822, and Madame de Lamartine became very ill. He lost two sisters, Madame de Vignet and Madame de Montherot. He had besides these misfortunes a small disappointment: he offered himself as a candidate to the French Academy—and whom did the Academy prefer to him? M. Droz. It is difficult to imagine by what principles the Academy was guided on this occasion. Lamartine was young, to be sure (he was thirty-four years of age), and M. Droz was an old man. If you should ask any cultivated man now if he ever read anything of M. Droz's, he would almost treat the question as an insult. M. Droz had his public in his time; do not let us be too hard on his public or on him. There are Drozes in every period: we have ours, and our children will have theirs.

Lamartine published a poem on the 'Coronation of Charles X.' It is a very loose production, somewhat in the style of an official cantata. It gave rise to a difficulty with the Duc d'Orléans, who became afterwards Louis Philippe. Lamartine, speaking of him, said in the fire of poetic inspiration that he had expiated the crimes of his father. Louis Philippe objected to the word crime, and Lamartine altered the word in a new edition. The original edition with the word crime has now become a bibliographical curiosity. Lamartine made the change in obedience to the distinct wish of Charles X., which to him was an order; but he made it very unwillingly, and the verse, altered as it is now, has no sense whatever. In 1825, Lamartine settled in Florence, with his wife, a little girl, now his only child, and his friend, M. de Virieu. Poets have unknown friends, but have also unknown enemies. In his Byronic poem, 'The Last Canto of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage,' he had exclaimed against Italy:

"Je vais chercher ailleurs (pardonne, ombre romaine!)
Des hommes et non pas de la poussière humaine."

He certainly had forgotten these lines when Colonel Pepe, a Neapolitan exile who lived in Florence, denounced them in a very offensive pamphlet. A duel followed this attack on Lamartine. The poet had received a kick from a horse, and was confined to his bed, but he wrote to Pepe, who insisted upon waiting till he was quite well, that he would not wait, and would meet him the next day. The duel took place in the neighborhood of Florence. Virieu was Lamartine's second. The fight lasted only a few minutes; Lamartine was wounded in the arm, but soon recovered. He became a lion in Florence, notwithstanding the verses which had irritated Pepe. Lamartine still held the post of Secretary of Legation under the Marquis de la Maisonfort. He spent most of his time riding on the beautiful slopes of the Apennines or writing poetry. He tried his hand at a great epic poem, and it is fortunate that he did not persist in his project of celebrating the virtues and the victories of King Clovis in twenty cantos. This poem, according to the plans set forth in the correspondence, was to be longer than the poems of Homer, Dante, and Milton put together. He abandoned this project, and wrote the 'Poetic and Religious Harmonies,' which are wonderfully fine—as beautiful as the 'Meditations,' but not so well condensed. The 'Harmonies' have no limitation; they offer to the mind the vision of an endless sea of images, of metaphors, of thoughts. This want of precision was the capital defect of Lamartine's mind. He was essentially a lyric poet, and the caprice of his imagination drew him in every direction. His sentimental overflow becomes at times wearisome; beauty lies in measure, whether we express it in architecture, in the fine arts, or in poetry; and Lamartine had no measure—he was a spendthrift in every sense of the word.

He became tired of remaining in a subordinate position in the Foreign Office, and as he inherited the large fortune of two of his uncles, he left Florence in 1828 and returned to France. He found the political world convulsed with the change of cabinet; the liberal Martignac was replaced by Polignac; and Lamartine wrote to his friend Virieu: "I believe now in the possibility of a revolution which will sweep away the dynasty; I did not believe it yesterday." He asked, however, the post of First Secretary at London, or of Minister to Athens. He was refused, but found consolation for his pride in his nomination to the French Academy in November, 1829.

Very soon afterwards he lost his mother, who burned herself frightfully in a bath, as she allowed the hot water to flow too rapidly and could not stop it. She died after the most painful illness, and Lamartine buried her at Saint Point. She was the great, perhaps the only profound, passion of his life; he writes about her to Virieu letters which have a tone of sincerity and of depth which is not often found in his effusions. He returned to Paris for the ceremony of his reception in the Academy. He was received by Cuvier, who had been elected a member of the French Academy, though his claims to celebrity were chiefly scientific. Lamartine had to make the eulogy of his predecessor, Count Daru, who had been a high functionary of the First Empire: he improved the opportunity to express his political sentiments. He felt already drawn from the quiet field of politics to the stormy atmosphere of party conflicts. "From this century," he said, "will date our double restoration: restoration of liberty by the throne, and of the throne by liberty. The century will bear the name either of the legislator-king who has consecrated the progress of our time in the *charte*, or of the gentleman-king whose word is a *charte*, and who will preserve for his posterity this perpetual gift of his family." These words will be better understood if we remember that they were pronounced almost on the eve of the Revolution of 1830; Lamartine was a Royalist, but a Constitutionalist at the same time. His advice was thought too haughty, and the Court party became very angry with the new Academician.

He left Paris in great uneasiness of mind, after having published the 'Harmonies,' which were received by the public with as much enthusiasm as the 'Meditations.' He was at Aix when he heard the fatal news of Polignac's *ordonnances*. The revolution which he had almost prophesied took place. "There it is," he writes to Virieu; "if it crosses our frontiers, all is over in Europe; it will be like the universal deluge, without an ark. Happily, between the revolution and ourselves there is an improvised government, fortified with all the wishes of the middle classes, with good institutions. This shows the way for all honest men. Anything rather than anarchy, than a stupid and hideous complicity with enemies who would devour themselves after having devoured us. My conscience tells me that as long as one can fight for one's country, for the principles saved in the wreck of a crown, one must do it, and not enquire whether the flag has one color or three colors, whether whatever remains of monarchy, of liberty, of religion, of stability, is called Peter or Paul. I shall consequently accept any function which well-thinking men may give me in the Parliament or anywhere else." He sent in his resignation, however, but in his letter confessed himself ready to take the oath to the new government. Such was the conduct of an intelligent Royalist of 1830; why was it not the conduct of all Legitimists; and why, even now, is a great fraction of the Legitimist party not inspired by these noble sentiments? There are many who deplore the suicidal conduct of the Comte de Chambord, but there are none who dare to speak in favor of a Liberal monarchy, like the monarchy of 1830. They will follow Chambord, even though he ruins their cause and the cause of the country.

Lamartine was very severe in 1830 on the Republicans. It is true that the Republicans were then few in number; that they had no means of controlling the Government but barricades or the threat of rebellion. His friend Virieu was a Royalist of the *chevau-léger* type. He would not accept any part of the principles of 1798. Lamartine thought that these principles were not incompatible with monarchical institutions, and expressed this view in his 'Politique rationelle.' His letters to Virieu at that time are very interesting. He kept aloof, and was somewhat shy of accepting office; he did not give complete satisfaction to any party; he was not *advanced* enough for the men who were in power immediately after the Revolution; he seemed much too advanced to his old friends. He offered himself for election at Bergues, but he was not returned, and started for the East in 1832 on a ship which he had chartered for himself. His journey has been written by himself, and I will say nothing about his 'Voyage en Orient.' To me, Lamartine is always unsatisfactory as a prose writer.

He returned to France in 1833, was elected Deputy, and then his political career really began. It is perhaps a pity that he ever embarked his graceful muse in the sea of politics and did not remain a poet to the end. Posterity will always remember the 'Meditations,' while he could not save the Republic of 1848 from a speedy destruction.

Correspondence.

DISTRICT REPRESENTATION.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In a well-written communication in the last number of the *Nation*, I was surprised to see the following passage: "If the malcontents could have invited a distinguished candidate *from another part of the State*, they would have had even a better chance, because a man of ability only excites jealousies in his district which, on the principle of *omne ignotum pro magnifico*, a stranger would avoid. In like manner, a man who wishes to promote a measure of public importance has no chance unless he can persuade his district; whereas, if he could canvass the State himself or by his friends, *he might find a constituency to appreciate him*. In England, for these reasons, no such thing as a caucus is known."

The Constitution of the United States, Article I., Section 1, clause 2, declares, "No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not when elected be an inhabitant of the State in which he shall be chosen," etc. Can there be any doubt that every consti-

tuency and State has the right already to do what your correspondent deems so desirable? Judge Story says the States can add nothing to the qualifications prescribed by the Constitution. Besides the weight of his authority, his argument is, I think, unanswerable. ('Story on the Constitution,' sections 624 to 629 inclusive.)

In 1790, the celebrated Wm. Pinkney of Maryland was elected to Congress from a district other than that in which he lived. His election was contested upon the ground of his non-residence. A law of the State required such residence. He appeared in the House of Representatives, and argued the question. The House decided in his favor. He thereupon resigned, that he might give all his time to his profession. (Wheaton's 'Life of Pinkney,' 7.)

Want of time forbids my pursuing the subject further. I agree with your correspondent as to the importance of the principle. It is earnestly to be hoped that ere long the experiment will be tried in more than one district. If successful, it cannot fail to exert a purifying effect upon our national politics, and to promote the well-working of our national polity. A. B.

AN INCONVERTIBLE CURRENCY.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In your criticism on Mr. Kelley's "Inconvertible Currency Bill," last week, you say:

"We ought to add that the principle of Kelley's bill received the warm support of Mr. Wendell Phillips, in a letter to the Hon. B. F. Butler, in which he recommended unlimited loans to the Government of new paper-money, at four per cent. if we remember rightly, to all citizens applying for it on the security of mortgage on real estate. We confess our preference for Mr. Phillips's plan, though we say this without meaning to depreciate Judge Kelley's. Our firm belief is that the former would make money plentier in the United States than it ever was in any country in the world, and possesses the grand merit of extreme simplicity. In one month from the issue of the greenbacks, or as soon thereafter as 'the papers' could be made out, every foot of this vast continent would, in fact, be mortgaged to the United States."

We have no wish to depreciate the plan of Mr. Phillips, but we cannot share your belief that it "would make money plentier in the United States than it ever was in any country in the world." His plan is defective, in the fact that the Government is to exact mortgage security for its issues, so that the currency, being convertible into land, would still have too great a purchasing power, and would still be inconveniently scarce.

It has been reserved for the unassisted genius of the African race, in its tropical exuberance, to develop a truly inconvertible currency before our eyes, in the model Republic of Hayti. On our way home from Santo Domingo, with the United States Commission, some three years ago, we visited Port-au-Prince, and found the system of inflation in full operation there. On landing we were told that specie was no longer in use [except among the importers], and that it would be necessary to exchange our gold and silver for "the money of the Republic."

Accordingly, we repaired to the store of Mr. Hepburn, an enterprising colored American, and requested the equivalent of a gold dollar. To our amazement the clerk presented us with a huge pile of notes, the Haytian greenbacks, quite too voluminous for convenient transportation in so warm a climate. This pile contained $390, the rate of exchange that day being 390 for 1. We promptly reconsidered our request, and substituted for our gold dollar a silver half-dollar, and for this we received $195 in "the Republican currency."

Feeling naturally elated by our unexpected opulence, we invited several of our American friends to accompany us to the market-place, and there treated them, with reckless generosity, to many luscious varieties of tropical fruits. We afterwards spent two days in rambling about the ruinous old city, indulging our fancy by purchases of palm-leaf baskets, melon-seed necklaces and bracelets, walking-sticks, etc. Yet, would you believe it, Mr. Editor, after paying for all these I still retain in my possession $120, the unspent remainder of my silver half-dollar, and am tempted to make another visit to that genial clime ere long, for the purpose of revelling in luxury with the ample means at my command.

Of course this pleasant picture has its sombre shades, upon which our unprincipled hard-money monopolists might dwell. For instance, all imported goods, clothing, flour, salt-fish, domestics, etc., have to be paid for in gold. How these products of civilization can ever be paid for at all by the poor women who throng the market-place with their heavy loads of fruit, and vegetables, and coffee, carried upon their heads in wooden bowls or baskets, over mountain paths, often twenty miles or more, is a mystery explained perhaps by their half-naked and wholly barbarous condition. Strange to say, they do not fully appreciate their blessings, for every new issue of paper-money, putting up gold to a still more exorbitant premium, is followed by a political revolution. Nor does the system of inflation stimulate domestic manufactures, for there are none. It does not develop public improvements, for everything is falling into decay. Probably the system has not yet had time to operate, since it has only been in existence about seventy-five years. Moreover, the currency, having still a little purchasing power left, may not yet be sufficiently abundant in Hayti.

The advantages of the Haytian system over that of our timid American inflationists consists simply in this—it is the logical application of the same principle. The "national credit" of Hayti is pledged to the eventual repayment of its currency, which was originally at par with gold. Every acre of land, every pound of coffee and sugar, are pledged "in a certain fine sense" for its redemption. But the Haytian Government are too enlightened to embarrass their citizens by taking mortgages upon individual estates, as the half-way plan of Mr. Phillips proposes, or by levying taxes, which the citizens would find it inconvenient to pay. When the rulers of Hayti need money they simply issue more paper, and leave the gold market to take care of itself.

Let us adopt this financial system, so admirable in its "simplicity." When interest-coupons mature upon our national debt, let them be paid in "the people's money." Surely, a currency which is good enough for Americans ought to satisfy the "Jew bankers" and "bloated capitalists" of Europe. Away, then, with gold and silver. These noxious metals should no longer be permitted to cramp the elastic energies of a free people.

Respectfully, Henry B. Blackwell.

Boston, Nov. 24, 1874.

Notes.

Messrs. Estes & Lauriat, Boston, have sent us the title-page of their forthcoming English edition of Guizot's 'History of France,' on which the year 1789 is set down as the actual conclusion of the work. They do this by way of taking exception to the announcement, which we borrowed from the *Athenæum*, that the history as left by Guizot was complete only to the end of the reign of Louis XIV. We have at present no means of settling this difference between Prof. Gustave Masson, who made the announcement in question, and the Boston publishers.——We have received from B. Westermann & Co. Part 12 of 'Spruner's Historical Atlas.' It is exceptionally rich in maps, the large ones being of Germany from the Peace of Westphalia to the year 1742; France from 1461 to 1610; the British Possessions since 1783, with the date of acquisition of each; and the Eastern Roman Empire from 895 to 1019. The side maps are of Strassburg in 1681; Vienna, 1683; Berlin, 1650; Paris at the end of the sixteenth century; the British Possessions in North America down to 1783, and as many more that we have not space to enumerate.——'Memoirs: A Story of German Love,' translated by George B. Upton; 'Poems of the Farm and Fireside,' by Eugene J. Hall; and a volume of poems called 'Across the Sea,' are announced by Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago.——The Paris *Polybiblion* will hereafter be issued in such a way that its bibliographical and literary departments will be entirely distinct, and may be subscribed for separately.——A special number of Trübner's *American and Oriental Literary Record* is devoted to a full report of the International Congress of Orientalists held in London in September.——Mr. E. C. Gardner, the sprightly author of 'Homes, and How to Make Them,' which we lately reviewed, has begun in the Springfield *Republican* a new series of papers on 'Country Houses.' They will be illustrated with plans, and will furnish estimates of cost. The first paper is about "The House the Judge Built."

—The most noticeable article in the *Historical and Genealogical Register* for October is the Hon. George Sheldon's examination of the tradition about the attack on Hadley, Mass., and the appearance of Gen. Goffe, Sept. 1, 1675. Almost everybody must be familiar with this cherished New England legend in its fully developed form. The people of Hadley, it is related, were assembled in church on the above date (or, according to one version, in the following June) when they were suddenly beset by Indians and thrown into the greatest consternation. They were saved by the timely appearance among them of a venerable man, of commanding presence, who gave directions like one versed in military tactics, and led them against the Indians, who were completely routed. When the engagement was over it was found that the unknown captain had vanished as mysteriously as he had come upon the scene, and the belief prevailed that he was an angel in disguise, providentially sent for the salvation of the town. Years afterward it transpired that he was no other than Gen. Goffe, one of the regicide judges, who, with his colleague William Whalley, was at that time concealed in the house of the Rev. John Russell, of Hadley. Mr. Sheldon traces this interesting story back to Increase Mather, who first, in 1677, in narrating the events of King Philip's war, alluded to a violent *alarm* at Hadley lasting two days. Hutch-

inson, in 1764, converted the alarm into an attack, and added "an anecdote handed down through Gov. Leverett's family," which is the Goffe legend minus the embellishments of subsequent historians. President Stiles, of Yale College, thirty years later, supplied the drama with the "angel" property, and topographical and other details of the fighting were by-and-by invented to give local color to the scene. Hutchinson thus appears as the sole authority for this striking incident in the life of Goffe; but though he had access to Goffe's diary, giving a full account of the wanderings, escapes, and concealments of the judges, he had to resort to the Leverett anecdote not only to prove Goffe's participation in the fight, but that there was any attack on Hadley at all in 1675. The silence of contemporary historians (including the officially commissioned Hubbard) and letter-writers is shown by Mr. Sheldon to deprive the alleged attack of every vestige of plausibility; and the recorded movements of troops in and about Hadley two days after the supposed fight confirm the writer in his conclusion that the town may have been alarmed, as Mather wrote, but not molested by the Indians.

—The same number of the *Register* contains a suggestion, by Mr. William H. Whitmore, of a new system of denoting relationship. The present method of designating ascending and descending generations by reduplication of the word "great" is so clumsy and indefinite as to be incapable of defence, and has only maintained itself because, as a rule, in our daily speech we seldom have occasion to refer to a degree so distant that the mind cannot grasp it by means of two or three "greats" and a "grand." The genealogist, however, or any one to whom precision is an object in stating a pedigree, is really in need of something more scientific than this. Mr. Whitmore offers him as a base-word in the ascending scale the old law-French term *ayle* (*aïeuil*), meaning a grandfather, which was developed as far as *besayle*, great-grandfather, and *tresayle*, great-great-grandfather (Blackstone, vol. iii. chap. x.). This may readily be carried out to any degree—*e.g.*, *quatrayle*, *quintayle*, *sesayle*, *septayle*, *octayle* (great-great-great-great-great-great-great-grandfather). The last example shows the saving in space and in breath which the new system would effect, and also that the Roman numeral exactly corresponds with the number of reduplications, if we consider "grand" as only another form of "great," which of course it is. The help thus afforded by English-French in one direction is furnished in the descending series by the Scotch-English, where, says Mr. Whitmore, we find the word *oye*, meaning a grandchild, and equally capable with *ayle* of taking on the numerical prefixes. The corresponding degrees will then be thus ingeniously expressed:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Father:	ayle—	besayle—	tresayle—	quatrayle—	quintayle—	sesayle, etc.
Son:	oye—	besoye—	tresoye—	quatroye—	quintoye—	sesoye, etc.

That these new compounds should ever replace the old in popular usage is, of course, not to be anticipated; but they might easily obtain a literary vogue, especially in New England.

—In the death of Dr. Abraham Geiger, the distinguished Biblical critic and Oriental scholar, progressive Judaism loses one of its foremost champions. Among the many tributes paid to his memory, the most noticeable is that in the Berlin *Gegenwart* by Berthold Auerbach, a lifelong friend and admirer of the deceased. Zunz and Geiger may be regarded as the most eminent representatives of the new epoch in the history of Judaism which commenced with Moses Mendelssohn; and Geiger received his stimulus from the standard works of Zunz, who survives him. Auerbach passes but lightly over the numerous works of Geiger, the most important of which are: 'Lehr- und Lesebuch zur Sprache der Mischna,' 'Urschrift und Uebersetzungen der Bibel in ihrer Abhängigkeit von der innern Entwickelung des Judenthums,' and 'Das Judenthum und seine Geschichte,' and lays particular stress on the merits of Geiger as a reformer and a rabbi. He does not, however, do justice to the important services rendered by Geiger at the rabbinical conferences at Brunswick, Frankfort, and Breslau, which were brought about mainly by his exertions. Geiger was born on the 24th of May, 1810, at Frankfort-on-the-Main. He studied at the universities of Heidelberg and Bonn, and early attracted attention by a prize-essay on the 'Hebrew Element in the Mohammedan Religion.' In 1835 he founded the learned *Zeitschrift für jüdische Theologie*, which he successfully published at Breslau, Frankfort, and Berlin. His fame as a Biblical critic rests chiefly on his 'Urschrift und Uebersetzungen der Bibel,' but he embodied the fruits of his critical researches in various monographs and essays, the merits of which were universally acknowledged, among others by Renan in his 'Vie de Jésus.' In 1838 he became a rabbi at Breslau, and filled that position for twenty-five years, carrying into practice his reformatory efforts, in spite of strong opposition. After having been several years at the head of the Jewish congregation in Frankfort, he accepted, in 1869, a call as rabbi at Berlin, and held this office until his death, on the 25th of October. In the last year of his life, a long-cherished hope—the establishment of a faculty for the science of Judaism—was realized, and he was acting as professor in the new *Hochschule* at the time of his death.

—The *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 1 contains the second of the series of papers by M. Fustel de Coulanges upon the "Origin of Feudality" (see the *Nation*, No. 440). The first treated of the tenure of land, this takes up the other of the two fundamental elements of the feudal system—the personal relation, especially as exemplified in the usage of "commendation." This, like Prof. Roth, he traces to the Roman "patronage," as developed in the later Empire, especially in relation to the freedmen, so that here his views are not so much at variance with those of this distinguished German as upon the subject of land. M. de Coulanges is well-known as a violent hater of the Germans, and we suppose that this is the reason that he takes no notice of Roth's views, which is a pity, for on several points he differs from him, and we should have liked to see his reasons. Perhaps the most striking single point in the article is the classification, at the beginning, of the various forms of government. "These can all be referred," he says, "to three groups: first, those derived from the family—the clan, the tribe; second, those which are founded upon the principles of political association—the state, as we understand it; third, those in which the bond is that of a perpetual and voluntary relation of obedience—of this the feudal system is the most striking and complete example." Probably nothing will show more forcibly than this analysis the mistake of those who apply loosely the name "feudal" to every ruling aristocracy—the Highland clans, for example, and the Russian and Polish nobility; both of these belong to the first class, and are totally devoid of the genuine feudal principle.

—The savages who more or less unwittingly have brought about the existing state of tension between China and Japan, have suddenly become interesting subjects of ethnological enquiry. They inhabit the precipitous eastern slopes of Formosa, the land of the camphor-tree, which the Chinese colonists, in their encroachments, steadily cut down without restocking. In the northeast the aboriginal Pepos, or, as they call themselves, Kabaran, have become semi-civilized, and live in close contact with the Chinese, though frequently imposed upon and ill-treated. They are a fine-looking race, with eyes much fuller and larger than those of the Chinese, and live mostly by fishing and hunting. They cultivate the soil a little, and make their own cloth and other articles in a primitive fashion, and act as intermediaries in the traffic between their wilder brethren and the Chinese, who carry on besides a desultory but unsparing warfare. The savages proper are much less intelligent and open in appearance, and in fact have "a suspicious, sinister, dogged look." Their natural want of comeliness is heightened by tattooing, which in the case of the women serves to mark the successive ages of their development—a custom not without obvious advantages. At six or eight years of age every child must have its eye-teeth knocked out, as a means of ensuring speed and wind in hunting, the effect of this upon the whole tribe being anything but agreeable. They are more easily propitiated by the present of a pig than in any other way; they roast the animal in his bristles, and hardly allow him to be warmed through before cutting him up for division. They are so fond of cayenne peppers that for the sake of them they make frequent raids on the Chinese gardens. Tobacco they cultivate, under a name (*ta-ba-ku*) derived either from the Dutch or Spanish colonists, and smoke incessantly, even to the women and children. In pledging friendship, "each man puts his arm around the other's neck, and then, placing their heads and mouths close together, they both drink wine at the same time from one cup." Of the fleas with which this country is infested, it has been said that "were the hasty Japanese only willing to abide the course of time, they might safely leave to the operation of natural selection, or the 'survival of the fittest,' the extermination of the savages who seem to be giving them so much trouble." Such is the humorous view entertained by Mr. Edward C. Taintor, of the Chinese Customs Service, in a paper read last June before the Royal Asiatic Society at Shanghai, from which we have taken the foregoing account of the aborigines. In an appendix he gives a considerable vocabulary of the Kabaran (Pepo) and Yukan (savage) dialects of northeastern Formosa, in comparison with corresponding words in Malay and other languages of the Archipelago. A similar but less extended comparison has been published in the *China Review* for July.

SHEPHERD'S HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.*

TEACHERS have been some time asking for a manageable manual history of the English language, and a good many of them will find Professor Shepherd's book to be just about what they want. It has 227 pages, in large type, and it gives a good general account of the whole subject. The author

* 'The History of the English Language from the Teutonic Invasion of Britain to the close of the Georgian Era. By Henry E. Shepherd, Professor of the English Language and English Literature, Baltimore City College.' New York: E. J. Hale & Son. 1874.

is familiar with the latest English works, and he has been over the ground with his own classes.

A language has its physiological side, and its biographical. The growth of the grammatical forms, and words, and idioms, and permanent rhetorical and poetical powers is a sort of physiological matter; the actual use of these powers in the works of particular authors is biographical. Professor Shepherd tries to present both of these sides of the English language: the growth mainly in the early times, the literary achievements mainly in the later periods. In this his book differs from the histories of Professor Hadley and Dr. Morris. They are mainly physiological histories of the structure of the language. Professor Shepherd is thus able to give a much more accurate general outline than Dr. Morris. A view of the English inflections alone shows the language going through an unbroken succession of losses of form from the earliest Anglo-Saxon to the present, and Dr. Morris presents this continuous decay as the essential history of the English language. The more comprehensive method of Professor Shepherd enables him to use the distinction between mere dialectic talk and classic language with its standard ideals and literary use, and to show us first Anglo-Saxon growing to be a classic speech, and then degenerating and disintegrating into dialects, and afterwards classic English growing up from one of these dialects. This general presentation is truthful and vigorous, and is the main thing that is needed in such an outline. It is filled up with interesting and important details, and the book invites and deserves the widest use. And it is worth improving when it comes to new editions. It is perhaps in the nature of such a book that it needs a history of literature to go with it or before it; it must take for granted more or less general knowledge of the authors whose language is discussed; but still enough ought to be said about the leading authors to make all clear which is said about their speech, and sometimes a little more; the authors who are most important in the history of language sometimes escape the notice of those who make manuals of literature. Robert of Brunne, for example, is a great name for the linguist, and drops in like an old acquaintance who needs no introduction in Professor Shepherd's eleventh chapter, but it might puzzle all the learned in many a learned neighborhood to find out who he was. Piers Plowman is talked about for a whole chapter, but a definite statement of the subject and contents of the work is to be sought elsewhere. Attention to this matter throughout by footnotes or otherwise would improve the book.

The greatest danger of such an outline is the fatal facility of glittering generalities. It seems as though these must be said, and they crowd out facts and illustrations. Professor Shepherd has not been seduced by glitter, but sometimes he lets generalities stand too much alone. Euphuism, for example, has a formal discussion as a characteristic feature of Elizabethan English, but all is general description. The citation of a passage or two is needed to give it definiteness and vividness. In the grammatical part a similar defect appears. Thus on page 23: "With respect to its (Anglo-Saxon) grammar, it is sufficient to say that it had five cases; that the article, noun, adjective, and pronoun were declinable, having different forms for three genders and two numbers," etc., etc. There are no paradigms, or even tables of endings, and all explanations of changes in these endings in the after parts of the book are apt to be defective for want of precise knowledge of the original endings. Indeed, the grammatical part of the book, though altogether above comparison with the scraps from the feast of languages which our common school-books parade as English philology, is not its strong point. Too much reliance has been placed on English editors and critics who are literary men rather than scientific grammarians. There are no "six declensions," for example, in Anglo-Saxon. That was a fancy of Rask, which would have been forgotten for a generation if the amateurs had not kept repeating it. The future in *shall* does not first occur in Layamon; there are examples enough of it in ancient Anglo-Saxon. So of other auxiliaries; so of the articles. It is odd how long-lived negative statements about such words are. That there are only two tenses in Anglo-Saxon, no proper auxiliaries, no passive voice, no articles, is repeated over and over by good scholars. With many it is merely a logical conundrum. They define tenses to be variations of one word; and so count out all forms of expressing time which are printed as two or more words. This has its odd side, since all tenses are made by putting separate words together, and it would seem to make no very great difference whether an expression be printed as one word or two. If the French *chanterai* is a future tense, printing it *chanter ai* ought not to curtail the fair proportions of the French verb, nor does there seem to be any very profound reason for saying that the Latin verb has no perfect passive because the combination of the passive stem with *fui* is printed in two words, *amatus fui*, and that it has a perfect active because the combination of the active stem with *fui* is printed as one word, *amavi*; that it has a present passive because the compound *amo-r* is made one word, and has no perfect passive because the compound is there printed as two words. A Japanese phonographic reporter who should take down as English *aivluvd, aimaitavluvd, aimluvd*, would do all that is needed to fill out our paradigm with modes and tenses and voices of the right sort. Professor Shepherd, in common with many other good scholars, has this way of speaking of there being only two tenses in English, and though we do not like it, we should hardly think of asking him to change it.

He should, however, enumerate and define the auxiliaries. And now, as to auxiliaries, they all were originally independent words, and became auxiliaries by acquiring some secondary dependent use, followed by the gradual loss of their former meaning. A grammarian may refuse to recognize a word as an auxiliary as long as it retains any of its original meaning. It must be on some such ground that well-informed persons deny the use of *shall* as a future sign in Anglo-Saxon. It meant *owe, must, ought*, and something of this meaning may be found or fancied in almost any sentence in which it occurs. This is no good reason for denying it to be a future sign; it makes it that and something more. But pure enough futures are to be found in Anglo-Saxon. Take those in the Gospels where a Latin future is rendered in one translation by a simple future, in another by *shall*, or *will*. Matthew i. 23 reads in Latin, *Virgo in utero habebit*, a virgin will conceive; in Anglo-Saxon the future *habebit* is rendered in one version *sceal habba*, in others *haefth*. So, in Matthew v. 46, *quam mercedem habebitis* is rendered by *sciolun habba* and *habbaet*; while a first person, *Quid manducabimus*, what shall we eat, has *walla ue eatta*, will we eat, interchanging with the simple *ete wē*, Matthew vi. 31, and so on through the Gospels. The glossaries and late Anglo-Saxon grammars refer to pages of these auxiliaries in Beowulf, Cædmon, and the old literature, which he who runs may read, and question if he can.

Something similar may be said of the article *an*, which Professor Shepherd ascribes to a later age. It means *one*, with weakened emphasis, and definiteness of various degrees; but where it is added in translating an indefinite Latin word, and must be translated into English as *an* and not *one*, it ought to pass for an article. In Luke iii. 22, for instance (the Holy Ghost descended *like a dove*), the Latin is *sicut columba*; the Greek has no article; the Anglo-Saxon has in one version *suelce culfra*, in another *swa ân culfre*.

Professor Shepherd not only gives a history of our grammatical forms, but also of the accumulation of our words, an interesting and valuable account, with lists of words from each source, and with dates. Here, too, he sometimes gives undue weight to general considerations as compared with linguistic evidence. He accepts a long list of Anglo-Saxon words as derivatives from Latin of the first Roman occupation of Britain, and he gives a couple of interesting pages of argument for them in the form of a description of the thoroughness with which the Roman colonies were pervaded by Roman influences and the extent to which they were affected by Roman speech. It is all true in a general way, and we know that the Celts, whom Professor Shepherd prefers to call Kelts, as many other good scholars do, received many words from the Romans; the doubt is whether the Celts transmitted them to the Anglo-Saxons. The linguist would examine the words one by one to find evidence of their history in their forms. The Anglo-Saxons had been in immediate contact with Romans and the Latin language long before the Anglo-Saxon was written in which these words are found. To show that they were received from the Celts the proper linguistic proof would be a change of their form according to some peculiar law of the Celtic speech. It would be enough to say of many of the words that there is no trace of any such modification. As to others like *acre, yoke*, they are common words in the earliest forms we know of all the Northern languages, Low German, High German, Scandinavian; the letters obey the laws of indigenous words in their relations to the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, and they are in full use in the Gothic centuries before the Anglo-Saxons landed in Britain. General considerations such as Professor Shepherd urges do not weigh a feather against facts like these, at least to a mere linguist, not a Celtomaniac.

Professor Shepherd should not say that "little can be ascertained with regard to the pronunciation of Anglo-Saxon." It is quite well known to a reasonable degree of minuteness. Not to carry our fault-finding further, there are the common oversights of a first edition, slightly varying statements, misprints, and the like, of which the worst is the use of a sort of *p* for the Anglo-Saxon *th*. And the book needs and deserves an index.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

II.

THE preface to 'Happy-Day Stories' announces that the thirty large illustrations have appeared once before, accompanied by poems from the pens of well-known writers, and that they were so well received by the pub-

* 'Happy-Day Stories for the Young. By H. W. Dulcken, Ph.D. With thirty full-page pictures by A. B. Houghton. Engraved by the Brothers Dalziel.' London and New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

lic as to induce the publishers to offer them to it a second time, and on this occasion explained by stories instead of poems. The result is one of those handsome books for children in which the English excel all others, and which make the parents of the present generation inclined to sigh over the barrenness of their own youthful privileges. When doctors of philosophy write stories for little folks under ten years, as in the present instance, and the first artists and engravers make pictures for them, and all three parties perform their task with that knowledge of juvenile needs and desires and sympathy with them that belong to the enlightenment of the present age, it leaves nothing to be desired except that their work be widespread. The only drawback to the enjoyment of the pictures is the costuming of the women and little girls, which, as some homely subject said of his excellent photograph, "is horrid like." Now that big hoops have passed out of fashion, it shows the pity of copying them, except in the interest of history, in work good enough to earn some permanence. But the big hoops are scarcely worse than the hideous hairdressing and cut and trimming of the dresses, which are all faithfully true to the female fashions of Albion.

'Paws and Claws' is the happy title of another handsome English book, containing large and mostly well-drawn pictures of the "clever creatures" whose histories, in the form of facts and anecdotes, are woven together in a humorous and well-told story. The print and paper in this, as in 'Happy-Day Stories,' are noticeably good. Children will get both pleasure and information out of a book like this.

The contents of 'Talks with Girls' are tolerably well foreshadowed in the preface, in which the author says that it has been her "aim to avoid moralizing in a way that excludes sympathy. We can all be loved into a better mind and sweeter temper when dry, cold counsel is of little avail. . . . It is impossible for me to tell you how tenderly my heart goes out toward struggling, aspiring girls through difficulties their strong, broad-shouldered brothers are not called on to meet. I have tried to look on all sides of girl-life, and not let one set of sympathies stifle the rest." The essays are "About Giving Up," "About Making the Best of Things," "About Teasing," "About Romping," "About Helping," "About Hindering," and about thirty-five other equally well-chosen subjects, making in all 349 compact pages, mostly of advice, lightened by an occasional anecdote. A set of sensible and conscientious essays like these, if a trifle heavy, and containing but little not equally well and better said elsewhere, is such a vast improvement on the Sunday-school literature ordinarily offered to the young, that we ought to feel thankful for them, and wish them to drop as seed in uncultivated places, where, if there be any soil at all, they must surely take root and produce good fruit. All motherless, friendless, poor, and untaught girls would be the better for the volume. For the more fortunate classes, it suggests certain objections. In the first place, there is too much of it. To read unlimitedly in a book of good advice is almost as bad as to do the same by a book of jokes: the impression soon becomes weak; capacity for assimilating the one or for laughing at the other departs. Therefore, they who have wise friends who can give them a little at a time will do better to get their instruction orally. Then there are the dangers of so much special preaching as girls, or boys, or young men, or young women, or workingmen, or the rich, or the poor are subject to nowadays. Miss Tytler, Gail Hamilton, and many others have written pages of counsel for girls, all of which is very well as far as its being true in itself goes, but which forces upon the always lively self-consciousness of girls the notion that they are a separate and peculiar class; that truthfulness, honesty, good-breeding, thoughtfulness, or any other of the virtues, is not the same for one and all, but has a special meaning for them, or a different application. Gay and thoughtless girls are not to be caught by a book of sage lecturing, full of truisms; and the other kind, who are always probing themselves—either in the line of self-condemnation or self-laudation—do not need it. To keep self out of the minds of our precocious youth of both sexes is, in fact, the greatest of all desiderata. And finally, we would beg to ask a number of very good people if there is not danger of the "law of love" being overdone? We say nothing with a desire to strengthen the hands of the old spare-the-rod-and-spoil-the-child school; but among those of advanced education, who have "seen their way out of" the force system, there is certainly too great a tendency to "encourage" or "love into the right path" all young people indiscriminately. It is assumed that growing Americans will not give ear to any masculine, hardy, vigorous, or stern assaults on their weaknesses. You must, if you want to be heard, first "sympathize" with them to the degree of reducing yourself to their level, assuming their faults and adopting their temptations, admitting the hardness of their case and pitying them for the struggle that awaits them. To show them that you are of a just and impartial spirit, and do not bear down on them out of mere fondness for criticism, you must point out how thoroughly you disapprove of many of their elders, parents or teachers, who have erred in being "repressive" and habitually inconsiderate of the "natural feelings" of the young—beings who have actually *compelled* obedience without first persuading the subject why it was exacted of him. Miss Larned says, for instance: "Intelligent children are very quick to discover the weaknesses of grown people." "Parents and teachers and all others in authority should be very careful about refusing, and *never do it* without good and sufficient reason." "There is an admirable old story . . . which deserves to be written in letters of gold," that, namely, of the two monks who did penance by putting dried peas in their shoes. "When the one who limped asked the other who walked with ease how he could do so, 'Oh!' said he, 'it is simple enough; I boiled my peas.' Now, dear girls, learn to boil your peas and then you will not feel them." This, strange as it may appear, is intended to illustrate the meeting of the "little evils" of life by "patience and good-nature"; whereas the "pious" monk did what over-refined and excessive tenderness actually does also, whips the devil around the stump, and takes all the fibre out of self-denial, and all the education out of hardship.

'Risen from the Ranks' is the first story of Mr. Horatio Alger's we remember to have read. It is so plainly a "specimen brick" that going through it seems to make one familiar with the whole "series" of 'Brave and Bold,' 'Luck and Pluck,' which, we learn from the publisher have found a ready sale. The advertisement says further that such "stories exert a healthy influence, and are of immense service to ambitious boys anxious to make their mark in the world." Such a claim for 'Risen from the Ranks' and its popularity make considering it worth while. Briefly, the story is this: Harry Walton is the son of a New Hampshire farmer, who from laudable motives (he never has any other kind) goes out into the wide world. Benjamin Franklin is his hero; he determines to be a printer, and goes into the service of the Centreville *Gazette*. His conduct here is of the highest order; he is under all circumstances cheerful, industrious, stainless. His amusements are innocent. Shunning the evil courses of the other apprentices, he spends one evening with an excellent fellow popping corn. This young gentleman belongs to the "first circles of Boston," and teaches Harry French between whiles. Another evening he spends with a worthy family who teach him how to play checkers—"a game which requires a certain degree of thought and foresight"—and whose conversation is of this sort:

"How do you like your new business?" asked Mrs. Ferguson, as she handed Harry a cup of tea. "I like all but the name" [Printer's Devil], said our hero smiling. "I wonder how the name came to be applied to a printer's apprentice any more than to any other apprentice," said Mrs. Ferguson. "I never heard," said her husband. "It seems to me to be a libel upon our trade. But there is one comfort. If you stick to the business, you'll outgrow the name." "That is lucky; I shouldn't like to be called the wife of a—I won't pronounce the word lest the children should catch it." "What is it, mother?" asked Willie with his mouth full. "It isn't necessary for you to know, my boy."

We may save ourselves the trouble of epitomizing the apprentice's subsequent career, as it is very well done in the advertisement, which reads as follows:

"Ambitious to become an editor, he tried his hand at writing 'essays' and 'sketches' for a Boston weekly, which were accepted and widely copied. As local reporter to the Weekly Journal of their office he made a great hit. Sickness called the editor away, and he filled his chair successfully. A chance to buy an interest in the paper was secured by the financial aid of his old friend the showman, and he became the editor, realizing his fondest dreams. *He* and the *newspaper* became a power in the district. He consented to run for Congress, and was elected. Still higher honors in time came to him."

It is to be conceded that naturally clever boys, if they are only young enough or ignorant enough—and of the latter there are countless numbers in country districts—do and will absorb this sort of pabulum; and it goes, if they have nothing to counteract it, an appalling way towards forming mental habits. Country newspapers would therefore do themselves and Congress, if both are to be reinforced from "ranks" having such discipline, a real service by satirizing the ambition which only longs for conspicuousness, the love of equality which is for ever considering the difference in "rank" of "merchant princes" in Boston and "retail merchants on Washington Street," the discontent for farming, and the fever to get into the newspapers and "before the people," the ignorance that sets itself up to teach, and the puling virtue which keeps vice at a distance by pop-corn and checkers and vainglorious spouting at a "debating society."

'Paws and Claws. Being True Stories of Clever Creatures, Tame and Wild. By one of the authors of 'Poems Written for a Child.'' London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin.

'Talks with Girls. By Augusta Larned.' New York: Nelson & Phillips; Cincinnati: Hitchcock & Walden.

'Risen from the Ranks; or, Harry Walton's Success. By Horatio Alger, jr., author of 'Ragged Dick,' 'Tattered Tom,' 'Luck and Pluck,' 'Brave and Bold' Series.' Boston: Loring.

Parents will have only to read a short way into 'Rymes and Jingles' to want it, and to read it all through to determine to keep it as a volume of unequalled entertainment for small fry if scarcely less for themselves. It is full of comical wise nonsense and the most felicitous absurdities of language. It can speak best for itself in the following extracts taken at random; for almost everything is good, and only a few out of the 270 pages really inferior or commonplace.

"Baby Nell had ten little toes,
Baby Nell had two little hose,
She always stared when the hose went on,
And thought her ten little toes were gone."

The verses to a picture of a very new duckling looking at a broken egg-shell, though a trifle disrespectful, will also bear quoting:

"Well, I'm out after all!
And I'll say, on my word,
That's a pretty mean house
For a duck of a bird!
Why, I couldn't stand up,
And I couldn't sit down,
But I lay in a cramp
From my toes to my crown.
My good mammy and dad
May have thought me a spoon,
But they'll not get me back
In that thing very soon."

Our lads must still seek instruction in carpenter work from English teachers, and one of the best of these appears to be Mr. Davidson. 'The Boy Joiner' invites the ambitious young artisan by its clear and simple advice, by its encouraging tone, and by the number of really serviceable articles whose manufacture it describes in detail. In all these respects it has advantages for young beginners over the excellent 'Young Mechanic' reprinted a few years ago by Messrs. Putnam. If the grammar is sometimes a little faulty, and the definitions not always as precise as they might be, on the other hand the language used is not above the pupil's apprehension. 'The Young Mechanic' is much more technical in its style, is addressed, indeed, to older boys, and it holds up a standard of excellence which might make many a poor little fellow despair of success. Mr. Davidson cheers him up at the outset by discrediting the adage that "a good workman can work with bad tools," or, as it is expressed in a more fallacious formula, "it's a poor workman who quarrels with his tools." The best workman, he says, can do best with good tools; and the boy joiner should have the importance of them impressed upon him. We observe but few instances of the use of English terms not current among our mechanics, or not intelligible in themselves. The "American cloth" referred to now and again would probably fail to be recognized by the boys whom we shall recommend to get this book.

Mr. Wood's 'Trespassers' we perhaps err in placing among the books for children. But the writings of this voluminous popularizer of science are generally, so far as our experience goes, while designed for adults, quite accessible to the youthful explorer. In the present case, it may seem doubtful if Mr. Wood's labored though readable introduction could pass muster with anybody out of his teens. It is an apology for the sensational title of the book, or, in other words, for making a new class, of "Trespassers," in the animal kingdom. If our author insists upon this division, he ought to pursue it with works on parasites, on mimicry, etc. What he deals with here is whales, dolphins, seals, the beaver, the hippopotamus, the flying-fish, etc., etc., describing the peculiar structure and functions of each, and indulging plentifully in anecdotes such as every well-ordered boy or girl will find interesting. The pictures are numerous enough to satisfy curiosity, and fairly good as wood-cuts.

Travels in South America. By Paul Marcoy. 2 vols. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1874.)—Among the illustrated gift-books of the season, these sumptuous volumes will certainly take high rank. The maps, the five hundred and twenty-five illustrations (from designs by the author himself), the paper, print, and binding, are irreproachable; the narrative, a skilful specimen of light literature, which would not at first be suspected of being a contribution to science, so much has it the air of having been written for the pure amusement of the reader who is fond of travellers' tales. This illusion is produced in part by M. Marcoy's supreme indifference to dates, so that it is not easy, if it is possible, to discover the year in which he left Ilay, on the Pacific coast, or that in which, a twelvemonth and fourteen days later, having crossed the continent of South America, he arrived at Pará. The journey itself is described as the result of a wager with a ship-captain that our lively Frenchman would reach Pará by land sooner than the latter by sea; and this beginning, which Jules Verne might have adopted for one of his peculiar fictions, prepares one to regard the subsequent narration almost as a realistic invention, finding a proper finale in the loss of the wager, which is Frenchily told, and, one feels inclined to add, Frenchily conceived. M. Marcoy was in South America from 1848 to 1860—at the same time with another explorer of the tributaries of the Amazon, Mr. Bates—and the journey here described took place "many years" after the earlier date. The original account of it first appeared in the *Tour du Monde* (August, September, 1866), and afterwards in book-form in 1868 (Paris: Hachette); and those who may be tempted to follow the author in still other adventures, in Lower Peru, may consult the above-named periodical for 1872. For holiday purposes we need not dwell on the philosophical and other strictly scientific matter of the work before us. M. Marcoy's style has been described as "joyeusement humoristique," and it is also the style of one who is on all occasions and at all hazards an artist. Both characteristics are manifest in the single quotation which we can permit ourselves. The author is sailing along the narrow channel of Brèves:

"This morning, as we passed one of those houses built on piles, I saw through the open window a woman, gaunt and yellow, with unkempt hair and scarcely anything in the shape of clothing, spreading a kind of varnish, with a woollen rag, over a new mahogany console. The woman left off her work, and looked at me with an astonished air, to which, perhaps, I replied with a grimace. In fact, there could have been no impropriety or wrong in doing so. What was there in the Strait of Brèves, in the midst of one of the most splendid landscapes nature had ever created, to harmonize with that mummy of a housewife and her bit of mahogany furniture, which she rubbed as assiduously as a soldier polishes his knapsack?"

A History of Germany, from the Earliest Times. Founded on Dr. David Müller's 'History of the German People.' By Charlton T. Lewis. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874. 8vo, pp. 799.)—It is hard to say how much of the credit of this book belongs to Mr. Lewis, for in his preface he refers to other authorities besides David Müller, and would appear to have done a good deal upon it besides mere compiler's work. In any case he deserves high commendation. In so far as the book is a translation, it possesses the great merit that nobody would recognize it to be such; we have not noticed a single case of the bald idiotisms which are so common in translations. In so far as it is a compilation, it shows no signs of patching, but has a plan of its own and a style of its own. And, regarded as an original work, it is scholarly, judicious, and well written. The only fault we have to find with it is that it is a little old-fashioned—that is to say, it does not appear to embody the results of the latest investigations in German history. Mr. Lewis names Ranke among his authorities, and Ranke is no doubt the first living historian; but we doubt whether he has used Ranke's latest works, and of other recent first-class authorities—such as Giesebrecht, Schäffer, Häusser, and Sybel—we find no mention.

It follows that the treatment, although always careful and almost always scholarly, is not always equally good. On page 19 the account of the early organization of the Gau and Hundred is confused and inaccurate; there was never a *count* at the head of each hundred. On page 65 it is made to appear that the feudal system was introduced full-blown, name and all, by Clovis. The title John XXII. is given not merely to the Pope who contended against Lewis IV., but also to the one deposed by the Council of Constance (pp. 278 and 280). This appears to be not a misprint, but a confusion of authorities, as there is a mythical John XVI. in the tenth century who is reckoned in some chronologies but not in others. The electoral dignity is said (p. 436) to have been restored to the Count Palatine by the Peace of Westphalia, from which it would seem that it was taken away from the Duke of Bavaria. In reality a new electorate was created for him. There are some excellent genealogical tables, especially of the houses of Charles the Great and of Hapsburg; it would be well if there were also one showing the connection of the Saxon, Franconian, and Swabian lines of emperors. There are two maps, well drawn, but not easy to use. It is impossible to represent distinctly the divisions of so complicated a country as Germany except by using colors. We can heartily recommend this book to whoever wishes a compendious history of Germany. The criticism which we have made applies only to certain small portions; all the rest is unequivocally good.

Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepál and Tibet: together with further papers on the Geography, Ethnology, and Commerce of those countries. By B. H. Hodgson, Esq., late British Minister of the Court of Nepál, etc., etc. (London: Trübner & Co. New York: John Wiley & Son. Roy. 8vo, pp. xi., 145 and 124.)—Mr. Hodgson will be famous for ever in the history of European knowledge of Buddhism as the diplomatist and scholar who first brought to light the records of the northern

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'Rhymes and Jingles. By Mary Mapes Dodge, author of 'Hans Brinker,' etc.' New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co.

'The Boy Joiner and Model-Maker. By Ellis S. Davidson.' With nearly 200 illustrations. New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin.

'Trespassers: Showing how the Inhabitants of Earth, Air, and Water are enabled to trespass on domains not their own. By Rev. J. G. Wood.' With numerous illustrations. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons.

forms of that religion, and forwarded to Europe those extensive collections which in the hands of Burnouf became so fruitful of valuable results. But he has also himself made contributions of great worth and originality to the literature of the same subject; and it is in order to rescue these from that inaccessibility which is virtual oblivion, that they are here collected in a volume and republished. Their original dates ranging from 1827 to 1857, it will be seen that we have in them no startling novelties; but they are an important point of the *acta* of their great subject, and it is much to be desired that they meet with that favorable reception which, as promised at the end of the preface, will lead to the publication, in another volume or two, of the venerable author's remaining works. Especially in the ethnology and philology of the Himalayan tribes, Mr. Hodgson has been thus far not only pioneer, but almost sole original investigator; and his opinions on these subjects are, as he lets us know, by no means in accordance with those which other more superficial scholars have drawn from his collected materials. The second part (separately paged) of the present volume deals with the Himalaya and its inhabitants. There is an index to the volume, but we wish that it had been made exhaustive, at the cost of two or three times as much space.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles. *Publishers.—Prices.*

Annual Report of the Board of Managers of the New York Produce Exchange.....(New York)
Alger (H., jr.), Brave and Bold: a Boy's book.....(A. K. Loring) $1 50
Bates (H. W.), The Naturalist on the River Amazons, 3d ed.....(Roberts Bros.)
Bungener (L. L. F.), Bourdaloue and Louis XIV., new ed.....(D. Lothrop & Co.)
Butler (N.), English Grammar.....(J. P. Morton & Co.) 1 00
Boll (Dr. F.), Ueber elektrische Fische, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Boguslawski (Dr. G. von), Die Sternschuppen, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Baron (Dr. J.), Das Heirathen in alten und neuen Gesetzen, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Bastiat (F.), Sophisms of Protection.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Baumgarten (Dr. M.), Anti-Kliefoth, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Custer (Gen. G. A.), My Life on the Plains.....(Sheldon & Co.)
Christian Truth and Modern Opinion: Seven Sermons.....(T. Whittaker) 1 25
Cinderella Erin, swd.....(W. B. Kelly)
Cramer (Dr. F.), Despotismus und Volkskraft, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Croly (Mrs. J. C.), For Better or Worse.....(Lee & Shepard)
Dawkins (W. B.), Cave Hunting.....(Macmillan & Co.) 7 00
Disosway (E. T.), South Meadows: a Tale.....(Porter & Coates) 1 50
Ecce Femina: a Tale, swd.....(Schuyler & Gracie)
Edmunds (Dr. J.), The Medical Use of Alcohol.....(Nat. Temp. Society) 0 60
Fothergill (Dr. J. M.), The Maintenance of Health.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 5 00
Fortescue (Sir J.), De Laudibus Legum Angliæ.....(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 3 00
Geiger (J. L.), A Peep at Mexico.....(John Wiley & Son)
Garcis (Dr. C.), Die Börse und die Gründungen, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Garrett (E.), By Still Waters.....(Dodd & Mead)
Hodgson (B. H.), Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepál and Tibet.....(John Wiley & Son)
Hübner (Baron), A Ramble round the World, 1871.....(Macmillan & Co.) $3 00
Hess (Dr. R.), Die forstliche Unterrichtsfrage, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Haley (J. W.), Alleged Discrepancies of the Bible.....(W. F. Draper)
Hopkins (Rev. M.), Strength and Beauty.....(Dodd & Mead)
Hoyt (A. H.), Pepperell Papers, swd.....(Boston)
Horton (Caroline W.), Architecture for General Students.....(Hurd & Houghton) 1 50
John Paul's Book.....(Columbian Book Co.)
Leslie (Emma), Glaucia: Athens in the First Century.....(Nelson & Phillips) 1 25
Larned (Augusta), Talks with Girls.....(Nelson & Phillips) 1 50
Linde (A. van der), Geschichte und Literatur des Schachspiels, Vol. 2.....(B. Westermann & Co.)
Macaulay (T. B.), Critical and Historical Essays.....(Albert Mason) 2 50
Matthews (Dr. W.), Hidatsa (Minnetare) Grammar, swd.....(Joel Munsell)
" " English-Hidatsa Dictionary, swd....." "
Mayers (W. F.), The Chinese Reader's Manual.....(John Wiley & Son)
Marey (Prof. E. J.), Animal Mechanism.....(D. Appleton & Co.)
Marcoy (P.), Travels in South America, 2 vols.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.) 15 00
Mivart (St. G.), The Common Frog.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
McDonnell (W.), The Heathens of the Heath: a Tale.....(D. M. Bennett) 1 50
Möller (Dr. J.), Ueber das Salz, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Macdonald (Frederika), Nathaniel Vaughan: a Tale.....(A. K. Butts & Co.) 1 50
March (Prof. F. S.), Latin Hymns, with English Notes.....(Harper & Bros.)
McCosh (J.), The Scottish Philosophy from Hutcheson to Hamilton.....(Robert Carter & Bros.)
McCarthy (J.), Linley Rochford: a Tale.....(Sheldon & Co.)
Norton (S. A.), Elements of Physics.....(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.)
Prescott (W. H.), Reign of Philip II., Vols. II. and III.....J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Peter the Apprentice.....(Nelson & Phillips) 0 90
Pollard (Josephine), Gipsy's Travels.....(Nelson & Phillips) 0 90
Peck (Rev. G.), Life and Times.....(Nelson & Phillips) 1 75
Pedder (H. C.), Issues of the Age.....(A. K. Butts & Co.) 1 50
Plumer (Rev. W. S.), A Word to the Weary.....(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) 0 40
Pfotenhauer (Dr. C. E.), Die Gifte, swd.....(L. W. Schmidt)
Riley (H. H.), Humors of the West.....(Lee & Shepard)
Sears (Rev. E. H.), Sermons and Songs of the Christian Life.....(Noyes, Holmes & Co.) 2 00
Scott (W. B.), History and Practice of the Fine Arts, 3d ed.....(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) 3 00
Sayce (A. H.), Principles of Comparative Philology.....(John Wiley & Son)
Sterne (S.), Poems.....(F. B. Patterson)
Scott (W.), Ivanhoe, swd.....(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0 25
Searle (A.), Outlines of Astronomy.....(Ginn Bros.)
Southworth (Mrs. E. D. E. N.), Miriam the Avenger, new ed...(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Stockton (F. R.), What Might Have been Expected.....(Dodd & Mead)
Story of a Summer Day.....(T. Nelson & Sons) 2 00
Taylor (B.), Egypt and Iceland in 1874.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 50
The Gospel according to St. John; Bida's Illustrations.....(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)
The Paraclete.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
Under the Limes: a Tale, swd.....(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Verne (J.), The Mysterious Island.....(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)
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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

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THE money-market has been easy, with the rates on call loans, secured by stock collaterals, ranging from 2½ to 3½ per cent. The demand for commercial paper was brisk throughout the week, with a very moderate supply offering; the best names passing readily at 5 to 6½ per cent., while for paper of a lower grade the demand has been fair at from 7 to 10 per cent., according to the standing of the makers.

Cable advices to-day report that the minimum rate of discount of the Bank of England was raised this morning from 5 to 6 per cent. It would seem that the recent advances made in the Bank rate have been insufficient to prevent the flow of bullion from London to Paris. The amount of bullion withdrawn from the Bank of England during the week ending on Thursday last was £78,000, while the Bank of France gained 8,632,000 francs in specie. On Saturday £207,000 in bullion were drawn from the Bank of England, and to-day the action of the directors was probably precipitated by the prospect of further withdrawals.

The stock market shows strong signs of revival in business. Prices have taken a fresh start, in which, at last, the "Granger stocks" share. Northwestern common was the leading feature during the last two days of the week, advancing to 45⅜ on Saturday from 41½ on Monday. St. Paul common also advanced 2⅝ per cent. The rest of the market shared more or less in the advance led by the "Grangers," but that in the latter was by far the most important. To-day the market opened strong, and prices continued to rise; Northwestern going to 46¾, Rock Island to 101⅛, Lake Shore to 81, St. Paul to 39⅞, Wabash to 32, and Western Union to 81¾. Union Pacific was exceptionally dull, the quotations remaining materially unchanged all day.

Government bonds have been active, the advance in gold creating a foreign demand for the former for shipment to the other side, under which prices have advanced from ¼ to 1 per cent., the greatest rise having been in the 6 per cent. 5-20's of 1867—the popular issue in Europe. The market closed this evening at the following quotations:

Coupon 6's, 1881	120⅜	120½	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1867	120	120⅛
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1862	112⅝	113¼	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1868	119¾	120
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1864	114¾	115	Coupon 5's, 10-40's	114⅛	114⅜
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, M. & N.	116¾	116¾	Coupon 5's, 1881	112⅞	113
Coupon 6's, 5-30's, 1865, J. & J.	119	119⅛	U. S. Currency 6's	119⅛	119¼

Railroad bonds continue strong, and it is probable that a still further advance in prices will take place when the usual demand sets in about the first of the new year.

The Treasury programme for the month of December provides for the sale of $2,500,000 gold. During the past week the recent rise in gold has been well maintained; to-day the quotation went up to 112⅜ upon the change in the English bank rate. Further shipments will be made during the coming week, $400,000 having been prepared for shipment to-day by to-morrow's steamer. The total specie shipment last week was $2,188,000.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 10, 1874.

The Week.

SOME of the leading Republicans seem to find it very difficult to let the Southern States alone, and apparently still have a hankering for interference in Arkansas. The last legislature of that State provided for the meeting of a constitutional convention, which was fairly elected, met, and drew up a good State constitution, which was adopted by an overwhelming majority. The first election held under it has, however, returned a Democratic governor and legislature, which is a thing not to be lightly submitted to. After cudgelling their brains over the problem, some Republicans have come to the conclusion that inasmuch as the Arkansas legislature was only empowered by the former State constitution to submit constitutional amendments to the people, and was not empowered to call a constitutional convention to prepare a wholly new constitution, the new constitution lately adopted is null and void, and the Federal Government may be called on to interfere. They say the case reminds them sadly of the Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island; and Chief-Justice McClure, more familiarly known as "Poker Jack," has gone on to Washington in great trouble of mind about the whole affair. What is to become of popular government, he enquires, and of McClure, if such things are to be permitted?

At this point Judge Jameson of Chicago, the author of the well-known work on constitutional conventions, and doubtless the highest authority on this class of questions, appears on the scene, and, singling out Judge Poland, discourses to him, in a letter addressed to the Chicago *Tribune*, substantially as follows: "If the Arkansas case reminds you of the Dorr rebellion, it must be either because you never knew the facts of the Dorr rebellion, or have forgotten them. In the Dorr rebellion, a new State constitution was drawn up by a convention of persons who were not legal voters, and adopted by the votes of persons who were not legal voters, without any permission whatever from the legislature. In Arkansas, on the other hand, the convention was ordered by the legislature. If you say that that legislature was only empowered to provide for the amendment of the constitution, and not for the drafting of a new constitution under the rule of *expressio unius, exclusio alterius*, I reply that the applicability of this rule to the construction of the fundamental law is denied by good legal authority; but that, even if it be applicable, the revision of a whole constitution is a decidedly different thing from the proposal of slight amendments to it, and that, therefore, the granting of the power to do one thing in one way does not preclude the power to do a different thing in a different way. But you say the course of the legislature is "unprecedented." Here again you are wrong. There have been no less than twenty-six cases in which constitutional conventions have been called by legislatures which had no power to do so conferred on them by the constitution under which they sat. It is true that in three or four of these cases objections like yours were raised, but they were raised by a minority which wanted *no* change to be made, and they never received any attention. In fact, it may be said to be part of the public law of the United States that a legislature may call a convention to revise or remodel the constitution whenever it may deem it necessary to do so. The submission to the people of amendments to the constitution directly by the legislature was resorted to for the first time in American history by New York and Michigan in the present year; so that the scheme you are advocating in Arkansas, and not the one you oppose, may fairly be called 'unprecedented.' The inconvenience of your system it is hardly necessary to insist on. It might, in time of war or of other public trial, by impeding or delaying an expression of the popular will, subject the community to great loss or utter ruin."

Mr. Chamberlain, the new Governor of South Carolina, delivered his inaugural address to the Legislature of that State last week, and it appears to have given great satisfaction to sound men of all parties. If he lives up to its promises and professions, and can get the legislature to do so, he will prove the means of rescuing the State, and will be fairly entitled to a statue. The address is both able and interesting, but his description of the abuses which have to be remedied are sometimes very amusing for the illustration they afford of the manners and morals of the class which has had charge of the State government since 1868. He describes the existing mode of valuation of property for purposes of taxation as "purely arbitrary," and says that excessive valuations were made to conceal the real rate of taxation. He approves of the plan adopted last year of making appropriations for specific purposes—a fiscal requirement which had previously not been resorted to—and reveals the astounding fact that the sum of $376,832 had been used since 1868 for "contingent expenses"—that is, for objects not previously defined by law and without proper accountability; and denounces the "secret-service fund," which, of course, to the carpet-baggers and scalawags and their colored allies was simply what hunters call a *cache*—that is, a place where supplies could be had without telling anybody why you wanted them. He advised the Assembly to cut its sessions down from one hundred and six to thirty days, which he said was enough for the business, and mentioned that while the session of 1868–9, when the thieves were new to the work, cost only $169,005, that of 1871–2, when they had got to be old hands, cost $617,234, and besides this the rascals had issued due-bills for $192,272 on account of legislative expenses during the six years. He also suggested that the State expenses should be kept within the receipts—an idea which the Assembly will perhaps consider peculiar and original; and he recommended the Assembly not to follow the example of its predecessor by issuing "certificates of indebtedness" to the amount of $231,996.

What Mr. Chamberlain says about the public debt is probably what will most interest the outside world, and it is substantially this: that the act of the last Assembly by which the State committed bankruptcy, and offered to compound with its creditors by giving new bonds for fifty per cent. of the par value of certain bonds, stocks, and coupons which the State was unable to pay, amounting in all to $11,480,033, and repudiating totally the "conversion bonds" put on the market by Kimpton, was a good settlement, and ought to be carried out. The new bonds are to be secured by the appropriation, for the payment of the principal and interest, of a tax of two mills on the dollar on the actual taxable property of the State, which is to be considered a contract between the State and its creditors. As no future increase of the State debt can be made under the existing constitution without the approval of two-thirds of the voters voting at a general State election, we dare say everybody but the holders of the conversion bonds will be satisfied with this arrangement; but no civilized community ought to make such a proposal on such a state of facts without having previously committed to the penitentiary for a term of years, as part and parcel of the transaction, one or more of its financiers; and, in this case, we have no hesitation in designating Scott, Parker, and Kimpton as persons from among whom the selection for this sacrifice ought to be made. In the meantime, we wish Mr. Chamberlain success and tenacity.

In his annual message the President recommends in the strongest language immediate measures for a resumption of specie payment; denounces the present condition of the currency as dishonest; advises the repeal of the legal-tender act as to future contracts, suggests that as the only ground for issuing more legal-tenders is found in the wants, necessities, and liabilities of the "debtor class"

that it would be fairer, on the whole, to allow them to issue their own legal-tenders, if anybody is to do it. He recommends measures looking to an accumulation of gold in the Treasury, and refers to the separate report of the Secretary of the Treasury with approval, and recommends free banking with resumption. He says the foreign relations of the country are satisfactory; recommends a change in the tariff so as to raise a larger revenue from a smaller number of articles; and unites with the Secretary of the Treasury in advising a reimposition of the duties on tea and coffee, and an increase of the tax on whiskey. He refers to the Louisiana case by saying, that as he believes the Kellogg government to be the legally elected government of the State, he must continue to recognize it as such until Congress decides differently; announces his determination to enforce all legislation for the protection of the negroes, but at the same time suggests that Congress investigate the outrages reported in the newspapers before the recent elections, and ascertain whether they were real or not; declines to interfere in Arkansas, on the ground that Congress is investigating the affairs of the State; advises the country to consider the Southern situation with calmness; expresses sympathy for the Southerners, but asks whether they are themselves wholly blameless for the state of things every one so much deplores; declares that it is impossible to carry on civil-service reform without positive support from Congress, and that he will throw it up if Congress adjourns without such legislation; recommends the encouragement of ship-building by offers of "ample compensation" for carrying mails to American-built lines; and submits the report of the District Commissioners, from which it appears that the debt of the District is, in round numbers, $14,000,000.

The Secretary of the Treasury discusses the question of specie payments in language quite as direct and plain-spoken as that used by the President. He reminds Congress that it was never the intention even of those who passed the legal-tender act to create a permanently irredeemable currency; points out that while a "flexible" or "elastic" currency is needed, the flexibility and elasticity required is that which is given a currency by the laws of trade and commerce, and not that which is given either by arbitrary issues or contractions made by Secretary or by Congress, depending on party exigencies or the necessities of the Treasury; declares that the only effect of the continuance of the present inconvertible currency is to "blunt the moral sense" and "impair the natural self-dependence" of the people, training them to the belief "that the Government must directly assist their individual fortunes and business," helping them alternately into debt and out of it. The Secretary recommends the repeal of the legal-tender act at an early date as to future contracts, and the fixing of a day not remote for resumption, gold to be accumulated by the Government and the banks meantime, and a new loan at a low rate to be authorized also. Free banking he considers may be safely introduced with a general scheme of resumption. The Secretary reports of the $354,000,000 authorized national notes $2,000,000 as still unissued—there being no demands for them; a voluntary surrender by the banks of some $7,500,000 circulation, and about $6,500,000 of notes of banks in liquidation to be withdrawn, making altogether some $16,000,000 now or hereafter available for distribution—these figures showing the fallacy, as Mr. Bristow says, of the demand for an "expansion of currency" to correct a "contraction in the volume of business."

The friends of woman suffrage recently experienced a bad defeat in Michigan. In fact, the majority against them was so large, and the minority in their favor so small, that nobody has, since the election, thought it worth while to discuss the matter, except Mr. T. W. Higginson in the *Woman's Journal*, who, borrowing an argument from Mrs. Victoria C. Woodhull—who thought that, because she was persecuted, her cause must be just—maintains that the completeness of the defeat of the suffragists shows that their triumph must be near. In England, however, things look much more hopeful, because, according to the Cynics, "public women," to borrow the nomenclature of the Great Scandal, are less known in England than here; but, according to the Good and Pure, because public women in England have thus far been better educated and more sensible than their American sisters. We have ourselves another solution to offer, which we submit with downcast eyes, and it is this: the Conservative reaction has helped the cause of woman, because the Conservatives, like most men who find themselves fighting a losing battle, have become reckless in their choice of expedients, and have taught themselves to take short views of the future, and are consequently ready for any measure which promises them votes during the next five or ten years, beyond which they do not allow themselves to look. Now, as the admission of women to the franchise under the present law would bring in only spinsters of some property, it would undoubtedly greatly re-enforce the Conservative ranks; for English spinsters of property are the very firmest, most uncompromising supporters of the "constitution in church and state," and are apt to look on a Radical as a limb of Satan. Among the Liberal supporters of the change, too, are some sanguine benevolent gentlemen, like Mr. Russell Gurney, who flatter themselves that changes will never go any further than they think desirable, and that no woman *without* property will ever vote in England. At all events, at the recent annual meeting of the Women's Suffrage Society of London, the report was able to give a somewhat hopeful view of the prospects of the movement in the new House of Commons. It asserted that, while in the last Parliament it had 227 supporters and 328 opponents, in the present one it has 234 supporters and 230 opponents, while 50 members are neutral, and 140 of the new men "keep dark" as yet. Of course, analyses of this kind, when made by earnest agitators, are apt to be somewhat inexact, but, after making all due allowance for this source of error, and for the tendency of Englishmen to take a jocose view of the matter, and to promise lady canvassers more than they mean to perform, the outlook is decidedly more cheerful than it was last year.

When Alaska was transferred to the United States, the annexation was generally supposed to be for glory and the extension of the national sovereignty, and Mr. Seward was much laughed at for his folly. The speeches delivered, too, over our new Polar acquisition were popularly treated as so much buncombe. It seems, however, that the purchase is very likely to prove a piece of good luck for us, and perhaps in after-ages will redound to the credit of Mr. Seward's statesmanship, as having, at least, annexed more wisely than he knew. The Icelanders, after having lived what, from all accounts, must have been an uncomfortable life in Iceland for a thousand years, are preparing to celebrate their "millennial" period by emigrating *en masse;* and, in looking round over the globe for some place of settlement which shall at once be habitable, possess a comfortable climate, and at the same time remind them of home, they have hit upon Alaska. Some time since they appointed a commission to visit the country; and the United States, with very thoughtful liberality, lent the commissioners a ship to make the trip in. The *Portsmouth* has just returned, and the commissioners are reported as very much pleased with their visit. They consider the country an improvement on Iceland, and report that it is not only capable of sustaining life, but also profitable industries. The Icelanders are an intelligent and industrious people, who have had centuries of education and civilization of no mean kind, and probably only need a good country—such as they declare Alaska to be—to enable them to become a creditable addition to the population of the United States. The only opposition to the scheme anticipated is that likely to be made by the trading companies which have monopoly rights.

The dearth of exciting political topics in England is well shown by the eagerness with which the public has gone into the controversy raised by Mr. Gladstone, as to what Catholics would do in case they found their allegiance to the Queen in conflict with their allegiance to the Pope—a question which has been just as important any time within the last three years as it is now. It is still further illustrated by the fuss which has been raised over Mr. Disraeli's rhetorical allusion, in his speech at Guildhall, to the greater freedom from arbitrary arrests and domiciliary visits enjoyed by English workingmen than by "the nobility of other nations." This was taken up promptly by the French press and then by the German as "a dig" at the Prussians on account of their treatment of Count Arnim; whereupon Mr. Disraeli "authorized" the *Times* to say that he was not thinking of Count Arnim, as this nobleman was not arrested arbitrarily, but under the law—an explanation which the French papers and a portion of the English treat as too thin, and denounce as a paltry attempt to escape from the consequences of an indiscretion. Even the *Spectator*, which is apt to take the charitable view, thinks he ought either to have never made such a speech, or, having made it, let it pass without interpretation. In the meantime, Count Arnim's condition is one which many workingmen, both of England and other countries, might not consider desirable. He found some of the missing papers, which apparently he did not care to keep, and sent them by his counsel to the Foreign Office, whereupon he was arrested again, for divulging state secrets, as the counsel might have read the papers on the way—an offence to which a penalty of two years' imprisonment attaches, and the warrant found him sick in bed. In fact, his state of health is such as to inspire serious doubts whether he will be able to support the ordeal before him.

The Gladstone pamphlet has called forth further replies from leading English Catholics. Monseigneur Capel writes from the Catholic University College at Kensington to say that Lords Acton and Camoys have no weight among Catholics; that Lord Acton ought to have given his authority for his charges against the Holy See; that Lord Camoys, by his refusal to accept the doctrine of Papal Infallibility, "makes shipwreck of the faith, or *ipso facto* withdraws himself from communion with the Church"; that, before the Council of the Vatican, infallibility belonged to the Church and the Pope—since the Council, it belongs to the Pope alone, speaking *ex cathedra;* and that therefore Lord Camoys and Mr. Gladstone are mistaken in supposing that the Vatican Decrees have "touched the former domain of infallibility"; that the church has always held that the "ecclesiastical power is superior to the civil, and defines the limits of one and the other, and that where the civil power passes its proper province, the church has the right to raise its voice and condemn it." This is plain speaking, and admits all that Mr. Gladstone has contended for. Canon Oakeley writes in the same sense, but with additional explanations, to the effect that, though Catholics believe all the propositions of the Syllabus as a matter of abstract truth, such as the damnability of liberty of the press, of conscience, and of civil marriage, nevertheless they with full ecclesiastical propriety submit to and accept them in Protestant countries, or, in other words, wherever they cannot help it, and he says that if he is asked, "How can these things be? he cannot answer except by saying that so they are." Canon Oakeley is an old Tractarian, who went over with or soon after Dr. Newman. Mr. Henry Petre, a well-known Catholic layman, follows on the same side as Lord Camoys, and declares that, though a good Catholic and educated by the Jesuits, he cannot accept the dogma of infallibility, and that he foresees the possibility of a collision between church and state arising out of the present attitude of the Papacy, and intimates his determination, in such case, to stand by the state, or, ecclesiastically speaking, his willingness to be damned eternally. On the other hand, Lord Hervey, a Catholic peer, stands up warmly for infallibility, but repels the imputation of disloyalty.

The French Assembly has opened its winter session with a message from Marshal MacMahon, which is substantially what it was expected to be. He says the foreign relations of France are on an excellent footing, that the business of the country is improving, and the harvest unprecedentedly good, and the export trade never so good as during the last four months. He then solemnly appeals to the Assembly to establish a permanent government, and gives his idea of his position towards the Assembly and the country—viz., that he is not the servant of any party; that he has no aim but the defence of society and the restoration of the nation, and in this he claims the support of "men of good will," those whose personal preferences bow before the present necessities of the country. As for himself, he says he will keep at his post until the last day "with unshaken firmness and scrupulous respect for law," which is what everybody who knew anything of the Marshal expected from the beginning. There appears to be rather more prospect now than there has been for some time back of a combination in the Assembly which may lead to a permanent organization of the Government. Marshal MacMahon's appeal on his late tour through the provinces to "moderate" men of all parties to unite with him in constituting the Government, has made a good deal of impression on the popular mind, and is leading to a somewhat promising attempt to unite the Right and Left Centres, with some support from the Left, in an effort for the adoption of a constitution. But it is unsafe to predict anything as to the action of a body so heterogeneous as the French Assembly.

The recent elections in Italy have drawn renewed attention to the difficulty there is in bringing home to the people, in spite of their patriotism, the fact that they are expected to take any part in the working of the governmental machine. There are in the kingdom, out of a population of 26,000,000, only 528,932 qualified voters, though the qualification consists simply in ability to read and write, and the payment of $10 of direct taxes. Nevertheless, only 238,000 votes were cast at the late election, the Government getting of these only 146,000. The remaining 290,932 electors abstained for the most part through sheer indifference. A similar state of things prevails in Spain, where, indeed, the electoral apathy is still greater, and it would prevail in France if the Government were not so active in driving voters to the polls and supplying them with ballots. It is the result of centuries of exclusion from the management of their own affairs, and it is worthy of particular notice, as an illustration of the large part habit plays in the successful working of a free government—a fact to which we have often endeavored to call the attention of our more active and uneasy reformers. No system of government in the administration of which the people at large take part, will work easily and safely until people get used to it, and have it brought home to them by long use that votes have a direct effect on legislation. Your constitution may be never so good, the executive never so honest, the possession of the power by the people never so clear and indisputable, and their patriotism and their love of liberty never so well established, and yet, if they have not formed political habits, they will not take the trouble to exercise their political rights. One or two generations need to have yearly experience of the ability of the voters to make and unmake legislatures and ministries, and thus have their own way in the management of public affairs, before they learn to have a realizing sense of their power, and to look with interest and eagerness for election day—all of which is worthy of the serious consideration of those of us who believe that when a "Republic" is proclaimed in any country liberty is secured.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE TREASURY ON THE FINANCES.

THE President has falsified the predictions of the present Organ by coming out as boldly as ever in favor of specie payments, for which he argues with a laborious and somewhat clumsy good-sense, which we dare say will have more effect on public opinion than a statement of greater financial pretensions. There is, indeed, in nearly all his state-papers a vein of prejudice and misinformation and baseless expectation, which, by keeping him near the level of "plain people," gives his utterances a good deal of popular weight, and makes his steady adherence to the cause of sound money matter for national congratulation. It so happens, luckily, in this currency controversy, that the inflationists are all or nearly all metaphysicians and dialecticians. Their money is not real money, but money of the mind, and in order to pass current needs nearly as much faith and insight and repudiation of experience as the dogma of Papal infallibility. General Grant is, however, by no means either subtle or imaginative. He knows a dollar when he sees it as well as any man, and nothing that anybody can do to a piece of paper will make it appear to him anything better than the evidence of a promise to pay. This state of mind is that of the great bulk of men, and has always been so, as is proved by the constancy with which the race has for thousands of years stuck to the precious metals as measures of value. Every twenty or thirty years, in nearly every country, somebody rises up and undertakes, by some hocus-pocus, to substitute paper for coin as an instrument of exchange, and, if he can get hold of the government, he is generally allowed to make his experiment; but by the time he has finished, it is almost invariably found that the mass of the community have lost all interest in it, and are turning their property into gold or precious stones. Formerly, the performers of this great money-trick used to be kings, but in our time they are generally philanthropists and reformers. The kings were good, hearty fellows, with no hypocrisy about them, who when adulterating or clipping the coin, or putting out their due-bills, used to say frankly that the reason they did it was because they were short of money. What the philanthropists say in our day is that they wish "to relieve the people from degrading dependence on capitalists," or "to furnish a currency based on the honor and resources of the nation." As a general rule, however, their pictures have no lasting attraction. They have never got up a paper currency which anybody was, even for a day, found to prefer to gold. If we were to issue paper to-morrow morning based on a mortgage of all the land in the United States, it would be found before night that everybody would rather have coin. Men are distrustful of these big pledges, so that the talk of a plain, blunt man like General Grant in favor of hard cash finds, in the secret hearts of the people all over the country, a response against which the windy declamation of the Kelleys and Mortons about the money of the mind has no chance.

Fortunately, too, we have at last a Secretary, the first since General Grant came into power, who is satisfied that the financial knowledge of the world is not confined to his own breast, and that the currency is perhaps of all national concerns that in which the experience of other peoples is most valuable. Different kinds of taxation, of military organization, of land tenures, of jurisprudence, have been found to suit different nations and different ages; but no kind of money but one has ever been found to suit any nation in any age, and they have all tried various ways of doing without it, and have all failed. Mr. Bristow's report is on this point full of wisdom which is as old as Solomon. He is a man of his time, without illusions. He does not flatter himself, like one of his recent predecessors, that he is going to found a new school of economy, called "the Kentucky School," or pretend that he would himself be a good person to regulate the volume of the currency to be used by forty millions of a commercial people. He has no ambition about "moving crops" or "easing the market." He comes back again to the old story, that gold and silver coin are, and have been since the dawn of history, the current money of the world, and that any trading nation which does not use this money produces exchanges at an enormous disadvantage; and he perceives, therefore, that it is the state of our currency, or in other words of our unfunded debt, and not of our bonds, or funded debt, which most needs attention and regulation. From 1868 to 1872, the Treasury unfortunately preached a different gospel. Mr. Boutwell used all the weight of an office which, when he took it, still retained a good deal of weight, to make Congress and the country believe that to anticipate the payment of our bonds was our main concern, and that we need not trouble ourselves about the greenbacks—the fact being that it was the greenbacks which needed treatment, and that the conversion of a great quantity of them into bonds, or, in other words, the multiplication of bonds, was the very thing Congress ought to have done after the Reconstruction problem was settled. This policy Mr. Bristow now urges. He recommends that the volume of the greenbacks be diminished by contraction and conversion, and that then provision be made to redeem the remainder in gold on demand, and that they be deprived of their legal-tender character from a certain future date. It will be seen at a glance that these proposals are in direct opposition to all Mr. Boutwell's theory and practice during the four most important years of our financial history. Had the Treasury taken the same ground in 1868, and had the President supported it when his influence was still strong, and before the inflation folly had been bred and cherished by the panic and by Mr. Boutwell's disgraceful use of "the reserve" before the panic, there is little doubt that we should by this time have got out of the slough.

When we shall now get out of the slough, it would be hard to say. One can hardly help feeling, on reading Mr. Bristow's report, and finding that the President still stands firm, that our chances are considerably improved; but then it must be admitted that, as regards the finances, the political situation has not on the whole changed for the better. The Republican party has not actually lost its power, and will not do so for three months to come; but it is not likely that it will be disposed to make any move whatever with regard to the finances during the present winter. About the Democrats it is useless as yet to attempt any prediction, but there is good reason for believing that they too will be chary about taking the matter up, the reason being in both cases that the two parties are looking forward with hope and anxiety to the Presidential election of 1876, and each is afraid to make any move that will imperil its chances. Inflation, doubtless, is not possible as long as the President does not change his mind; but contraction might, the politicians think, produce "hard times" on the very edge of the canvass, and ruin any party which could be held responsible for it; and neither party has either enough strength of conviction on financial matters, or enough devotion to the country apart from the desire for power, to be willing to carry it back to specie payments at any cost of popularity. The chances seem to be, therefore, that we shall see a policy of financial inaction pursued on both sides, both during the remainder of the present and the whole of the next Congress. Each side will wish to go into the Presidential canvass unburdened with responsibility, and in a position to make any promises or pledges that may by that time seem most effective. All this is another way of saying that the value of every debt due in the United States at this moment, and of everybody's property in possession, has become one of the elements in the game of politics, and that offers to raise or lower it will now form a favorite weapon with the rival political parties. A more powerful argument against the power of Congress to issue legal-tender paper-money, or a more striking illustration of its dangers, could hardly be produced than this state of things affords, or a better justification, let us add, of the theory to which we trust the country will yet come back, that the framers of the Constitution, when they prohibited the States "making anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts," did not intend that Congress should do it either. If any such right resides in the National Government, we fancy most thinking men would say that the experience of the last ten years shows that it ought to be taken away.

Many people doubtless suppose, however, that a policy of inac-

tion will do no harm, and will perhaps ask whether it is not wise to leave the currency alone for the present, now that the power of the Treasury over the volume of it is taken away. To this there are two replies. The first is, that as long as the currency remains a political issue to be determined by votes, and entirely within the power of Congress, no postponement of the question will remove the cloud of uncertainty which its present condition throws over business. Wise men will feel reluctant to go into long enterprises or weighty enterprises when they have to calculate the chances of politics as well as the chances of trade, and take the opinion of Morton and Carpenter and Fernando Wood before they determine to enter on their ventures. The second is that the refusal of Congress to act will not keep things as they are. Things will not stay as they are. The currency is now inelastic, and the inconveniences of inelasticity are not felt as long as business is prostrated and capital lying idle in the banks. Business will not remain prostrated much longer, however. The signs of revival are already visible, and when the revival comes the demand for money will again become strong, and both the legal-tenders and the bank-bills will again be called into full activity. The natural tendency of this activity will be to increase rapidly, and as it increases money will grow tighter, and an influence more or less repressive will be exerted by high rates of interest; but trade and production will push against this barrier with increasing strength, and at last it will give way, and there will be another "crash." No commercial country can carry on business very long with a fixed amount of currency; there must be some quarter from which it can draw increased supplies of money to meet the increasing demands of its industry. The only legitimate quarter is the world's stock of coin; but from this resort we have deliberately shut ourselves out. To say that we can with impunity continue to shut ourselves out from it, or supply its place by inconvertible paper, which on the other hand could not be got rid of when our need was over, is simply to talk foolishly.

THE "PROTECTION" OF THE NEGRO.

THE disagreement of the Judges of the Circuit Court in Virginia will probably carry the question of the constitutionality of the Enforcement Law to the Supreme Court, and lead to a thorough discussion and, let us hope, to a satisfactory and final decision of the question of the real nature and extent of the changes which the Constitutional Amendments have worked in the relation of the States to the General Government. The importance of this question it is impossible to overestimate, for it does not, as many people try to believe, concern the colored people in their political and social status only; it touches the theory and structure of the United States Government, and has the most serious bearing on all the matters included under the general term "reform" which are now occupying the attention of the country, and are likely to occupy it for the next ten years at least. It ought to be borne in mind, first of all, that none of the reasons which led the framers of the Constitution to make the peculiar distribution of administrative duties between the State and Federal Governments which they did make, have lost their force through the experience of the last ninety years. On the contrary, the history of that period, both in Europe and in this country, has strengthened them. We have seen several attempts to set up republics in Europe defeated, and apparently defeated for an indefinite period, by high centralization, which has worked evil in two ways —by the excessive accumulation of power at the capital, and by the accompanying and resulting decline of political interest and sense of political responsibility in the provinces. At this moment, too, curiously enough, every free nation which has, consciously or unconsciously, drifted into the administrative practices and tendencies which the majority in our Congress have been preaching and fostering during the last fifteen years, is trying by might and main to get back to a position even remotely resembling that which we occupied before the war. It must be observed, too, that the immense additions made within the last thirty years to the means of communication do not tell against but rather in favor of the precautions which the men of 1787 thought salutary. It would undoubtedly be easier, as far as physical instrumentalities are concerned, to govern Colorado from Washington now, than it would have been to govern New York from Washington in the beginning of the century. But the objections to governing any State from Washington at that period were not physical simply—they were moral; and the moral objections to centralization are stronger now than they were then. The very facility and rapidity with which the President and Congress can now make their power felt all over the Union, furnishes a constant temptation to stretch it to its last limits, and to overstep those limits too. Nothing can furnish a stronger inducement to arbitrary meddling and unwarrantable assumption of authority than the ability to get news from New Orleans and Little Rock every minute of the night and day. It rouses and stimulates the passion for interference in the most moderate men to have telegrams for instructions coming in incessantly from the marshals and district-attorneys, and to know at the same time that these instructions may be carried into effect a thousand miles away within an hour after they leave the office; and, though last not least, the corrupt combinations of political conspirators and adventurers for using power for sinister purposes are made very much easier by the aids lent by modern science to the transmission of orders and receipt of reports. The railroad and telegraph have of themselves caused a steady flow of power to the political capitals of the world, the dangers of which could only be met by a great change in the character of political men. Of any such change there is no trustworthy sign. Therefore, instead of feeling less, there is plenty of reason for feeling more uneasy about this matter than the last generation felt.

When we say all this, we do not necessarily condemn the Republican party. The government it set up was essentially what the Duc de Broglie called a "gouvernement de combat"—the kind of government the Legitimists wish to set up in France—that is, a government which legislates and administers on the theory that a large proportion of the inhabitants of the country are public enemies, to be watched with horse, foot, and dragoons. No government of this kind, however, can last long as a free government; it has the seeds of ruin in it. It was the kind of government which the circumstances of 1860 made necessary, but it ought to come to an end as soon as possible; and the legislation produced by it—that is, produced by men who spoke and voted with the passions of civil war strong upon them—is to be examined in calmer times with zealous scrutiny. Now, the Constitutional Amendments, it is safe to say, contained the deliberate judgment of the country as to what were the changes in the organic law which the war rendered necessary. It is impossible to gainsay their soundness and appropriateness. The Fifteenth, in particular, was exactly what the circumstances of the case called for, as necessary to protect the negro against possible proscription on the part of his late master, and it was a kind of prohibition—that is, a prohibition of certain legislative acts—with which the people were perfectly familiar, for the Constitution contains several examples of it. The Constitution prohibits States from entering into treaties with foreign powers, granting letters of marque, coining money, issuing paper-money, passing bills of attainder, or *ex-post-facto* laws, or laws impairing the obligation of contracts, or granting titles of nobility, or levying customs duties, or keeping an army or navy in time of peace. The mode of enforcing these prohibitions, too, was one with which the country was also perfectly familiar, namely, the submission of the validity of the State laws passed in contravention of them to the judgment of the Courts of the United States in *bona-fide* suits. If, for instance, to take the most familiar and aptest illustration, a State passed a law impairing the obligation of contracts, or an *ex-post-facto* law, every American knew that it would be upset by a suit brought by private parties in the Federal courts. Nobody dreamed of any direct interference of the Federal authorities in the matter, except in execution of judgments of the courts of law. Nobody dreamed of going to Washington to complain to the Attorney-General that a State had legislated so as to violate contracts, or of

having Federal troops sent down to punish people for violating contracts, or of having Congress pass elaborate acts charging the District Attorney with the duty of prosecuting all violators of contracts, and so on.

Now, we venture to assert that when the Fifteenth Amendment was before the country, no person supposed that it could have any effect on State rights or duties greater or other than the prohibitory clauses already existing in the Constitution, or that it would lead to any violent or unprecedented departures from the beaten track of American constitutional law. Everybody said, "If we adopt this amendment, no Southern State will hereafter be able to disfranchise the negro. If any State attempts it, the negro will be able to go into the Federal courts and have the statute set aside. He will thus be able to protect himself in the enjoyment of the suffrage, and through the suffrage he will be able to ensure respect from the State authorities. If the whites should at first intimidate him, so as to keep him away from the polls by illegal means, why, we shall reach this by having seats thus secured contested in the regular way in Congress, and the successful candidate ousted. As regards State politics, the division of parties must, by the exercise of the commonest skill on the part of the leaders of the colored men, lead to the negroes holding the balance of power, even if they do not make common cause with one of the existing organizations, and thus obtaining their due share of influence and protection. A large body of voters cannot in America, in our day, very long be deprived of anything they choose to insist on or which is only denied them through prejudice. Politicians have neither prejudices nor passions, and a desire for the negro vote is sure very soon to make negroes in many States masters of the situation, and in all an influential element in politics. That this Amendment would lead to legislation giving the United States Government direct control of the elections, even when there was no such State legislation as the Constitution forbade, enabling it to go down and punish all offences committed against colored people, and likely to intimidate them at a near election—thus taking the police of the State virtually out of the hands of the State authorities; making almost any crime of violence cognizable in the United States Courts, and, in fact, greatly changing the division of administrative duties made by the Constitution—were things for which people were totally unprepared when it was passed. We certainly were. If we had foreseen in the smallest degree the construction the majority in Congress would put on the Amendment, we certainly never should have said a word in its favor until its scope had been more specifically defined. We need not say more in illustration of the evils this construction has worked than that under it a United States judge has prevented a legislature from meeting and set up a new one by an injunction issued at night and executed by a military force; that a case of ordinary murder has been taken out of the hands of the State police and brought before the Federal courts, on the ground that the murder was committed to hinder the murdered man from voting three months later; and that several persons have been arrested and compelled to give bail, at great distances from their homes, on charges of having intimidated voters by dismissing them from their employment—a precedent which would, of course, place every employer of labor in the country at the mercy of his men for months before election, and enable them to skulk or cheat him with impunity. The bare statement of these things is sufficient. The Enforcement Acts are not simply deep and far-reaching changes in the American system of government, but they have been sprung on the country and carried out without its consent or consideration, and are evidently capable of being made the instrument of monstrous political corruption and oppression.

If we are asked whether the fact that they protect the negro does not justify them, we reply that a military occupation in great force, for an indefinite period, would protect the negro far more effectually. An army of occupation of about 300,000 men, mainly mounted, with courts-martial sitting *en permanence*, armed with summary powers, in every Congressional District at the South, would make colored people as safe as it is possible for the arm of flesh to make them. We should ourselves, when Congress was beginning the work of Reconstruction, have preferred three or four years of this régime to the reign of the carpet-baggers. Why, then, do the friends of the negro at the North not advocate its maintenance for an indefinite period? Simply because they think it would entail enormous expense, and would seriously imperil the government of the Republic. That is to say, there are dangers and sacrifices which even his warmest friends are not prepared to incur for his sake. Just as they were ready to sacrifice a million of white men, if necessary, to save the Union on the battle-field, they are prepared to let four millions of black people suffer more or less temporary injustice and injury sooner than overturn the Government and set up a military empire. In fact, questions of political policy are, like most questions of domestic economy, questions of cost. People have to ask at every step whether this or that is worth what they will have to pay for it, either in present enjoyment or permanent advantage. The American people have, after full consideration and much observation, come deliberately to the conclusion—and, as we believe, a sound and happy one—that the perfect peace and "protection" secured by a great centralized government like the French Empire are not worth what they cost; that liberty, as we have it, well repays us for the turbulence, disorders, failures of justice, imperfections of administration, which undoubtedly accompany it. They are not, we believe, prepared to abandon this conclusion for the temporary benefit, real or supposed, of any class of the population, black or white, and they are happily sustained in this by another conclusion, no less sound and happy, and that is, that under our system such evils as afflict the South will be cured sooner than under any other system. Nobody will ever take care of the colored voters so well as the colored voters themselves, and a greater hindrance to their learning how to do so could hardly be devised than the Enforcement Acts. The whole doctrine, in fact, that the United States owes any class of citizens "protection" in any other way than that provided by the Constitution, is not simply borrowed from politics of a totally different character from ours, but is hostile to the theory of the educating effect of political action, upon which our political system rests.

Though last, not least, the Enforcement Acts are calculated to weaken the sense of responsibility in both State and Federal officers in all places subjected to their operation, and for this reason: Hitherto the spheres of Federal and State officers have been carefully marked off from each other, so that there was no doubt about their respective duties. The former pursued murderers on the high seas, the latter the murderers on land; the former caught pirates and counterfeiters, the latter forgers and thieves; and so on. Everybody knew to whom to look if any particular offences passed unpunished. But under the Enforcement Acts the Federal authority has been made to cover almost any offence which can be made to appear, in any degree, likely to "intimidate" a man. If he is threatened, assaulted, robbed, or murdered, dismissed from his service; or if his house is burned, or his wife insulted, or his children kidnapped, or custom taken away from his store, or people dissuaded from attending his lectures, or from subscribing to his paper, it may be said that his case is covered by the Fifteenth Amendment, although there may be State laws in force punishing these acts severely. Who, then, is normally responsible for his protection? It would be hard to say. If the Attorney-General at Washington chooses to interfere, the Federal courts may undertake it; but if he does not choose to interfere, he need not; and the State police are not likely to be very zealous in the discharge of a duty which may, at any moment, be taken out of their hands.

WAITERS AND WAITRESSES.

II.*

WE took the liberty of pointing out two years ago that much of the prevalent complaints made against the deficiencies of Irish servant-girls was unreasonable, because it was based on an assumption which employers, while using it, well knew to be untenable. The rage poured out inmost

* See the *Nation*, No. 491.

magazine articles over Bridget, for instance, draws an appearance of justifiability from the theory that Bridget offers her services as a trained servant, and is employed as such—the fact being that all parties to the contract know perfectly well that this theory is without foundation. Bridget in reality offers her services as a person who knows little or nothing of the business expected of her, and who would not be engaged to do it if the other party to the contract could get it done in any other way: that is to say, she is a *pis-aller*, and she behaves accordingly. An efficient, satisfactory *pis-aller* is, however, something which has never yet been seen. There are in Ireland, and in all the other countries from which the ranks of domestic service are filled, plenty of trained servants who make a business of cooking and waiting, but they do not emigrate, and would be very foolish if they did so. Indeed, there is no earthly reason why they should. They are there in a tolerably highly-paid calling, which has a well-defined place in the social organization, in which their habits and tastes are sufficiently provided for, and in which their ambition finds sufficient gratification. In coming here they would find themselves in a position which even those who preach most against Bridget consider degrading, which every native American will almost sooner starve than fill, which both our politics and our literature do everything to depreciate, and from which nearly all Americans hold it to be the duty of either man or woman to escape at the earliest possible moment. No calling can flourish or attract capacity or elicit training under such conditions. The domestic servant in America, such as she is, is the natural product of the tone of the American community on certain important social questions, and the natural result of the depreciation visited on all forms of menial service. If it were the fashion to represent bricklaying as degrading, we should before very long be reduced to employing hod-carriers to build houses, and the misery resulting from this would not be mended by a few reactionary articles or lectures showing that it was noble and holy to be a bricklayer, and that honor and shame came not from a man's occupation, but from his manner of following it. From this point of view, therefore, Bridget is an estimable citizen, who is performing certain very important functions, in a manner far from efficient, it is true, but as well as she knows how or we have any right to expect. She is not trained, but she is living in a community in which it is somewhat the fashion of even educated people to decry training, to the great injury and demoralization of the laboring class; and if she were trained she would probably never have come here. It is the part of wisdom, therefore, to make the best of her, instead of denouncing her, particularly as she is indifferent to public opinion, sees none of the magazines, and attends no meetings, except lectures by priests on the ancient glories of Ireland and on the present condition of the Pope, which seems to her very harrowing.

It is no part of our present purpose to consider her as a cook. It is as a waitress that we have to discuss her now, and as a waitress in the narrow sense of the word, meaning a person who waits at table. Her superiority to a "man waiter" for the common run of families is obvious enough. A household has to be rather large, expensive, and complicated to reconcile a man to the life of an indoor servant and call out his powers in it. This is true even in countries in which he is a member of a large class, and in which his calling is recognized as legitimate and suited to his sex, and has been long and well established. Even there the steady confinement to the house, and the constant immersion in the gossip and scandal of the women of the kitchen, and the restraints he has to impose on himself in his demeanor, have a disastrous effect on his morale. Hotel waiters even, who enjoy much more liberty, and lead a more stirring, active life than waiters in private families, are rarely proof against the strain which the calling puts on the male nerves. We have been told by a head-waiter of long experience in large hotels that the best waiters he had ever seen were sure to disappear at intervals of a few weeks, and pass some days in a state of beastly drunkenness. The monotony, the confinement, the pettiness of the details of which their duties are made up, the smallness of the demand on their muscles, the absence of fresh air, and the necessity of speaking in a low voice, are more than an ordinary man can bear very long without a nervous crisis, which not unnaturally seeks relief in some form of artificial excitement. Women bear this sort of ordeal much better. They eat less, and consequently tax their digestion less; they bear a sedentary life and confinement to the house better; have less craving for excitement, or get it more readily from the common incidents of family life. All these peculiarities have in England established their superiority to men as telegraph operators in stations where the calls are rare. It has been found impossible to get men to remain at their posts waiting, as women will, without wandering off in quest of company or entertainment. In this country, too, a male waiter finds public opinion thrown against his calling, and other avenues inviting him with such vigor as to keep him constantly in a state of suppressed revolt, and to make him in many cases a sort of domestic tiger, with immense capacity for insolence. There would probably be no more amusing volume than a history of the experience of those who have long employed him. There is, perhaps, hardly any form of human "cussedness" which they have not encountered, and probably nobody has thoroughly explored the more obscure recesses of human character who has not had the management of him. Of course, those who are willing to pay high wages, and whose household is brilliant enough to excite the imagination or task the powers of a menial mind, often light on men who are treasures for their particular purpose; but, as a general rule, the waiter as a permanent part of an American household is an anachronism and an anomaly, and may frequently prove a nuisance. The tendency to get him out of the house, and only call him in occasionally as a professional and on state occasions, has, we imagine, grown greatly within the last few years. The training of one is something which it would be unwise for any American to undertake, unless he is himself vigorous, athletic, and determined, and for a lady it is simply out of the question.

The training of waitresses is a matter which can never be successfully undertaken until the prevailing notion that the Irish girls who offer themselves in that capacity are impostors—that is, persons who represent themselves as something which they are not—has been abandoned, and until they are finally and fairly accepted as peasant girls, and nothing else. They cannot be fairly dealt with by persons who are angry because they are not equal either to the "notable" New England woman whom the magazines so often recall, who does all her own work in the best style by three o'clock in the afternoon, and who has the rest of the day to herself, or like the accomplished English parlor-maid, who relieves her mistress of all care about both drawing-room and dining-room. The fact is that when the Irish waitress first sees the dinner-table of a family of even moderate means and plain living, it bears to her somewhat the appearance of preparation for a mysterious heathen rite. The rules and regulations which control the setting of the table, the course of the dishes, the changing of the plates, and so on, are provisions for the gratification of tastes she does not possess, and which only years of training would give her. The whole subject of table manners is, in fact, as mysterious to her as parliamentary procedure or legal pleading. Why the eating of a meal should be surrounded by so much elaboration and ceremony she cannot conceive, unless it is for the satisfaction of empty pride. Explanation of the theory of the matter to her would, therefore, be impossible, for it is largely founded on faint repugnances and likings, which vanish as soon as we bring the cold eye of reason to bear on them. To try to make her feel about the table service as her mistress does—that is, give her the mistress's sense of propriety and decency and fitness—would be as absurd as to begin the education of a military recruit by a course of high strategy.

In all attempts to train persons in a very low stage of culture, and especially in attempts to train them to perform processes of which they do not understand the theory, the only chance of success lies in making them repeat incessantly certain acts in an invariable order. By the incessant repetition you create a sort of habit, and by the invariableness of the order you help that feebleness of the memory for unfamiliar facts which almost always accompanies deficiency of mental training. Therefore, if anybody wants to train a peasant girl to wait at table, she must be made to do the same thing every day in the same sequence, and with no omission or departure from the programme. This is, however, by no means the usual practice. The plan commonly adopted is to exact from her the least possible amount of service when the family are alone, and then, when they have any company, to put on her suddenly a great variety of new duties, the reason for which she does not see and the order of which she cannot for the life of her remember. The result is that the attention of the mistress of the house is wholly abstracted from the company and concentrated on Bridget, whose movement she watches with horrible interest, and whose memory she is obliged to jog every time a plate has to be changed; and that Bridget, if she is a modest or well-meaning girl, is overwhelmed through the whole dinner by remorse for the past and anxiety about the future, and probably often wishes she were dead before it is over. In short, no device can be a substitute for minute drill, such as a recruit gets. To prepare a soldier for the movements on the battle-field, he has to be taught day by day to perform certain movements in a certain way on the parade-ground, which will never be of use except on the battle-field, and this is the only way in which he can be prepared. That is, he has to acquire a certain mechanical routine, which he can follow in times of great mental disturbance with the force of habit. There would not be much use, as is seen in the case of ill-drilled militia, in explaining the manœuvres to him, and putting him through them once or twice a year. He has to be drilled until he can handle his arms and make the required manœuvres without thinking about what he is doing or going to do. Bridget is very much in the recruit's position. If you want her to wait easily on guests, you

must have your table served every day as you mean to have it served when you have company. There is no other way of getting efficiency out of her. Of course, this does not imply that you must always have as good a dinner when you are alone as when you have friends. There is a distinction, as Dr. Johnson has pointed out, between even a good dinner for yourself "and a dinner to ask a man to." But your poor family dinners must be served, as far as the work of waiting is concerned, in such a way that preparation for company shall mean simply the addition of another course or other courses, and not a total change in the method and a new distribution of duties. The waitress must not be called to do things which she has never done before, or only done very rarely, and has forgotten all about. She must simply have to do what she did yesterday and the day before, or only, if there is any change at all, have to do it a greater number of times. This undoubtedly would often involve some increase of elaboration in the service of the daily family dinner, but not nearly so much as one might suppose at first blush, and of course we do not present it as everybody's duty. We only offer it as a suggestion for the consideration of those who really wish to make it easy for them to see their friends at their table with less trouble and expense and confusion than hospitality now involves; and we must remind those who shrink from it that improvements in the manner of eating are not only a sign of increasing civilization, but a solid contribution towards it. The plainest and worst-served dinner in an American farm-house is an advance, which no one would like to see lost, on the meal eaten by Indians with their dirty hands out of the tribal pot. Nay, we might even go so far as to say, as we have said more than once before, that the great end and aim of civilization and of patriotism are or ought to be the multiplication of well-furnished parlors with well-bred women in them, and the multiplication of pleasant dinner-tables, with well-dressed people eating good food off them, served by calm and competent waiters or waitresses. Of these things no country can have too many.

There is one rule of training, however, which cannot be too strongly insisted on, and it is this: that a peasant girl cannot be readily, if at all, made into a good waitress if the dinner is served in the old Anglo-Saxon way in which Hengst and Horsa loved it—that is, if all the dishes, supposing there are more than one, are put on the table together, and the guests are allowed to choose between them, so that when one is taking turkey, another is eating beef, and another mutton. The table service cannot, under such a system as this, be efficient unless each person has a waiter to himself, and even then there are three or four persons employed in carving, and the utmost confusion is created by the crossing of plates and the simultaneous expression of varied desires. The practice is a relic of the old barbarian times, when the object of a meal and its main interest lay in the consumption of a great quantity of victuals. The more food the host could then display at once on the board, the more hospitable he seemed, and the pressing of the guests by himself and his wife to eat this and that, and to try something else, or to cram down a little more of what they had tried already, and the cutting up of the meat and its distribution, took the place of rational conversation, and in fact converted the dinner into a mere "feed." It has bred, too, in the minds of a great many people a strange, savage desire to see on the table before them all at once all that they are going to have, or can have—a fancy which hotel-keepers try to gratify by surrounding you with great numbers of little dishes, each containing something different, and many of which the diner does not mean to taste, but contents himself with gazing at as he eats. At Harvard College, where a gallant attempt is making to raise the standard in eating by supplying meals to four or five hundred students in the great hall, and serving them, not *à la Hengst et Horsa*, but in consecutive courses, many of the boys were at first distressed by not seeing the entire repast, pie and all, laid out before them when they sat down, and grumbled over the retention of any portion of it in the kitchen until the time came to serve it, showing that habit had really made the sight of "what was coming next" a source of real contentment, and, perhaps, an aid to digestion. But good waiting is not possible under any such system, and anybody who adheres to it must not try to teach servants to wait, for there is nothing to teach. The best way to distribute food under it is for the whole company to give themselves up unreservedly to pushing plates to and fro, and calling out their wants, and cutting up meat, and spooning out vegetables, and not make any attempt at rational talk about better things. The most the waitress can do, under such circumstances, is to carry some one person's plate now and then for something in the general confusion, and pour out ice-water, which always furnishes a ready escape from complete bewilderment.

In order to enable one woman to wait efficiently on many guests, and enable a small establishment to have many guests, and to keep down noise, racket, and disorder, and give opportunity for conversation, the way to serve the dinner, be it never so small or plain, is in courses—that is, to produce only one dish at a time, and give nobody any choice, and let anybody who does not like what is offered him wait until something else comes. This entails, doubtless, more frequent changes of plates and knives and forks, but the additional trouble in this direction is saved in other ways, to say nothing of the increase of comfort and the reduction in the amount of carving—the total disappearance of which from the table will assuredly be the next great step in the art of living. The order of service can in this way be taught and learnt and remembered. This leads us to ask one question, in closing, of those who are interested in the industrial training of women, and that is, why there are in our large towns and cities, where dinner-giving is frequent, no extra-menial waitresses competent to take charge of a dinner as waiters do, to carve, and see to the proper service of a large company? There is in every city a considerable number of men who make a very good living in this way, and many who have all winter far more than they can do, but waitresses of this kind one never sees. Yet the number of women who have to follow waiting as a calling is very large everywhere; and there is a large number of others who say they would follow it if it were not that it confines them all day long in another person's house, and at her beck and call, and gives them no control over their own time. Now, there is not a single American city where waitresses who understood their business, knew how to carve, and had the art of dressing neatly in black, might not obtain employment in large numbers at high wages from November till April, and yet live in their own lodgings, or fix the amount of work they would do. The life, too, would be vastly healthier, happier, more varied, and better paid than any of the occupations into which poor women who scorn domestic service now rush. They would be employed by great numbers of families, who, when they have more company than their own household is equal to, nevertheless dislike calling in a man, feeling him to be a sort of elephant who gives too much *éclat* to trifling occasions. Why is it that this has never been thought of by any elevator of woman, or suffrage worker, or enlarger of woman's sphere, or thrower open to women of a greater variety of resources?

ANDRÉ CHÉNIER.

PARIS, Novembr 20, 1874.

THERE has till now been no complete edition of the works of André de Chénier. His manuscripts were all in the possession of his nephew, M. Gabriel de Chénier, who allowed several editors and writers, Sainte-Beuve among others, to make copious extracts from them. As many of the poems are unfinished, the editors have hitherto published only a portion of Chénier's works. M. Gabriel de Chénier has finally himself made a complete and definitive edition of his uncle's poems, finished or unfinished. This beautiful edition is preceded by a long notice, which will be most interesting to all lovers of French literature. André de Chénier is the connecting link between the poetry of the eighteenth century and the Romantic school of our age. We find in his works many pages which remind one of Dorat, of La Fare, of Boufflers, and others. He attempted an 'Art d'aimer'; his bucolics and his elegies are full of shepherds and shepherdesses; but how different his muse appears from the powdered muse of the eighteenth century! The secret of his talent may be found in a single sentence of his: "In all my efforts I have always tried to approach (*cotoyer*) the ancients." He was not a scholar, a Classicist; it may almost be said that his mind really dwelt in Greece—and the reason of it is obvious: he was the son of a Greek lady, and was born in Constantinople (October 30, 1762). His father, who was Consul-General, had married a lady who was born in Cyprus, and who claimed the famous Lusignan among her ancestors. Her family name was Santé-L'Homaca; she was a well-instructed person, had formed a fine collection of Greek medals, and had some literary merit.

Critics may build fine theories on the transition from the conventional naturalism of the Dorat school to the pure and chaste naturalism of Chénier; to me his Hellenism appears to have been a mere accident, and it is certain that his reputation as a poet only began to be very great after the Romantic movement of the Restoration had given a sudden impulse to the public mind. Not that Chénier could be called a Romanticist in the sense now given to the word, but he was no Classicist of the dry, imperial school; he had broken through all the conventionalities of his epoch, or rather had ignored them, as if he lived at a very early age in the very atmosphere of antiquity.

We will say nothing of his college years; the only thing worth notice is his poetic vocation. At the age of sixteen he wrote very tolerable verses and translated wonderfully well some poems of Propertius, of Virgil, of Horace, of Ovid, of the Greek authors. He was of delicate health, and from his childhood troubled with attacks of the gravel—a malady which is apt to en-

gender hypochondria. He was sent for a little while to Strasbourg as a cadet in the regiment of Angoumois. But military life did not suit him; he returned to his father's house in Paris, and lived in a small circle of friends, among whom we find Lavoisier, the famous chemist, who was a *fermier-général*, the painter David, de Lamoignon, de Malesherbes, Florian, etc. M. Gabriel de Chénier defends his uncle with much indignation against the imputations of some writers, who have represented him as given over to the pleasures of the *soupers* of the end of the eighteenth century. All the *soupers* were not like those described by the pen of a Rétif de la Bretonne—a nasty writer to whom the bibliophiles of our day have, I am sorry to say, given too much importance. The friends of Chénier were not rakes, they were chiefly literary men, and men of good social reputation. There is an ideality in his works which separates him from the gross materialists of his time; and we may add, also, that his health was a continual check upon the folly of youth. He was not regularly handsome, but his large eyes, his open and round forehead, gave much expression to a face which had something feminine rather than masculine about it. At the age of twenty-two he travelled in Switzerland and in Italy; he was anxious to visit Greece, but he was recalled home. It was after this journey that he wrote the greater part of his pastoral and elegiac poems. At twenty-five he had still no profession, and he was glad to be called to London by a friend of his family, the Marquis de la Luzerne, who was ambassador at the Court of St. James. He remained four years in London, at first full of ardor, and afterwards discouraged by the sense of his solitude in the great English capital. He liked London, but the English climate tried his health. He collected the fine editions of the classics published at Cambridge and Oxford; in London, the British Museum was the place where he forgot his *ennui*; and he became especially acquainted in this famous library with the poets of the Italian renaissance, and especially with the lesser bucolic poets. His mind was always turned toward the form of poetry which Theocritus first used, which Virgil used after him, and which had become popular at the end of the eighteenth century, owing partly to the naturalistic revolution of Jean Jacques Rousseau. Parthenius Giannettasius (author of 'Carmina Piscatoria et Nautica'), Bernardino Baldi, and Sannazar (who wrote under the name of Actius Severus) became for a time the favorite authors of Chénier. He even wrote some Greek verses in honor of Actius.

We find Chénier at that period in correspondence with the Countess Alfieri, who was the widow of Charles Edward Stuart. She had, as is well known, first borne the name of Countess of Albany, till she married Count Alfieri; she received a pension from the French Court till the Revolution, and lived in Paris. She writes to Chénier at the beginning of the year 1791: "Our liberty is being gradually established; I believe that we shall be for some time yet in a state of anarchy. Liberty is a good and fine thing, but it is hard to see it take possession of a country. The best things in this world ought to be seen from a distance. The comparison may not be a noble one, but you, who are a *gourmand*, will not be displeased with it: it is like a good dinner which has an excellent appearance on the table, but if you had seen it preparing it would disgust you. I believe the same may be said of liberty." At the time this letter was written the work of the Revolution was already well advanced. Chénier had applauded the famous principles of 1789; he had become, with his friend, the Chevalier de Pange, a member of the "Society of 1789"; he had written a poem on the "Jeu de Paume" (the place in Versailles where the deputies of the Tiers swore to maintain the rights of the people); he had also published two political pamphlets, 'Advice to the French People' and 'Reflections on Party Spirit'; he had contributed to various newspapers of the time; he was a partisan of constitutional monarchy and of that type of government which was then identified with the name of England.

We must give a few details on a poem which afterwards brought Chénier to the scaffold. The Swiss regiment of Chateauvieux had mutinied; the Jacobins praised the mutiny as an act of independent patriotism, and Collot-d'Herbois made the motion to celebrate the mutiny in Paris by a public ceremony. The 1st of April, 1792, was the day chosen for this scandalous performance. Chénier published, under the circumstances, a small hymn, in which Robespierre and Collot-d'Herbois were both named:

"Quarante meurtriers, chéris de Robe-pierre, . . .;
. . . . . .
Le grand Collot-d'Herbois, ses clients helvétiques."

It is frightful to think that these two verses sealed the fate of a man, and of what a man!

André had a brother, Marie-Joseph, who did not discern as early as himself the true character of some of the heroes of the Revolution. He was himself a poet, and wrote successful tragedies, but was too fond of popularity. He was not quite in harmony with André, who had seen with horror the invasion of the Tuileries on the 10th of August, 1792, the excesses of the Marseillais, who had arrived in Paris on the 31st of July. The two brothers had very painful discussions. Marie-Joseph was the younger and the more ardent of the two. André wrote for the *Journal de Paris*, and he was one of the last who tried to keep the Revolution within proper bounds. After the 10th of August the *Journal de Paris* could no longer appear, and all its writers were dispersed. Chénier went for a little time to Rouen and to Havre, and then returned to his father's house in Paris. Wieland enquired for him at that time through a friend of his, and wished to know what was his part in the Revolution. "What I do in the Revolution?" wrote Chénier, in reply. "Nothing, thank God, absolutely nothing. . . . I am determined to keep aloof, to take no part in public affairs, and to form in my solitude, for the liberty, the tranquillity, and the happiness of the Republic, wishes which, to tell the truth, much surpass my hopes."

Marie-Joseph, his brother, had been elected a deputy of the Convention. As for himself, he only wished to have a safe asylum; but when M. de Malesherbes, the counsel of Louis XVI. (the uncle of M. de la Luzerne, who had taken Chénier with him to London), asked Chénier to help him, he did not refuse to do so, and he wrote a long memoir, in which he condensed all the arguments which could help the cause of the king. After the execution of Louis XVI. the Terror reigned supreme. Chénier at that time reminds one forcibly of the young and beautiful birds which still sing in the morning while the cruel arms are preparing which must shortly put an end to their existence. He lived often in Versailles, enjoying the majesty of its solitudes. He led the most retired life. But his fate was sealed. He made a visit to Madame Piscatory at Passy on the very day when her house was searched. In virtue of the warrant, every individual found in the house could be arrested. He was seized and brought to the prison of the Luxembourg; from there he was dragged to the prison of Saint Lazarus. His father would have done better to leave him there and to do nothing; he could not repress his anxiety, and went to the Committee of Public Safety to ask that his son should be set free. Barère received him with his usual cold and treacherous courtesy. Collot-d'Herbois heard of the arrest from Barère; he felt at once that revenge was now in his hands. The cruel Terrorist immediately sent orders in virtue of which the arrest of Chénier became legal. When Chénier the father returned to the prison, the *concierge*, who seems to have been a kind man, and who had previously explained to him that Chénier could not be detained long, as some formalities had not been accomplished, said to the unhappy father: "What have you done? I have now received the order to inscribe your son on the prisoners' list." After this formal inscription no prisoner could be set free if he did not appear before the Revolutionary Tribunal.

It is almost too painful to follow this sad history of the arrest of Chénier. His brother Sauveur, who was Adjutant-General in the Army of the North, was at the same moment arrested at Beauvais; he wrote several letters, asking to be transferred to the Conciergerie in Paris, and to appear at once before the Tribunal. He succeeded in his request, and was brought to the Conciergerie. It would be too long to explain in detail how the family of Chénier succeeded for a while in putting off the trial of the two brothers, and how, after an imprudence of Chénier the father, caused by his zeal, all the plans of the family were defeated. Chénier the father called once more upon Barère, and Barère said to him: "Your son will leave his prison in three days." So he did, but it was to mount the scaffold. He was brought to the Tribunal under a false denomination as André Chénier, man of letters, ex-adjutant-general—the qualifications of the two brothers had been united upon him. But this formal defect made no difference; he had been brought before the Tribunal with a batch of 27 prisoners, at nine o'clock in the morning. The bill of indictment was read, the list of questions was given to the jury; there were no defenders, as the law of 22d Prairial did not admit them. The questions asked the jury were general, and embraced crimes common to all the prisoners. The verdict was negative for one prisoner only. All the others, André among them, were executed before the end of the day.

The horrible execution (which had become a daily incident of Parisian life) took place on the 7th Thermidor; two days afterwards the revolution of the 9th Thermidor took place. Two days more, and Chénier would have lived, and would have finished so many poems which are now fragmentary. We can judge by the noble purity of these fragments of the grandeur of the designs of this poet, who died at the age of 31, a victim of the horrible passions of the Parisian Commune. He wrote verses almost to the eve of his death, and sent them to his father concealed in the linen which the washerwoman was allowed to carry away for him. There is in the new edition a facsimile of his last poem, written in almost invisible characters. I was much interested in finding that Chénier had planned a poem on America; the notes which he has left on this poem are worth reading.

Notes.

MARK TWAIN'S works have found a Danish translator in Mr. Robert Watt, editor of one of the daily journals of Copenhagen, and author of a book of travels in the United States; and a publisher in Mr. L. A. Jörgensen, of the same city, who sends us a number of favorable notices of the book from the Scandinavian press. It appears that, thanks to Mr. Watt also, Bret Harte had already been introduced to Danish readers.——A subscriber calls our attention to the fact that the common error of denominating Monsieur H. Taine *Henri* instead of Hippolyte, has crept into President Hopkins's 'Outline Study of Man' and the 'Bric-a-Brac Series.'——"Philosophical" is not exactly the word we should have applied to M. Paul Marcoy's reflections in his 'Travels in South America,' reviewed last week. The types made us adopt it, however, and it may be as well to explain that what we wrote was "philological," having in mind the numerous Indian vocabularies which, with other kindred matter, save the work from being a mere narrative of adventure. Let us improve this occasion to point out another error in the same issue, in the first line of page 365, where "every constituency *and* State" should read "every constituency *in a* State."——Mr. Albert Mason, in consequence of ill-health, has made arrangements with Hurd & Houghton to publish his entire list of books.——Johnson, Wilson & Co., of this city, announce as a subscription work a history of the United States from the discovery of America to July 4, 1876, by Benson J. Lossing, with illustrations by Mr. Darley. The title of the book will be 'Our Country.'

—Messrs. Estes & Lauriat permit us to make the following extract from a letter addressed to them by the London house of Hachette & Cie., dated Sept. 24: "You may be glad to hear that the fourth volume of Guizot ['History of France'] is completely in type, and the fifth and last volume in MS. in the hands of our Paris house. This grand work was just completed before the death of the eminent author."

—The *Cornell Review* for December describes the recent transaction by which Mr. Ezra Cornell has discharged his indebtedness to the State for the land scrip which he engaged to buy several years ago—the matter which was lately made the subject of investigation by the New York Legislature, with the result of fully vindicating Mr. Cornell's integrity. If we understand aright, the State has been paid some $180,000; the University, $500,000 (Mr. Cornell's originally promised endowment); and the title to the lands located by Mr. Cornell now rests with the trustees of the University, who have established a Land Bureau to facilitate the disposal of their new property. How the money was raised to reimburse the State is not indicated. In a previous number of the *Review* and in the *Cornell Era*, the manual-labor system has been discussed and been pronounced a failure in the University. Were it ideally well managed, as has been far from the case, it requires of those who expect to be supported by it in going through college an amount of constancy, fortitude, and self-restraint which is rarely found in students. Most of them, again, bring no skill or training in any mechanical art, and have to betake themselves to the coarsest form of manual labor, such as grading the grounds. Here there is too much competition, for one thing; and for another, the laborers must needs be very irregular in order to attend upon recitations. The result is that though this sort of work is paid for at fifteen cents an hour it is considered overpaid. Students prove not over-scrupulous in reporting the time that they are occupied, and false pretences of skilled labor are not unknown. The best men find employment in the town when the University has nothing for them. The latter pays twenty cents an hour for carpentering, and the average workman in the University press earns twenty-five cents an hour. "We are informed," says the *Review*, "that future prospects [for the press] are good, and that, if sufficient interest is taken in it by the authorities, the University printing office 'can be made a first-class book-printing concern.'" Even if it cannot, there is good reason, to our thinking, for maintaining the office as a valuable auxiliary in the instruction of the College. In the past six years $43,818 20 has been paid out for the more or less profitable labor of students; more than $10,000 having been expended in 1869–70, since which time there has been a steady falling off in amount ($5,194 46 in 1873–74). In the October *Bulletin* of the University of California it is stated, under the head of Agriculture, that "the manual labor of the students has been employed, and paid for at good prices"; and under the head of Manual Labor we learn that student labor is given the preference in the work required about the University building and grounds, and that many of the students have thus earned considerable sums in holiday and vacation time, but that only strong bodies and strong intellects have the power to do this. Telegraphy is taught, and forty-seven students are employed in the Berkeley Press.

—If "an undevout astronomer is mad," as good orthodox and poetical authority declares, very mad indeed must an undevout pomologist be. The Michigan State Pomological Society (*vide* Transactions, Vol. III.) means to keep well within the bounds of sanity. But there is method—and sometimes questionable method—in sanity no less than in madness. A specimen of it occurs in a Michigan pomological president's eulogy of "The White Muscat Grape," when he declares: "I cannot refrain from expressing my gratitude to the All-wise Giver of every good and perfect gift for the happy bestowment of this most precious variety, the White Muscat of Alexandria. It seems as if this was the last and most perfect work of God, of the vine to man." It used to be said that man was the last and most perfect work of God, and even that the vine, ever since the days of Noah, was not an unalloyed blessing. There was, in our opinion, equal devoutness and better taste in the more restrained enthusiasm of an early pomologist, good old Evelyn, when, in eulogizing his favorite fruit, this worthy writes: "It may well be that God might have created a more delicious fruit than the strawberry; all I can say is, that I do not believe he ever did." Then, in the inaugural address of the president of the year, the following sentence mixes practical pomiculture, rhetorical floriculture, natural theology, and figures of speech somewhat remarkably: "Michigan seems created to our purpose by the All-wise Hand that, around our loved peninsula, has poured the sacred waters of Michigan, Huron, and Superior, under whose sheltering ægis our noble orchards their brightest treasures spread to the sun in unfailing harvests." The exuberance natural to a fertile Western soil calls for more attention to pruning. We are bound to add that there are better things in the third annual report of this Society, but none richer.

—The admirable 'Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology' of our countryman, Dr. Thomas, is especially strong in its inclusion of Oriental subjects; and the few great Chinese names which occur in Western literature will readily be found in it. Thus Confucius appears not only under the familiar Latinized form of the name, but under the original K'ung Fu-tsze; nor is his great contemporary and rival Lao Tsze omitted. Space would of course have been wanting for such purely national characters as Chang Hêng, the historiographer and astronomer (A.D. 78-139); or Ma Twan-lin, the great antiquarian of the fourteenth century; or Ts'ao Fuh-hing, the famous artist of the third century, who, "having painted a screen for his sovereign, carelessly added the representation of a fly to the picture, and so perfect was the illusion that on receiving the screen Sun K'üan raised his hand to brush the insect away"; or even Li Peh, "the most widely celebrated among the poets of China" (A.D. 699–762). These and similar names can excite an interest only in foreign readers of the Chinese; and for such students Mr. Wm. Frederick Mayers, British Secretary of Legation at Peking, has prepared a 'Chinese Reader's Manual' (London: Trübner; New York: John Wiley & Son), which is as pleasant reading as Lempriere. It is a hand-book of biographical, historical, mythological, and general literary reference, designed to furnish a clue to those "intricacies of allusion and quotation" of which Carlyle offers an exceptional example in English literature, but which, as Mr. Mayers says, in Chinese literary art assume the character of a canon. Hence we have in alphabetic order, along with the names of statesmen, emperors, warriors, and other worthies both male and female, the tiger (*Hu*), representing the masculine principle in nature; the fox (*Hu*, or *Hu-li*), who "has many peculiar attributes, viz., in color he partakes of that which is central and harmonizing (*i.e.*, yellow); he is small before and large behind; and at the moment of death he lifts his head upwards"; the peach-tree (*T'ao*), "an emblem of marriage and symbol of longevity"; the mountain, *Kw'ên Lun*; the Indigo bridge (*Lan K'iao*) at the ancient capital of China; the planets, the metals, etc.—in all, about a thousand notices. The second part of the book contains the numerical categories, *e.g.*, "the four members of the human frame, the four cardinal points, the four metropolitan prefectures of the T'ang dynasty, the four recluse greyheads, etc., etc.; the five notes of harmony forming the Chinese musical scale; the eight objects of government, viz., food, commodities, sacrifices, the minister of works, the minister of instruction, the minister of crime, the entertainment of guests, the army." Part III. is occupied with highly useful tables of the Chinese dynasties.

—The proverbial sayings and personal anecdotes with which Mr. Mayers enlivens his Manual are numerous and amusing. One Chang Ch'ang, an Imperial official of the first century B.C., having fallen into disgrace, "one of the subordinates, triumphing in this event, spoke of his chief as 'Prefect for five days more'; but Chang Ch'ang, hearing of this slight, seized and executed the offender, as a proof that even in the few remaining days of office he neglected no duty or prerogative. The phrase has become classical in this sense." President Johnson, Mayor Havemeyer, and many a retiring official have in our time furnished illustrations of it. Two centuries earlier than the preceding, Chao Kao, an ambitious eunuch, "in order to discover who were

boldest among the courtiers, on one occasion presented a stag to the young sovereign, saying, 'This is a horse for your majesty.'" Every Polonius among the courtiers, on being asked by the Emperor what the animal was, answered, "This is certainly a stag"—giving rise to the proverb "to call a horse a stag," in the sense of wilful misrepresentation. The honest courtiers kept silent, and were marked for speedy destruction by the contriver of the snare. To Su Ts'in, or his brother Su Tai (fourth century B.C.) is attributed the proverb, "It is better to be a fowl's beak than the hinder parts of an ox"—first man in a little village than second man at Rome. And Su Tai is also the reputed inventor of the first complete fable recorded in Chinese literature: "A mussel was sunning itself by the river bank when a bittern came by and pecked at it. The mussel closed its shell and nipped the bird's beak. Hereupon the bittern said; 'If you don't let me go to-day, if you don't let me go to-morrow, there will be a dead mussel.' The shell-fish answered: 'If I don't come out to-day, if I don't come out to-morrow, there will surely be a dead bittern.' Just then a fisherman came by and seized the pair of them." Ts'ao Chih (A.D. 192–232), a poet, third son of a usurper, was ordered by his jealous elder brother to compose an ode while taking seven paces; which he did in the following pointed manner:

"A kettle had beans inside,
And the stalks of the bean made a fire;
When the beans to their brother-stalks cried,
'We spring from one root,—why such ire?'"

Some of the women described in this Manual are noteworthy: one whose "skill in the art of dancing (posturing) was such that it is said of her she could dance on the palm of a hand or in a bowl"; another, the Princess of Lo Chang, who, in troublous times, when about to be separated from her husband, gave him half of a broken mirror, agreeing on a certain future day to expose the other half for sale in the capital—a means of identification and reunion like the familiar Western custom of tearing a card in two. Of the Empress Lü (third century B.C.) Mr. Mayers says that "hers is the only reign of a female sovereign to which Chinese history accords a legitimate title; and the crimes which disgrace it point a significant warning against female rule"—a rather sweeping generalization.

THE MAGAZINES FOR DECEMBER.

OF contributions to the December *Atlantic* probably the concluding instalment of Mr. Howells's "Foregone Conclusion" will have been the most eagerly looked for. This novel has already attained a substantial success, and we defer any extended criticism till we shall have had time to examine it as a complete book. Mr. Nadal's paper on English and American scenery has the merits that are getting to be recognized as distinctive of him; but he should have a care not to let his prose fall into rhythms more suitable to verse. In the final instalment of "A Rebel's Recollections" the most noticeable fact is that of the religious revival which passed through the Confederate army when all rational hope of success had been abandoned, and which excited a superstitious trust in Providential interference on their side. Besides these contributions, we have an article by Mr. Atkinson on the "Righteousness of Money-Making," not especially original, but none the less sound. "Only that commerce is to be deemed righteous," he says, "which is based on the idea of mutual service. . . . The capitalist demands a protective tariff in order that labor may be better employed, and really persuades himself that his motive is single. . . . He has been set up . . . as one who is to confer benefit, not to render service in what he does." Mr. Atkinson's object is to advocate the higher education for men preparing for business life. Mr. H. S. Mackintosh writes heavily about water-color painting, and thinks that "in seeking to establish a national school, while we lack the advantage of the hereditary transmission of skill, we have no preconcerted, traditional types nor long-established conventional styles to contend against." This is encouraging, but we should not forget that such types and styles are one very efficient means to reactionary progress—a progress more resolute, perhaps, than the one which has no starting-point, so to speak. Besides the book-notices and musical criticism, this number contains a brief screed on the drama, in which the critic discusses the "School for Scandal" as recently given at the Boston Museum, and also the play itself. The critic follows Taine's instructive discussion of the play in his 'English Literature' pretty closely, though he does not succeed quite as well as he might in making the reader understand why it is that this comedy holds the stage with such tenacity, that even Byron's assertion that it is the best in the language does not seem to most people overstrained praise, even now. The criticism will remind the reader that the Bostonians are fortunate in still possessing one of the best stock actors of the old school in Mr. William Warren—one of a race pretty much extinct elsewhere; and will startle the playgoer and lover of the stage by the suggestion that "visible change of scene is rapidly becoming a barbarism, and we strongly suspect that this circumstance will end by giving a death-blow to Shakspere as an acting dramatist."

We hope that Mr. J. S. Barry has not yet received his honorarium from the publishers of the *Atlantic* for his article on "Old Trees," which is one of the most flagrant cases of "lifting" it has ever befallen us to expose. It is ten pages long, and a good third of it is partly literal transcription, partly paraphrase of a paper on the "Longevity of Trees," contributed by Prof. Asa Gray to the *North American Review* for July, 1844. A considerable portion of the remainder is borrowed in like manner from Mr. George B. Emerson's 'Report on the Trees and Shrubs growing naturally in Massachusetts' (Boston, 1850). In neither case is credit given, though the work just named is once casually referred to. As if to cover up his tracks, Mr. Barry changes the order of Prof. Gray's illustrations; but he has the simplicity as well as temerity to appropriate the well-chosen poetical extracts with which the *North American* article was garnished. One of these, having in that article a general application, is palmed off as an apt description of a particular tree in South Scituate, which it is safe to say Mr. Barry never saw, or heard of till Mr. Emerson's report fell into his hands. He is so careless in his pilfering that where Prof. Gray speaks of trees as existing in 1828, 1831, 1844, and Mr. Emerson in 1850, Mr. Barry preserves the present tense, and avers (*e.g.*) that an olive at Pescia, "although *now* in a state of decrepitude, *continues* to bear a crop of fruit of considerable abundance," and that a dilapidated oak at Brighton, Mass., "*is still* clad with abundant foliage"—the last being Mr. Emerson's *ipsissima verba* a quarter of a century ago. The pretence that all this knowledge is original, or gathered by original research, of course makes Mr. Barry's offence a very serious one. When he says, in regard to the oak, "we must refer to the works of Evelyn and Gilpin, Strutt and Loudon," his readers would not suspect that these were Prof. Gray's words thirty years ago; yet such is the case. Mr. Barry's own padding is absolutely worthless, and ought to have furnished the *Atlantic's* editor a clew to the real character of the article. A sample of it is found in his "improvement" of a sentence from the *North American*, as shown below within brackets: "It was beneath this tree that Henry VIII. [by the Grace of God Defender of the Faith, etc.] first saw Gospel light in the [fair] eyes of Anne Boleyn."

Scribner's for this month brings to an end the "Great South" series. This energetic undertaking is said, in the editorial notes, to have cost the magazine publishers thirty thousand dollars. The papers are to be made into a subscription book for Great Britain and her colonies, as well as the United States; and Messrs. King and Champney and the publishers have a fair claim to thanks for their labors. Jules Verne's "Mysterious Island" continues to be mysterious; and the greatest mystery about it is how people can be entertained by reading it. The usual rough-and-tumble illustrations, by Barbant, accompany the serial. Wm. C. Conant supplies information about the Gorham Company and other matters, under the expansive heading, "The Silver Age." An illustrated paper on Madeira contains some interesting items. The problem of irrigation there has given occasion for some fine engineering: "The streams are tapped far up near their sources and diverted into *leradas*, or channels averaging fifteen feet in width, meandering along the vertical sides of stupendous precipices, and by easy gradations coursing all the gardens and terraces of the island." One of these streams is drawn from a waterfall, which is "on the north side, and has a sheer descent of one thousand feet at the head of a narrow gorge. . . . It was necessary for the workmen to lower themselves from the edge of the precipice, and thus suspended by ropes four hundred feet from the depths below, and often drenched by the cataract between which and the cliff they toiled," to blast a trench in the solid rock. Saxe Holm's 'My Tourmaline' drifts on through a second part; and Constance F. Woolson contributes one of her formless tales, called "Jeannette," very feeble, and gratuitously outraging the finer sensibilities in its crude attempt at force near the close. A brief paper on the transit of Venus and some editorial matter complete the number.

In the *Galaxy*, Miss Woolson has an article developing into a figure-sketch, suggested by the accidental burning of the old Indian Agency on Mackinac Island: it is better than most of her labors in this field The contents of the *Galaxy* make a good variety. "Leah," by Mrs. Edwards, progresses through its seventh chapter, and gives promise of being a dismally bright and disreputable "society novel," as that institution has nowadays come to be understood. Mr. Boyesen's "Norseman's Pilgrimage" is an agreeable contrast to this unhealthy story, and opens with a vigorous flavor and a dash of adventure. George Lowell Austin concludes his paper on etching, and promises more, which we shall look for with some pleasure. Then there is a paper on the duration of the Executive term, which the voters of last month will hardly need to peruse; some rose-colored reminiscences of recent advances in

Siam, from Mrs. Feudge; and a paper entitled "Apropos of Tyndall," by James Freeman Clarke. The article called "Was it Katie King?" by Mr. F. J. Lippitt gives an account of some "face-sittings"—*i.e.*, spiritualistic *séances* at which the faces of departed persons appear, and even more than that, their whole bodies sometimes. Katie King is the spirit most constantly produced in Mr. and Mrs. Holmes's parlor in Philadelphia, Katie being the daughter of a gentleman deceased a century or two since, named King *alias* Morgan, who was in his day a noted pirate, and whose exploits are celebrated, unless we are greatly mistaken, in a forgotten book called the 'History of the Buccaneers.' Whether this book contains any facts which might throw light on the truth of Katie's representations we do not remember, but to her father, whose repentant shade appears now and then shouting "ship ahoy" and other nautical phrases, she must be a source of great pride and consolation. Notwithstanding her probably neglected education, she has a "neat and studied" feminine handwriting, and is capable of writing the finest newspaper English. One of the Philadelphia papers, however, has sent a reporter to investigate some of these manifestations, and he pronounces the whole thing a very poor piece of jugglery; and it is a curious illustration of the difficulty of getting at any of the facts in connection with Spiritualism that this newspaper report on the machinery used, the amount of light admitted, and all the essential "conditions," gives a description of occurrences in no way resembling those of which Mr. Lippitt writes.

In *Lippincott* we have, among the "Monthly Gossip," some interesting statistics. The first, by Alexander Delmar (late Chief of our Bureau of Statistics), relate to the Foundling Hospital of Moscow. In 1869, the number of infants received there was 11,140; in 1870, 10,661; and in 1871, 10,756. The mortality is very great, being about 21 per cent.:

"Of the 11,912 on hand at the close of the preceding year and received during the year, no less than 2,426 had died before they attained the age of six weeks. The causes of this mortality are in great part traceable in the circumstances of the infants when brought. . . . In the first place, 98 per cent. are illegitimate. . . . Behind these results there remains much that is unrevealed, but enough is known to completely dissipate the social or communistic doctrines on this subject, which even in our own country have already found some defenders."

The community which should attempt to practise them, he thinks, would be overtaken by extinction. The other statistics are entitled "The Illiteracy of the Republic." Our census of 1860 included 1,126,575 white persons over twenty who cannot read or write. And "as more than half our population are under twenty-one, and as there has been no increase of educational facilities, there must be more than three millions of young persons who are growing up in ignorance to fill the ranks of illiteracy." The most surprising fact is that "eight out of eleven of those who cannot read are native-born." The late slave States are not responsible for this proportion; and, furthermore, "nearly all the States return more illiterate females than males." The writer concludes that "intemperance is directly chargeable with the great bulk of illiteracy among the native white population"—a conclusion seemingly not unfair. Among the larger contributions are the next to the last instalment of the "New Hyperion," crisp, clear, and amusing; sections of the two English serials, "Malcolm" and "Three Feathers"; an illustrated paper on Mentone; some recollections of Charles Lever, by T. Adolphus Trollope; and a review of Lord Lytton's Parliamentary life, by his son. Mr. Trollope made the acquaintance of Lever in Florence, in the days of the Grand-Duchy, and gives a description of his rollicking character which will please the lover of his books, as it is exactly such a one as they must have been led to expect—convivial, amiable, reckless, fond of adventure of the wildest kinds, particularly of sailing out to sea in extremely dirty and dangerous weather with his daughter Julia, who liked the sport quite as well as her father, extremely fond of cards, but so full of animal spirits that Mr. Trollope declares he has been seen to jump up from the whist-table while some sedater player was dealing, take possession of somebody's partner for a "turn," whirl her round the room, and take his seat again as the trump-card was turned up. Are there such spirits nowadays? Lord Lytton's account of his father is interesting as throwing some new light on a very remarkable career, and brings out strongly what we may be sure never occurred to Thackeray when he was lampooning "Bulwig," the deep-seated political sense which underlay all Bulwer's writing. In some of his books, as for instance 'Kenelm Chillingly' and the 'Parisians,' the politics and political characters are much the best part of the contents, and incline one now to forgive a good deal of theatrical sentiment which to the leader of the crusade against Snobdom could never be pardoned.

Old and New opens with editorial disquisition upon the defects of college instruction, and the disinclination of governing bodies of our colleges and universities to make public their discussion of methods and the reasons for changes adopted by them. This is followed by an address delivered by Mr. Hale before the graduating classes of Vassar and Cornell. At the end of the magazine is a college directory, giving the names of all instructors in all our colleges. This number contains also an interesting paper on the "Protestant Theory of Authority," by Dr. Martineau.

Harper's Magazine, this month, does not warrant a detailed notice, though full of reading-matter well adapted to a large and various audience. It contains the first part of an article on St. Augustine, Florida, bearing the title of the Ancient City. The transit of Venus gives occasion to an article rather more technical than that in *Scribner*; and Mr. Curtis, as usual, discourses pleasantly from his Easy Chair—this time on English intellectual independence, the discussion of a national university in this country, the significance of Tyndall's address, and other topics.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

III.

'MOONFOLK' is a handsome, good-sized, well-printed book, the design on the cover of which is almost a sufficient explanation of the design of the story. Little Rhoda, wishing to go to the place where fairy stories are true, is taken there by her friend the Chimney-Elf. This enchanted spot is the moon, and the way to get there is along the "moonglade," or bright path made across the water by the full moon when it rests on the horizon. In the moon Rhoda meets all her heroes and heroines, beginning with those chronicled in 'Mother Goose'; next, Sindbad, Aladdin, and a few more from the Arabian Nights; Cinderella, Rumpelstiltskins, Jack the Giant-Killer, and others from the old, stock fairy-tales; then the Pegottys and Little Em'ly, Paul Dombey and Little Nell; and, lastly, the Arthurian characters, whose doings occupy nearly a third of the book. It will be seen that the range of reading here presupposed is pretty wide, though perhaps not too wide to belong to precocious little dreamers, such as Rhoda is represented to be. A certain amount of pleasure could probably be got out of the book by a child to whom the characters were previously unknown, but the unexplained allusions would be rather tantalizing, and the flood of questions put to the nearest adult probably overwhelming. Mrs. Austin seems to be indebted to the 'Alice' books for the idea of making the old stories act themselves over and over again for ever in some magic place, as well as for the demeanor of Rhoda under trying circumstances, the style of conversation of the "creatures," etc., etc. There is the Man in the Moon always nibbling a piece of green cheese, while the Man in the South sits near hacking away at a dish of frozen porridge:

"'Oh my! oh!' groaned the Man from the South, dropping the knife into the bowl of porridge, and clapping both hands over his mouth. 'What's the matter? Burnt it again?' asked the Man in the Moon, staring at him."

'Tweedledum and Tweedledee' was very happily reproduced in somewhat this fashion, but the witty author of 'Alice' himself could not have served up the whole of 'Mother Goose' without the feast's soon becoming a dreariness and a surfeit. When Mrs. Austin gets into the older stories, and does not adhere so closely to the legend, there is rather more to interest; but even here her paraphrasing and combining of the different tales cannot be called successful. The children will probably prefer to adore Cinderella as a young woman of manifold perfections, who justly married the Prince and lived happy ever after, rather than to see her, by Mrs. Austin's analytic fault-finding, reduced to the level of a mere human being. The seventy pages relating to "Launcelot du Lac" and the other Round Table worthies show Mrs. Austin's skill in dealing with all the regulation "properties" of that era. She makes a most dazzling day-dream out of tourneys, lords and ladies, rescues, feasts, pageants, devoted knights, love and beauty, etc.—a dream just such as romantic little girls like Rhoda invent for themselves, only a thousand times more clever. Rhoda is in it all; Sir Launcelot makes *her* Queen of Love and Beauty at the tournament, leaving Guinevere to writhe with jealousy; Sir Percivale is her knight; Isolde and Ermengarde envy her; the king praises her. In every situation her behavior is grave, modest, childlike; Mrs. Austin arranges it so that she can have all these triumphs and premature tastes of the grand passion without being obliged to repent the sins of vanity or sentimentality—common compunctions with conscientious little romancers who have to invent their own plots. Rhoda's last journey is to the fairy godmother's "spectacle factory," where are manufactured spectacles "which have the faculty of making everything seen through them look just as the person looking wishes to see it." The "pay" for a pair of these spectacles is mostly "in common sense." The fairy then informs Rhoda that she has worn a pair without knowing it all her life. "And what have I given for them?" asked Rhoda,

* 'Moonfolk. A True Account of the Home of the Fairy Tales. By Jane G. Austin. Illustrated by W. J. Linton.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

a little terrified. . . . "Not much that was worth keeping, my dear," said the fairy godmother. . . . "Only a little of your childish gaiety, and content with common things, and a good deal of time, and some little health. I believe that is about all. I am sure the spectacles have more than paid you." We feel free to say that the price strikes us as a heavy one, although the fairy godmother probably did not overrate it. However, others, especially those with unromantic and robust little girls, may not agree with us. This is a free country, and we all have an inalienable right to eat mince-pies and candy when we want to.

It is a matter requiring more artistic judgment and dramatic instinct than any of our illustrators seem ever to have given to it, to make illustrations for the comprehension of children. Probably the cuts in the old 'New England Primer,' with all their crudeness and want of artistic training, are better fitted to interest a child than the most elaborate and excellent woodcuts on which the Tract Society prides itself. Good art for children is that which tells its story most directly, and which most resembles what children would do if they could draw. In a work like the 'Hieroglyphic Geography,' which aims solely at intelligibility, the extreme of simplicity is desirable; a true hieroglyphic has no proper connection with art, and should never be turned in an artistic form—a law which the designer of these cuts has mainly obeyed if she has not recognized it, and in most of them she (Anna A. Heermans, of the Cooper Union Engraving School) has put her images into the true child's mould, and in some of them is eminently successful. The engraver, Charlotte B. Cogswell, of the same school, has done her part with an unusual degree of sympathy with the purpose of the designer, and, taken as a whole, the book must be regarded as a decided success. Here and there the symbolisms are far-fetched and to a child untranslatable; as, for instance, in the sentence "the mountains in the northern *part*," the last word is indicated by a forehead and brows of a human face with the hair parted—a symbol which no child of ordinary human intelligence would ever hit. Again, on the same page, "an acre" is expressed by "4 sq. roods," which is not hieroglyphic at all, and is abstruse besides. There are too many of these insoluble riddles. The task set before a child should never be one which by no exercise of its wits can it perform, and there are passages of this geography which even an adult of more than average intelligence might be puzzled by indefinitely, and which no child could possibly translate without the key. Now and then the invention is weak, but when a designer is obliged to turn out a series of 600 to 800 designs for such a purpose, this was to be expected. Such cases, however, as a magnet and "ude" for "magnitude" are not admissible, as assailing sound orthography.

The history of 'Pussy Tip-Toes Family' is, as its title implies, for the smallest children. It seems almost a pity to waste such good print and cream-laid paper on such extremely infantile composition, diluted to the last degree and heavily seasoned with italics, as thus: "Oh! what a *dear* little kitten!" cried Milly. "May I hold it, Margie? Oh! I wish *we* had a kitten!" And so on for nearly 200 pages. But the pictures are mostly very good, though all familiar as having been seen in other books; and the story, though trying to parents and guardians who have to read it aloud, will probably be grateful to the majority of little trots who have mastered the primer. Its moral lessons are correct; and it is not wanting in hymns and prayers.

The children who last year read 'The Life of a Bear' will be glad to have the 'Life of an Elephant' from the same author. It is even a more entertaining book than its predecessor; first, because the subject is a richer one, and next because, if we have not forgotten, the historian has given more of the real habits and possibilities of the animal, and less of his fictitious biography. It is by exaggerating the personal feelings, family relations, and other human resemblances among the animal characters that so many animal stories are spoiled. We do not refer to the immortal fables of Æsop or La Fontaine, nor to any other story in which beasts are clothed in human gear to point a wise or a witty moral, but to the numerous tales which appear annually, and form a class by themselves, in which there will be presented the history of a household of rabbits, or squirrels, or mice, with a minute account of their sensations when their parents were slaughtered or when they fell in love. Much better than this sort of stuff do boys like an account of the real habits and manners of a creature, connected by a tolerably probable history of him as an individual, and attributing to him thoughts and feelings that he might really be supposed to entertain under certain circumstances, if he entertained any. In these respects the biographer of the Ceylon elephant, Tamil, has been fairly successful, and has given to his young readers a considerable amount of information about one of the most interesting of beasts in a lively, cleverly-invented story.

The title of 'Fantastic Stories' is a well-chosen one to describe a collection of tales of all sorts of lengths which are half fairy tales, half legend; or rather—as we suppose Herr Leander to be responsible for the invention of everything—fairy tales told in the legendary manner, with a poetic and melancholy or a grotesque vein running through them. They are thoroughly German, and the lessons they teach subtle and transcendental or quaintly satirical. Practical, matter-of-fact little folks will find themselves interested but much puzzled, like cats who look into a glass and then go behind it to investigate. The more finely attuned will be strongly moved as by poetry. Such writing is apt to impress any kind of a child more than he knows at the time, and is likely to recur to his memory in later life, when the dates of battles and boundaries of states have been forgotten, bringing with it the same sweetly painful sensations that stirred his young heart when he first read it. If the prolific Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen could compose such pieces, he would be more nearly a disciple of Hans Christian Andersen than he now thinks he is.

* 'A Hieroglyphic Geography of the United States. Part I., containing the New England States and New York.' New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1874.

'Pussy Tip-Toes Family. A Story for Our Little Girls and Boys. By Mrs. D. P. Sandford, author of the 'Rose Dale Books,' etc., etc.' New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

'The Life of an Elephant. By the author of 'The Life of a Bear.' With 24 illustrations.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

Fine Arts.

THE usual fortnight's exhibition of the Brooklyn Art Association opened on the 30th ultimo with the customary crush of a "private view." The pictures are abundant and creditable. The marked man of the season is, we should say, Mr. Frederick A. Bridgman, a pupil of Gérôme, who exhibited in this Brooklyn display a finely-wrought Cairo doorway with a donkey painted much as Decamps would have painted it; a half-length life-sized group of ladies whispering while rowing a boat (originally called "De Quoi Parlent les Jeunes Filles?"); and who sent, besides, another good Cairo scene to the contemporary exhibition of the Lotos Club. An interesting contribution, on a large scale, was the "Arch of Constantine," painted by Church, who is represented in the foreground as sitting at his task, while the subject further comprises portraits of McEntee, who threw in the background view of the Coliseum, and of Healy, who did the figures, besides Prof. Longfellow and Miss Longfellow, who are shown in the middle distance; the picture will be seen, if we have expressed plainly its mixed authorship, to be an interesting memorial work. Healy likewise represented on another canvas Lincoln and a couple of generals in conference, in that sort of monumental grouping which is such a pitfall to modern art, and results inevitably in a geometrical theorem of legs and pantaloons intersecting at hideous angles. Other native painters were F. H. De Haas, with a "Farragut's Fleet at New Orleans," S. R. Gifford, William Bradford, Constant Mayer, Lambdin, Edward Moran and his artist wife, Nicoll Irving, and Parton. The usual loans of recent French purchases, Bouguereau and the like, gave a kind of waxy veneer to the whole exposition, and the studies from the Packer and Polytechnic Institutes justified the educational character of the whole display.

—The 'Boydell Shaksperean Gallery,' reduced and re-engraved by the heliotype process, has been issued by Gebbie & Barrie, Philadelphia. Alderman Boydell's great effort for the establishment of academic art goes back to the date of 1805, when Benjamin West in England, and David and Raphael Mengs on the Continent, were severally cultivating the classical. It is the strangest history of missteps, the most curious study of national ineptitudes—one on which long essays might be written—the prosaic or practical development of the English temper which made art powerless in that country to sustain itself at the height where West pinned it up. Across the Channel, meantime, the classic ideality of David became a living power, whose influence has never yet died out. The result has been that France is filled with works of a monumental character, sometimes fatiguing and sometimes great, while England has the utmost difficulty in finding a mural artist, and goes about begging in a very plaintive manner when there is a church or a public hall to paint. We hope we shall never feel ourselves obliged to swell the ranks of West's detractors; that hour of unsuccessful pleading, when Reynolds vainly tried to persuade him to put a classical costume on the Dying Wolfe, would save him from contempt in our eyes if there were no other debts due to him. Yet the very keenness and sense shown in West on that occasion may be the reason that England has never succeeded in the academic line. Without opening up this curious speculation further than by a hint, we feel we ought to say that there is nothing in the 'Boydell Gallery' to show a great inferiority in English academics of the day to French art as exemplified by Vien and David. It is a monument of which the nation ought to be properly proud, and only accident, or want of some subtle *rapport*, or

'Fantastic Stories. By Richard Leander. Translated by Paulina B. Granville. Illustrated by M. Fraser-Tytler.' New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

inattention to the Elgin marbles, or unripeness of classical scholarship, or some such mischievous absence of the requisite good fairy, seems to have kept the smooth seed then dropped from perpetuating itself. We really think that nobody can honestly study the 'Gallery' without instruction and delight. For our own part, we are never tired of looking at the Court of Titania, in Fuseli's picture, where the attendant sprites, demurely dressed like Queen Charlotte's maids of honor, have the quaintest effect of making Shakspere seem to go waltzing off with Fanny Burney. We think, again, that the Ghost in "Hamlet" has never been better depicted than by Fuseli in that strange, Blake-like composition of his where it rises from the sea, whose waves leap around its feet, its motions followed by the curves of the immaterial and impossible armor, which flows over its limbs with the burnished accuracy of mail upon a caterpillar or larva, while its hollow eyes are wells of white flame, and the foggy air rolls into globes of electric fire. Nor is the Puck of Sir Joshua unworthy of Shakspere, with its gentle, English diablerie. In trying to rise to a height of more positive daylight dignity, the Boydell group of artists are not so successful. The heroes have a general Kemble look, usually set upon the godlike thighs of the Torso Belvedere, as in Westall's Hotspur. The labored comedy of Smirke, in Christopher Sly and Juliet's Nurse, is lacking in sympathetic quality. But tragedy and comedy both sustain successfully the comparison with what else was doing in the world at the time. Opie, the ex-coachpainter, contentedly labored away at the horrors of his Incantation of Bolingbroke, all unconscious that the other crack painter, Old Crome, was to get the suffrage of the future, while he should be forgotten. Constable, the true founder of our best landscape, perhaps, does not seem to have been approached for a contribution. It is the old official galaxy of West, and Northcote, and Romney, and Angelica Kauffman, who appear to us to have twinkled in their places with a great deal of timely dignity. We are glad to see this sturdy labor of Boydell's placed before the public in a cheap form, which, while it does not give the beauty of first proof impressions, is infinitely superior to any kind of copy-work not dependent on chemicals. The process employed by the publishers, differing from most others which have claimed our notice, is not confined to reproducing works in line. Stipple, and perhaps mezzotint, are equally adapted to its powers, and Westall's Wolsey at the Abbey, in Thew's fine stipple engraving, is copied with as much tone as Sharpe's masterpiece from West's Lear in the Storm. The present publication, in plates about seven by nine inches, reproduces one hundred out of the one hundred and seventy pictures published by Boydell in his two works of the 'Illustrated Shakspere' and the 'Gallery.'

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 8, 1874.

THE money market has shown a tendency towards higher rates; the bulk of the business on call has been done at 4 per cent., and the extreme range of rates between 3 and 5 per cent. Commercial paper has been in rather less request, and the rates have advanced a fraction. Prime names are quoted 5½ to 6½ per cent., and paper of a lower grade is quoted from 7 to 10 per cent. The bank statement on Saturday was unfavorable, and reflects the large shipments of currency to the West. The statement does not show the full extent of the loss in reserve by the banks, as it is made up on falling averages of both legal tenders and specie, the actual amount of legal tenders and specie being probably $3,000,000 more than the amount stated—$5,942,300. The following is a comparison of the averages for the past two weeks:

	Nov. 28.	Dec. 5.	Differences.
Loans	$282,285,600	$286,072,800	Inc.. $3,787,200
Specie	17,329,300	14,467,200	Dec.. 2,862,100
Legal tenders	53,301,900	50,221,700	Dec.. 3,080,200
Deposits	222,767,300	219,632,100	Dec.. 3,135,200
Circulation	24,883,600	25,012,100	Inc... 128,500

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Nov. 28.	Dec. 5.	Differences.
Specie	$17,329,300	$14,467,200	Dec.. $2,862,100
Legal tenders	53,301,900	50,221,700	Dec.. 3,080,200
Total reserve	$70,631,200	$64,688,900	Dec.. $5,942,300
Reserve required against deposits	55,691,825	54,908,025	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	14,939,375	9,158,500	Dec.. 5,158,500

The stock market closed on Saturday in rather an unsettled condition. The trouble among the directors of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company caused an uneasy feeling among the holders of the stock of that Company and a decline in its price, and it was not long before the whole market became weak and unsettled. The greatest strength during the week has been exhibited in the stock of the Western roads. St. Paul common advanced during the week 2½ per cent., Northwestern common 2 per cent., and Wabash 2½ per cent. Rock Island was also strong, the price rising 1⅝ per cent.

An active business was transacted in Government bonds, the principal buyers being the foreign bankers and the large savings institutions. Prices have been well maintained, and closed this evening as follows:

Coupon 6's, 1881	119¾	120	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1867	119½	119½
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1862	112⅝	112¾	Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1868	119¼	119⅜
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1864	114¼	114½	Coupon 5's, 10-40's	113¾	114
Coupon 6's, 5-20's, 1865, M. & N.	116⅛	116⅜	Coupon 5's, 1881	112⅝	112¾
Coupon 6's, 5-30's, 1865, J. & J.	118⅜	118⅝	U. S. Currency 6's	116¼	116½

The gold market was strong until Friday, when the announcement was made by cable that the Bank of England had commenced to gain in bullion. The price at once fell off from 112⅛ to 111½.

The following shows the course of the gold premium during the week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Nov. 30	112⅜	112⅜	112⅛	112¼
Tuesday, Dec. 1	112¼	112¼	111⅞	112
Wednesday, Dec. 2	112	112¼	111⅞	112⅛
Thursday, Dec. 3	112¼	112¼	112⅛	112⅛
Friday, Dec. 4	112⅛	112⅛	111½	111⅝
Saturday, Dec. 5	111⅝	111¾	111½	111⅝

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1874.

The Week.

THE accounts from Washington generally agree that members of Congress are taking the first step towards reforming the currency, by coming to the conclusion that there ought to be some decided financial legislation at this session of Congress, and it is believed, though we do not well know on what grounds, that there is a growing inclination to provide some scheme of resumption, preceded by a process of contraction, the inflationists to be satisfied by free banking, to which we presume there would, on a specie basis, be no objection in any quarter. The more banks the better, provided they redeem their notes in coin. Why not follow the example of the French, let us suggest, and direct the Secretary to withdraw greenbacks at a certain slow rate, until they are at par with gold? This point reached, two results would follow. There would be then no object in turning greenbacks into gold if resumption were attempted, and gold would be able to find its way into commerce, and contracts payable in coin would lose their terror for "the debtor class." In short, the public mind would be greatly soothed, and prepared for the final step. The French have done just this thing within three years of a frightful war, and, instead of its having ruined the country and beggared the debtor class, business is rapidly reviving, and the coming year is one of extraordinary promise. Kelley's 3.65 scheme still hangs in suspense, though, of course, there is no doubt about its fate. The bill and some of his own talk, such as that the taking away of the legal-tender qualities from greenbacks "would be the greatest crime since the partition of Poland," have led some people who have not known him long—Mr. Bonamy Price for one—to the conclusion that he is insane; but this is a mistake, as Mr. George Blunt testifies in the *Evening Post*. He is as sane, for all ordinary purposes, as he has ever been. That he is mentally unsound in one sense there is no doubt, but his unsoundness is not at all uncommon, and consists simply in a wild receptivity towards new schemes of social and political improvement, and a wild contempt for all facts outside the range of his own experience. We ought to add, too, that we have never met a man of the present day who advocated unlimited issues of paper-money who had not a queer look about his eye. It is undoubtedly a sign in our time of some cerebral disturbance, however slight.

The first business of importance which occupied the attention of the House of Representatives was a bill introduced on Tuesday by Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, to prohibit Senators and Members of Congress from acting as counsel or otherwise in suits or proceedings against the United States. Gen. Butler at first objected, and desired that the bill might be referred, but afterwards reconsidered the matter, explaining that he had no "personal interest" in the bill, as he "was generally on the side of the United States." The bill was then passed. This was followed by a debate on Judge Kelley's 3.65 convertible bond bill, which was begun by the Judge himself. He was followed by Gen. Butler, and the bill was opposed by Messrs. Garfield, Dawes, and Phelps. The general result of the debate was damaging to the bill, and Judge Kelley is reported as being hopeless of any measure of radical relief being passed this session. The Pacific Mail subsidy investigation has been undertaken by the Committee of Ways and Means, but nothing of importance has been discovered beyond the fact that $750,000 was paid to Irwin, the San Francisco agent, for which no account has been rendered. This Irwin was very active in the matter of the subsidy, and the money was paid in large amounts, one check being drawn for $650,000. The testimony of Mr. Russell Sage, late President of the Company, throws a good deal of curious light on the management of the Company during the subsidy period, when Mr. Stockwell was "the Board and all hands," but we must apparently wait until Irwin confesses before much is known about the subsidy in detail.

The history of the Pacific Mail subsidy is as follows: In 1865, the Postmaster-General was authorized by Congress to make a contract for the Asiatic mail service, and a contract was entered into with the Pacific Mail Company. With this old contract as a lever, the Company, in 1872, went to Congress and got another act passed, authorizing the Postmaster-General to make new terms for an "additional monthly mail service," with a proviso that the ships for this additional service should be American-built, iron, and of not less than 4,000 tons register. There was also a condition that the iron steamers should be inspected and reported to the Secretary of the Navy and the Postmaster-General before acceptance, the Government being thus amply protected. The price to be paid was $500,000 a year. At this rate the Company apparently have been drawing money ever since, though it appears from a report recently made by the Attorney-General that the Company has not had till very recently any vessels even remotely answering the description in the act. What the Postmaster-General and the Secretary of the Navy have been doing we do not know, but the Attorney-General, giving the contract a very liberal construction, has come to the conclusion that as the Company have actually furnished additional mail service of some sort, and have been building *bonâ fide* American ships of the kind required, the contract ought to be treated as still existing; and considering that it is as yet unsettled whether the contract was not obtained by fraud and corruption, the whole proceeding is, to say the least, benevolently loose, and is not calculated to impress anybody favorably with the President's plan of reviving industry by a vast system of subsidies of the same sort.

The Northern Pacific Railroad has published an explanation of the legislation it asks of Congress. The bill now pending provides for a new issue of 5 per cent. 30-year gold bonds to the amount of $50,000 a mile, the entire issue to be delivered to the Treasury, the interest of these bonds to be guaranteed by the United States, and the bonds themselves to be issued to the road—the Government taking back the old defaulted $7\frac{3}{10}$ bonds and the land-grant as well, to the amount of about 50,000,000 acres, the latter to be sold at a minimum price of $2 50 per acre as collateral security, and also retaining some of the new 5 per cent. bonds besides; creates a sinking-fund, and gives Congress the right to fix the rates of transportation, provided that such Government control shall not impair or defeat the security given by the Act. The points in favor of the bill are: 1st, That instead of being a continuance of the land-grant policy, it is a surrender of the "largest and best grant Congress ever made"; 2d, The bill breaks up the monopoly of transcontinental traffic; and, 3d, That the road does not ask for a dollar of public money, but merely "encouragement."

If the Northern Pacific road were now coming before Congress for the first time, there might be some reason for regarding an arrangement like this as advantageous to the Government; but we trust that no one is so blind as not to see what, under present circumstances, it means. It is merely a surrender of a road which private capital has found too heavy an enterprise, in return for a guarantee of interest. The Government is not asked to guarantee the principal, because once embarked in the scheme there will be no getting out. When we look at the artful clause tacked to the bill for getting the support of the Granger members of Congress and the Cheap Transportation party, it is impossible not to see that the passage of such a bill would be but the entering wedge in a

vast scheme of Government railroad aid, which would be as much worse than a land-grant policy as perpetual jobbery and corruption are worse than occasional over-liberal subsidies to important undertakings. This Northern Pacific scheme is only one of a great number which are coming before Congress this winter, and of course they all lobby together.

The recent disturbances in and about Vicksburg have been explained by a statement issued by a number of the principal men of the place, including the United States District-Attorney, the United States Commissioner, and a Republican State Senator. They say that the county officials in 1873 were nearly all negroes; that A. W. Dorsey was illegally appointed by Governor Ames to succeed T. W. Cardozo as circuit clerk, Cardozo and Dorsey being both known to be guilty of "issuing false and forged certificates"; that George W. Davenport, a negro, was elected chancery clerk, and as such was sole custodian of the public records and county seal, and on its being discovered that large amounts of "forged warrants" were in circulation, was called upon to make a report to the Board of Supervisors, but persistently failed so to do, even refusing to permit an examination of the records; that Dorsey, Davenport, and Cardozo were all indicted by the grand jury, composed of ten blacks and seven whites, and during the enquiry into the offence the books of the county treasurer and other valuable records bearing on the case were stolen, as well as other documents used in the investigation, and which had been put in charge of the sheriff—Crosby. He, being also tax-collector, had given a worthless official bond, and the Board of Supervisors refused to order a new one. In November, taxes "amounting to five per cent. of values" being due, the sheriff and tax-collector being insolvent and bondless, the Board of Supervisors having failed to take any measures against him, public records necessary to convict indicted officers having been stolen from the custody of the sheriff, and these officials being apparently banded together for mutual protection and plunder, the taxpayers demanded the resignation of the officials, and Crosby resigned and the others fled.

Thus far there had been no violence or bloodshed, but Crosby, evidently understanding Southern politics, at once went to Jackson, the State capital, and had an interview with General Ames, which resulted in a gubernatorial proclamation calling upon the taxpayers to "disperse," while at the same time Crosby issued a card denouncing the whites as ruffians and barbarians and calling the blacks to his aid. The negroes thereupon marched upon the city and were very quickly driven off, with fifty or a hundred killed and wounded. The city is now quiet, and all accounts agree that there is no fear of any further outbreak. But the carpet-baggers are by no means satisfied with this state of things. Ames has called an extra session of the legislature "to discuss the questions arising out of the Vicksburg troubles," as one correspondent says, and it is generally expected that they will discuss them in very much the way that a mass-meeting of citizens might discuss the questions arising out of a difficulty between two fire-companies. It only needs a split in the legislature to ensure interference and troops from Washington, and the beautiful spectacle of self-government would then be complete. The most encouraging thing about this Vicksburg business is the extremely temperate and restrained tone adopted by the whites, the language used in their appeals to the public offering (as at New Orleans) a refreshing contrast to the wild declamation and turgid bombast which we are accustomed to meet with in political papers.

We made, in the *Nation* of November 26, on what proves to have been imperfect information, some strictures on Mr. E. P. Smith, the present Indian Commissioner, in which we described him as having recently fallen very much in the opinion of the true friends of the Indian. We have since satisfied ourselves, both by our own enquiries and the testimony of his friends, that our remarks did him great injustice, and that what we said of the distrust of him entertained by the best friends of the Indians was exaggeration at least, and was only true, if true at all, of one or two of those who come under that category, and with these his differences are of long standing. It is right to add that we have never seen stronger expressions of confidence in a man's honor and integrity than have been called out by our remarks, that they have come from persons in whose judgment we have implicit reliance, and that he himself has made no complaint.

The most interesting incident of the week has been the appearance of the Great Scandal before the Courts. First came Miss Proctor's suit against Moulton. There was, as we pointed out some time ago, no defence to this, and accordingly the Beecher side were very anxious to get it tried before Tilton's suit against Beecher, for the sake of the discredit it would bring on the Mutual Friend. The Tilton side were, for similar reasons, very anxious to have it postponed, and for postponement, accordingly, Moulton's lawyers fought desperately. Relying on a technical error of the most trifling kind in the complaint, they appeared when the case was called and asked for its dismissal. Failing to obtain this, they asked for delay, on the ground that they expected to obtain the dismissal, and therefore had made no preparation for trial, and pretended that there were witnesses on whom they relied and whom they could produce if they got time. Finding the Court inexorable, however, they surrendered, and retracted and apologized, and agreed to pay all costs and expenses before a referee, Ben Butler appearing, as was fitting, to make Moulton's amende. We think the feeling of the public will be one of sincere regret if Moulton should get off so easily. The case called, if ever case called, for some form of corporal punishment over and above a mere pecuniary fine. Not only had he printed, in defiance of warning and explanation, a most disgusting libel on Miss Proctor, for the purpose of bringing discredit on Beecher, but he had done so without the poor excuse that Miss Proctor was in some way connected with the Tilton-Beecher controversy, which she was not in the remotest degree. To guide him in this delicate business, he had chosen one of the most disreputable lawyers in the country, and had acted under his advice, and when the case came to trial, after he had had months for reflection, far from apologizing and repenting, he quibbled and argued and pretended that all he needed to make good his beastly imputation was time, and only begged for mercy when his last chance of escape was gone, and then produced an old pettifogger without character or sense of decency to make the necessary verbal atonement. The criminal indictment is still hanging over him, however. If Miss Proctor lets him go on that, she will be guilty of a great wrong against society, admirable as has been her course with regard to the civil suit.

There has been much discussion for several days about "the bill of particulars" which the Court below refused, on the ground of inability, but which the Court of Appeals decided that the judge might grant if he pleased, and which he has granted accordingly, giving the Beecher side, however, somewhat less than they asked for; and against his decision Tilton has again appealed. As we consider the great object of this suit, as far as Beecher and the public are concerned, to be the vindication of his character, and the pecuniary result—the damages are laid, we believe, at $100,000—to be a matter of small if of any importance, we shall not be restrained, by the fact that the case is still pending, from giving some reasons for thinking that the victories of his lawyers about "the particulars" are not real victories for him, but checks, and we believe that we only express the opinion of the great majority of thinking people. The action which Tilton has brought is a proceeding which has long been considered the disgrace of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence—inasmuch as it is based on the theory that a man can be compensated for his wife's infidelity by a round sum in money; accordingly, the law looks at the injury as it would at the loss of a horse, or the burning of a barn, or the breach of a contract to sell flour at a certain price. But as it is an injury which has,

from its very nature, to be proved by circumstantial evidence, or is, in other words, inferred rather than witnessed, it is one of which it is easy to accuse a man, and against which it is difficult for him to defend himself. Ordinarily, therefore, it is but right and safe that when it is laid at any man's door he shall be informed when and where it was committed, with such minuteness that it shall be easy for him, if innocent, to show at least the improbability of the charge. The law means, in short, that money shall not be got out of him lightly by pursuit of this description, and any defendant who is thinking only of his purse does well to ask for the "bill" before the trial, and tie the plaintiff down to it as closely as he can on the trial.

But Mr. Beecher, we take it, is not thinking of his purse at all, but of his fair fame, and of the welfare of various things more important with which his fair fame is bound up. This being the case, a man with whom he has been for many years on terms of intimacy and intercourse, at whose house he has been a constant visitor—not, be it remembered, a chance acquaintance, or an unknown assailant or blackmailer—comes and says, "I am led to believe by letters of yours and by letters of my wife's, by her confession to me and to other persons whom I shall produce, by your avowal to me and to other persons whom I shall produce, and by various suspicious circumstances which I shall prove, that your relations with her have been criminal, and I ask you to meet the charge in open court." Now, a man who cared nothing for his character, and wanted to save his money, would reply to this: "You may have the witnesses and documents which you mention, and you may be able to prove many suspicious facts about my relations with your wife, of whom it is true I have long been an intimate friend, and whom I have been in the habit of seeing almost daily for years at my house or yours; but I shall nevertheless not reply to your charges, or take any notice of them, and shall endeavor to get you turned out of court, unless you will name the exact day and the place in which you think I committed adultery. If you will select some day for the commission of the offence, I will cheerfully answer you, but if I should succeed in proving an alibi, will set you at defiance, and will treat all your witnesses and proofs as of no account, and will maintain before all the world that, as I did not seduce your wife on the day you yourself pointed out, I could not have done so on any other day, in spite of my frequent enjoyment of her society; and in that way you will be brought to shame and confusion." Surely this is not an answer for a minister to make, or to allow a paid lawyer, whose main duty is to get for him the full benefit of the legal procedure, to make for him.

The *Tribune* recently called attention to the fact that the late Mr. Greeley had subscribed to the stock and bonds of the Northern Pacific Railroad, but had paid up in full and in hard cash, although he supported the railroad in his paper, unlike some of his contemporaries, who took their stock and bonds and agreed to give the scheme their editorial support, and then, on being found out, declared falsely that they never gave it, thus piling one sin on top of another. We happen to have seen a transcript of Mr. Greeley's account, and find that the *Tribune's* statements about it are correct. Nevertheless, even to this arrangement some moralists might take exception. It is very doubtful, indeed, whether it is allowable in an editor to promote in his columns a financial venture in which he has himself a personal interest and without letting his reader know that he has it. But then it must be admitted that when Mr. Greeley began his career as a journalist, the judicial position of the newspaper was much less firmly established than it is now. To the old editor his paper was a machine for promoting certain ends which he thought desirable—some political, some commercial—and he pushed them as a lawyer pushes the interests of his client, making no secret of his advocacy. Under this theory, an editor was the better of a little stock in a new road or other scheme, as it quickened his zeal in its support. Mr. Greeley, however, was more likely to back his opinion with his money than to back his money with his opinion.

The recently published instructions of Mr. Fish, given to General Cushing in February last, show that the attitude of the Government on the Cuban question has undergone no material change. Mr. Fish reminds Mr. Cushing that it has long been seen that Cuba must, sooner or later, become one of the family of American Republics, with political forms and a public policy dictated by her own aims and interests; that "the desire of independence on the part of the Cubans is a natural and legitimate aspiration," as being Americans; and that "while such independence is the manifest exigency of the political interests of the Cubans themselves, it is equally so that of the rest of America, including the United States." That "the ultimate issue of events in Cuba will be its independence, however that issue may be produced, whether by means of negotiation or as the result of military operations, or of one of those unexpected events which so frequently determine the fate of nations," it is impossible, Mr. Fish continues, to doubt; he assures Mr. Cushing that the President is not an annexationist; that he will preserve our neutrality; that the policy of the United States with reference to Cuba is for the present one of "expectancy," but "with positive and fixed convictions as to the duty of the United States when the time or emergency of action shall arise."

Mr. Forster, the President of the Council under the Gladstone Ministry, the author of the Education Act, and perhaps the most effective and constant advocate of the North during the war, and who has been considered the probable successor of Mr. Gladstone in the Liberal party, has been travelling for some months in this country, and on Monday night delivered an address at a reception given him by the Union League Club in this city. He is an orator of the school of which Cobden was the best specimen—and which since his time has become the fashion among English politicians—that is, a plain talker who attempts nothing which a man may not appropriately say with his hands in his pockets. Speeches of this kind are by no means striking rhetorically, but they are wonderfully *effective*, in the ordinary sense of the word, and for purposes of simple persuasion can hardly be surpassed, and the emotions they rouse do not pass away when the hearer leaves the room. In this vein Mr. Forster is very successful, though the line he chose was perhaps not that best calculated to bring out his powers. He spoke mainly of his own experiences at the South, and urged the union and sympathy of all English-speaking peoples in the service of progress. It was all very good and telling, but we imagine the audience would not have been sorry to hear him a little more fully on his political experience at home. He gave one hit at the Pope, apropos of education, and dwelt strongly on what is the great lesson of all politics, the necessity of "individual self control," to make a successful and happy state.

The controversy over Gladstone's pamphlet has been raging fiercely in the columns of the English press, but curiously enough the combatants are almost altogether Catholics, and the London *Times* offers them, as might be expected, the largest hospitality. As far as producing general agreement on matters of doctrine and discipline is concerned, the promulgation of the dogma of infallibility has not, if we may judge from the present debate, done a particle of good. There appears to be the widest diversity of opinion still, both as to the validity of the dogma and its effect if valid. Mr. Archer Shee, a Catholic barrister of repute, maintains, and not unsuccessfully, against Mr. Johnson, Archbishop Manning's secretary, that the so-called Decrees of the Council of the Vatican were not the Decrees of the Council at all, but of the Pope, the Council only approving, and were not adopted and promulgated in proper form. There is also great dispute as to whether the Pope was infallible before the Council or not—the Ultramontane party maintaining that he was, and that the Council only recognized an existing fact; the others maintaining that he was not, and citing pamphlets, declarations, and catechisms of English and Irish Catholic Prelates, prior to Catholic Emancipation, however, and of eminent theologians in various ages, totally repudiating his pretensions in this particular.

THE BEST REMEDY AGAINST INFLATION.

IT is now nearly fifteen years—that is to say, nearly half of a generation—since gold and silver coin ceased to be the ordinary daily money of the country. Middle-aged men remember how coin passed current, and still look upon "legal-tenders" as a temporary expedient which will come to an end in a year or two, if not to-morrow. But of men below thirty, amounting to about one-third of the voters of the country, substantially all have never handled gold and silver as money. On the contrary, they have grown up, instructed by the observation of every day and hour, to believe that the paper notes of the United States constitute the only money wherewith the American citizen can pay his debts or grow rich. To be added to these young citizens are about a million of the freedmen, in whose minds the paper-money of the North is associated with freedom and their civil rights. Besides these two classes are several hundred thousand of immigrants, who have found in the new country that Treasury notes are the only medium of exchange, buying all that gold and silver buy in other lands, and forming or appearing to form an integral portion of American institutions. Taking all of these classes together, we have, or in a very few years shall have, as a majority of our voting population, persons who have had no experience of money in this country except in the form of paper, and who know of the precious metals as money only from the traditions of others or the teachings of newspapers. It is therefore apparent that time and "letting well enough alone" are slowly or rapidly (as people prefer to think) drifting us away from the point where resumption appeared to the masses as a necessity or as a matter of course. People who have been trained by all their little personal experience to regard coin as an exotic, will not be ready pupils in learning to esteem it as a necessity. On the contrary, such persons are only too ready to be taught by Messrs. Morton and Ferry that the Government can make money out of paper, and that printed promises to pay which have lasted in a broken condition through all of the holders' business lives, may live on unperformed *ad infinitum*. From such experiences and teachings it is but a step to the logical conclusion, that if the Government can make money out of paper at all, it may just as well, while it is about it, make money cheap and plenty.

But while there has been this drifting of the masses, there has at the same time been going on a better education of the reading and thinking portion of the people, and a clearer and stronger discussion of the principles of finance in business circles. It is not to be supposed that our intelligent classes will ever fall into the barbarism of believing that paper is money, or that broken promises rank as high in the commercial world as good faith. The business community has grown rapidly in a clearer perception of the evils of our present system and of the necessity of returning to the only standard of value known to the world at large. Unfortunately, the business community is but a minority in the voting community, and takes a smaller part and exercises a less influence in politics than its numbers entitle it to exercise. Unfortunately, also, it has unconsciously fallen into the error for a long time of setting a premium on inflation by lending the nominal dollar, when it was worth say eighty cents, with full permission to the borrower to repay it if he can when it gets to be worth but sixty. As a policy, this has been suicidal, and the best lesson that can be taught to the masses, and the best remedy that can be devised against inflation, and the only lever that can be brought to force the country into resumption, is to bring this policy absolutely to an end.

We have before this shown to our readers (*Nation*, No. 476) that there are two kinds of lawful money in this country; that the men who accumulate wealth by industry—the capitalists, and business portion of the community—have the right to buy and sell, to lend and trade, in whichever kind they prefer—in gold and silver, or in the protested paper of the Government; that loans payable in gold can be enforced and collected in gold; and that the Supreme Court of the United States has unanimously settled the matter, which has now become an unquestioned right. Whenever this right is decisively exercised—not in the daily hand-to-hand affairs of life, where it would be found inconvenient and ineffective, and where the law that the poorer money will drive out the better holds true, but in all "time transactions," whenever a loan is made or a credit given—then the premium will be shifted from inflation to resumption, and the game which our demagogues now find it easy to play will become a losing one. So long as men accumulate money by work and thrift, and lend it to men who, when they borrow it, expect with the aid of Congress to return but half of it, just so long we are helping, and in fact bargaining to perpetuate, the present evils. So long, too, as the business world goes on ignoring the coin in which it may, if it pleases, exclusively trade, just so long it is teaching the less-informed portion of the people that gold and silver need not exist. Mr. Ferry and Mr. Morton have been preaching so long that Congress can do what it pleases with the money of the country, that half the community really begin to believe that there is no other money than this which Congress puts up or down at pleasure. Is it not time for our chambers of commerce and boards of trade to begin to assert that the accumulating industry of the country has, in fact, the power to force resumption, just as the people of California forced a gold circulation, and that if resumption is thus forced it will be largely at the cost of those borrowing and speculating classes who are now clamoring for inflation? As to the necessity or advisability of this action by the representatives of trade and commerce, let us look squarely at the situation.

The indications are strong that the inflationists will be numerically stronger in the next Congress. Their gains will not be alarmingly great, nor sufficient to enable them to do anything worse than keep up the mischief which was a notable characteristic of the last session. On the one hand, we shall have, in all likelihood, a Congress not able to pass anything over the Executive veto, but able to beat around the bush with endless devices like the measure (the only measure, we believe) associated with the name of Mr. Dawes, and also able to act negatively by refusing to go forward towards resumption; on the other hand, we already have the positive assurance of the President that he will remain immovable in the position which he has all along occupied. The country, as a political whole, will remain in the valley of indecision; Congress will not allow it to go forward towards resumption, the President will not allow it to go backward towards inflation. Men, as individuals, have made up their minds here and there, though not universally, but the aggregated decision of the people is unknown. Furthermore, the party lines have not been drawn with regard to this question, and each party is in the same condition of uncertainty which characterizes the body politic. The more quiet leaders are doubtless cursing in their hearts a question that brings dissension into their own ranks and awakens harrowing doubts as to which may prove the stronger side—or, in other words, which leap may be the best to take. It is in such times as the present that the difference between the party leader and the real statesman becomes plain. The former is now endeavoring to postpone discussion and suffer events to shape a party policy; the latter would seize upon such an interval to instruct and mould the public mind. If Mr. Webster were with us, we can readily fancy how much he would do in the course of the next two years to bring the country to a wise decision. In the absence of such men—men whose utterances are imbued with great power and listened to with profound reverence—it behooves every man who appreciates the importance of this interlude and the far-reaching consequences that lie beyond it, to do something, knowing well, as every one must know, that he has no one person in the field to whom he can confide the whole responsibility of the impending battle. The raid of Messrs. Kelley and Butler, undertaken at the opening of Congress in the face of the veto of last winter and with the sound of the President's message still in their ears, shows how little hope there is of their being deterred from attempting and reattempting to carry out their schemes. Mr. Cox, when in reply he deprecated an agitation of the subject in Congress because it would disturb and alarm the business part of the community, uttered what in ordinary times would be excellent and truthful counsel.

But at this time the business community knows two things perfectly well: First, that though inflationists may re-enact all the follies of the past session, they cannot carry any substantial evil over the veto of the President; second, that though Congress follows Mr. Cox's advice to the letter, nevertheless the trouble is not at an end, and a day is approaching when it will come up and a decisive battle take the place, in all probability, of the present drawn one. That time will be when the next general election in 1876 enables the majority of the people to choose a Congress and a President who will no longer disagree on the only great political issue of the day.

In the brief interval which now remains of little over a year for men to make up their minds as to the course which the Government of the future shall pursue, the indications are not altogether hopeful. Such men as Morton and Butler will continue to do their utmost to mislead the ignorant and lead the unprincipled. The trivial accessions to their side in Congress will be magnified and used to draw doubting politicians to the conclusion that "expansion" will be the winning card in the game of parties. The speculative and gambling classes, who do not live by real industry, but who hope to grow rich by the nominal rise in prices, as a few men grew rich in the lucky days of the war, will be earnest supporters of any scheme that will help their own fortunes. Such men indeed look back upon the rebellion as one of the happiest times the country ever saw, and if Messrs. Morton and Butler were to try getting up a gigantic war to make money plentiful, they would have a considerable following ready to aver that war is a great national and financial blessing, and able to prove it by precisely the same facts with which they now prove inflation to be beneficial. Delusions, too, of this character have reigned for a time in almost every people; and when the delusion of being able to make something out of nothing by legislation has obtained a foothold among a people, the disasters of experience generally have been required to eradicate it.

If, through the inaction of the business world, inflation should be forced upon this country in 1878, which is the earliest time at which it can be put in motion, three results would probably follow. First, the increase of currency would be speedily absorbed by augmented values, and the interval of transition would be much briefer than in 1862 (when people foolishly clung to the old idea that a dollar is a dollar), and money would become consequently as scarce as it was before. Second, this would be followed by plans of further inflation, at which the business community would be aroused into doing what can be done much more easily now. The only credits would be gold credits, the only loans gold loans, the only bank discounts those of gold notes. Third, the labor of resumption would be incomparably harder than at present; the difference between gold and paper much greater; and the increased quantity of paper to be redeemed a serious loss to the Government.

"ORGANS."

THE untimely decease of the *Republic*, the paper which was set up some months ago to express in a semi-official way the views of the Administration and its immediate adherents on public questions, has a good deal that is tragic about it, as far as its principal conductor is concerned. That a man of as much experience of politics and of newspapers as Mr. Norvell the editor had, should have supposed it possible to start a daily morning paper in this city at a time when a successful daily is worth millions, and when there are four already in possession of the field, without any other claims on popular attention than its being the mouthpiece of the leading politicians of the party in power, and with a capital which in his dreams only reached $500,000, and in fact only $40,000, is a curious though sad illustration of the power of the press over the imagination even of persons long familiar with it. The failure of the enterprise, however distressing in some of its aspects, is valuable as establishing more conspicuously and firmly than ever two facts of considerable importance in relation to journalism. One is, that when politicians so deeply desire an organ as to be willing to set one up for the exclusive use of the party, it is a sure sign that the party is in serious danger of extinction. The other is, that the public mind is so fully made up that the position of a newspaper ought to be a judicial one, that all attempts to make a paper avowedly partisan can only be saved from commercial failure by large capital, extraordinary ability, and well-established prestige.

"Organs" took their rise when the sole use of a newspaper was to communicate intelligence, and when men in power found it convenient to have a channel through which they could let out certain things which they wished to be spread abroad. Out of this kind of relation to the government a small paper, which did not object to the humble rôle of a sort of official gazette, from which the earlier newspapers indeed differed but little, could of course always get a livelihood and perhaps a little of the dignity which comes from having or being supposed to have state secrets to keep. But the gradual addition to the "news-letter" of the sermon known as a "leader" or "editorial article," made the relation more and more difficult and finally impossible. The more pompous, portentous, and prophetic in their character the editor's comments on public affairs became, the less disposed was the public to allow him to retain the position of a paid agent of the state. It began to feel towards him as it would have felt towards the town-crier if he had put on a gown and bands, and insisted on accompanying his announcement of thefts and losses with homilies on the vanity of life and the right use of opportunities. The editor had, in short, to conduct his business in a manner befitting his newly-assumed duties as a prophet, and to pretend at least that his utterances were wholly independent and were due simply to a desire for the public good, as a prophet's ought to be. It is now very rare indeed that a Government is able to induce a well-established newspaper of the first class to act as its organ in the proper sense of that term, except by working on the vanity of editors. Almost all editors are a little sensitive about the imputation of being mere commentators or critics, and a little desirous of being thought "practical men" by those engaged in the actual working of political machinery. The "old editor" in this country in fact preferred to be thought a working politician, and liked to use his paper as a piece of political machinery for producing solid party gains, and in this way to be received into the circle of "workers" and "managers" as one of themselves; and to retain this position he was always willing to "write up" any view they suggested. His successor, though he cares less about being "a worker," and is able to secure the attendance of politicians at his office without running after them, is nevertheless more or less flattered by the confidences of men in power, and it often takes only a small amount of these confidences to make him surrender the judicial position and accept that of an advocate, and stand by them through thick and thin. But no leading journal has ever tried this position in our day very long without being forced out of it by the demand of the public for impartiality, and the consequent difficulty of avoiding giving offence in official quarters. Every Administration does things either through its chief or subordinates which will not bear defence, and which its judicious friends prefer to pass over in silence. But a journalist cannot keep silent. The Government may require him to hold his tongue, but the reader demands that he shall speak; and as the public supplies the sinews of war, and pays for the prophet's robes, he is sooner or later compelled to break with the Government, and to reproach it for not listening to the advice of its friends in time. It was indeed a conspicuous and somewhat ludicrous catastrophe of this sort which led to the establishment of the unfortunate *Republic*.

Moreover, in a country in which the press is free and newspapers abound, a party which contains a majority of the people cannot fail to have the support of a large and influential portion of the press. Its conductors, though prophets, do not wear camel's hair, nor is their diet locusts and wild honey. They form part of the community, live among the voters, and share, to a greater or less extent, their prejudices and expectations and sympathies. Every party, therefore, is sure, as long as it has a strong hold on the public, of having a strong hold on the press, and of having a con-

siderable number of the most influential editors among its defenders. One of the sure signs that it is losing its hold on the public is the defection of the press or its growing lukewarmness. Newspapers cannot, perhaps, build a party up or pull one down, but when you see the newspapers deserting a party it is all but proof that the causes which dissolve a political organization are at work. The successful editors may have no originating power or no organizing power, and no capacity for legislation, and they may even want the prophetic instinct; but a certain intuitive sense of the direction in which the tide of popular feeling is running is the principal condition of their success, and an anxious politician may therefore always safely credit them with possessing it. If they had not had it, their papers would not have succeeded.

We pointed out in these columns in April, 1873, that the Republican party was losing the support of the press; that the principal papers which had supported the party were either abandoning it or finding fault with it; and that one at least of the prominent politicians of the party, Mr. Schofield of Pennsylvania, had openly declared his opinion that this fact was the forerunner of defeat—that no party could stand long against the hostility or indifference of the daily press. Now, he may have attributed more influence to the daily press than it deserved, but he could not have overestimated its value as an indicator. The persons who manage the party in Washington, however, could not be got to see this. They were even so besotted as to fancy that the hostility of the press was the result of sheer malevolence on the part of the conductors, and that a little wholesome restraint in the way of coercive or minatory legislation might be profitably applied to them, and they bethought them of supplementing this by setting up openly an organ in New York to defend them and the party, and to supply enough "outrages" from the South to enable them to avoid legislation on all the more important problems of the day. The open establishment of an organ is, indeed, almost the sure sign that the work of disorganization is far gone and that public support is falling off. It is an almost invariable accompaniment of the last days of a party, and is apt to hasten its end. The *Republic*, as everybody knows, injured its employers from the first day, both by its principles and its practice, and its disappearance will of course be universally taken as a sign that the case is hopeless. The setting up of an organ is a grave symptom; the death of the organ for want of funds indicates, it is generally held, a fatal turn in the disease and the complete failure of remedial science.

If the incident or its lessons should result in establishing better relations between political men and the press, the sacrifice of the unfortunate projector of the *Republic* will, however, be a very small price to pay for a great gain. We do not, as our readers know, set up to be champions of the press, and have certainly never shown any disposition to underrate its defects or shortcomings. But there is one thing which no candid and careful observer can avoid seeing, and that is that the press of the country, as an instrument of discussion and popular education, has undergone within twenty years an improvement nothing analogous to which is to be found in the class of politicians. The newspapers are now, in the vast majority of cases in all our leading cities, conducted by men who are familiar with the leading ideas of our time and with the latest advances in science and the arts, including the art of government, and who write under the influence of these ideas and these advances, and who have consequently got a standard of efficiency in legislative administration which has not yet made its way into the political class. The result is that, after making all possible allowance for the carelessness and recklessness and dishonesty of reporters, and the personal biases and enmities of editors, the men who carry on the Government, excepting a few experts, have become objects of criticism on the part of the daily press, the deprecatory and contemptuous tone of which is not wholly unjustifiable or unnatural, and politicians repay this contempt with a hatred which is none the less fierce for having no adequate means of expression. The Republican party is suffering just now more than parties have ever had to suffer from a similar agency, because it has failed in two things on which newspaper critics are, in common with educated men all over the world, tolerably well informed—and that is the reform of the currency and of the civil service. Such a currency and such an administrative machine as we have, and such attempts to mend them as we have recently witnessed, are just the things to excite the scorn of "men of the closet," and the Washington statesmen have been made to feel it bitterly. They might have met it successfully if their morality was higher; but the less said the better about morality by men whose principal leader has been begging an American constituency to send a man like Butler to the national legislature. The best consolation we can offer them is by saying that we know of no case in late years in which a man properly equipped for the work of legislation by attainments and character, and who has pursued the public good honestly, and without reference to party or personal interests, has not had the support and approval of the newspapers; and, at the risk of seeming invidious, we shall mention as an illustration the rise of Mr. Schurz during the last six years, through much obloquy, several mistakes, and many unfavorable conditions, into a position in the confidence of the best portion of the community such as no other public man, with so few adventitious aids, can be said to enjoy. He has, nevertheless, had a good deal of newspaper abuse to encounter, but it did not hinder him, while a good deal of honest newspaper applause has helped him and will help him, and will help every man like him who offers the community enlightened service.

BISMARCK AND HIS ADVERSARIES.

BERLIN, November 19, 1874.

THE meeting of the Reichstag has pushed the Arnim affair somewhat into the background. About the real merits of the case the public does not know any more now than it did in the first days. Nevertheless, public opinion is pretty much made up as to the main question of practical political interest. The papers more or less hostile to Bismarck have tried to persuade the public that, in case the Chancellor is not sustained by the court, a great crisis culminating in his overthrow is inevitable. The public, however, have very decidedly refused to see this affair blown up to an importance it evidently does not have by its own merits. We have still a right to say, "There are judges in Prussia." If Bismarck's proceedings against his ex-ambassador are not justified, the court will so decide, and the people will accept the judgment, regretting that the Chancellor has suffered himself to be carried away by his rash and irritable temper; and that will be the end of it. Happily, the times are past when the mere fact that it is a count and an ex-ambassador who has been arrested and drawn before the court, could have been made a cause of impeachment of the man who has dared to strike such a heavy blow against the old adage, "Small thieves are hanged, big ones are let run." Even a Vienna paper severely lectures those of its contemporaries which have ventured to wink at an assault of this kind against Bismarck. On the other hand, if the court decides for Arnim, and if it should appear that the proceedings against him have been based on frivolous pretexts, the public would not consider it a *slight* offence, nor would they be very much astonished to find Bismarck guilty of it, for they know well enough how intolerant he is of any opinion differing from his own; as long as he is at the helm, we must expect to hear every now and then his *quos ego*, sometimes to the detriment of the public welfare, and always offending our attachment to a constitutional form of government. Yet in general one would be disposed to judge him leniently. We have suffered too long and too severely from the lack of one strong and paramount will not to submit with good grace now to the rather too large dose of this blessing. It is unjust, and proves a superficial view of the case, to attribute that entirely or principally to the conquering power of success. After the attempt on his life in Kissingen, Bismarck said to the party serenading him in the evening that the work to which all his faculties were devoted could not be destroyed by the pistol of an assassin. We fervently trust so, but we are not so blindfolded as not to see the dangers threatening it on all sides; and we have learned enough in these last eight years not to forsake too easily the man without whom the ravens would still be croaking around the Kyffhäuser, telling the awakening Barbarossa to sleep on another hundred years, and then ask again whether it was time to rise and to build anew the German empire.

You remember Henry Clay, when taken to task by his angry constituents about some measure supported by him and disapproved by them, asking an old marksman and friend of his whether his gun had never snapped; and then, being answered in the affirmative, putting the further question whether

he had then broken it and thrown it into the bush, or whether he had tried it again? Now, if the marksman was right in trying Henry Clay again, though he had reason for once to be dissatisfied with him, will the Germans not be right in trying Bismarck again though it appear that he has wronged Count Arnim? And there is no doubt that, in this question, the Emperor will think as the great majority of people do. Whether it is true that the missing despatches are only used as a pretext by Bismarck to take revenge on and rid himself of a rival, is as yet impossible to tell. Likely it certainly is not, though it is probable that Arnim has been intriguing against Bismarck with a view to supplant him. But there is no reason to suppose that Bismarck considers his own position so weak as to be tempted to defend himself and to take revenge in such a manner. Arnim undoubtedly deems himself by far the superior of the Chancellor, but thus far neither the Emperor nor the people seem at all disposed to be of the same opinion. Even if it be acknowledged that Bismarck would have done well to follow the advice given by Arnim during the Œcumenical Council—which, however, is a very debatable question—that would not prove that it would be wise to replace Bismarck by Arnim. Bismarck's value we know, and we deem ourselves justified in being rather satisfied with him, though we have to put up with a good many things. Arnim we know thus far only as a highly-gifted and dexterous diplomatist, the value of whose services is, however, greatly impaired by his inclination to intrigue "on his own hook" where he ought to obey orders; he dares to play an independent part where he has no right to do so; and—as the German proverb says—he who has not learned how to obey does not know how to command. It is as good as an established fact that he had his hands pretty deeply in the overthrow of M. Thiers, though Bismarck was far from wishing any change in the government of France. How far the case—it is to come up between November 27 and December 3—is to be argued in public cannot be known beforehand. Everybody wishes it to be as public as possible, but one is forced to acknowledge that grave reasons of state may, to a great extent, require secrecy. Some doubts are entertained as to the willingness of Arnim to do justice to these reasons. An "old diplomatist" advises him in the *Kreuz-Zeitung* to throw all considerations of state interest overboard.

It is a rather curious sight to see the motley mixture of Bismarck's adversaries on tiptoe watching the issue of what they persist in considering a duel between the Chancellor and the ex-ambassador. All of them, with the exception of a very small minority, have but an indirect interest in wishing Arnim success. They do not desire to see Arnim at the helm, but they want, by hook or by crook, to get Bismarck away from it. The *Vaterland* has been so lost to all shame that even the attempt of Kullmann had to serve as a weapon against the Chancellor just as far as it was possible without bringing Dr. Sigel in too dangerous a conflict with the laws; and the *Germania* has pretty well kept pace with the *Vaterland*. Their rage has of late been rather increasing than decreasing, and that is easy to be explained. On the one side there are here and there signs of their own ranks beginning to break badly, and on the other side the state pursues its way with utter calmness, but also with utter firmness. The defections in the camp of the Ultramontanes are as yet few; it is endeavored, with more or less success, to throw a veil over them. Their immediate effect is to make the faithful ones press together more closely, and return to the charge with more determination than ever. Every week there are some new cases of priests returning in defiance of the laws to their former flocks, preaching and administering the sacraments. Whether the May laws are, in every particular, exactly the thing one could wish them to be, is and will remain a controvertible question; but as long as they are laws they have to be executed. The priests have played a bold and high game to find out whether the government is really determined to do this under all circumstances; they know now that it is. The other day a refractory priest who, by means of a door in the church not known to the authorities, had several times escaped the policemen, was arrested in the church right after finishing the divine service. As the community offered resistance, the policemen had to draw their sabres. The outcry against this "outrage" has of course been immense. Indeed, what is to become of the world if even in the shelter of the walls of a church wilful and persistent law-breaking is no longer to be tolerated! The contest will last long and will be hard, but every day it becomes more certain that the state is to conquer at last. The Swiss adage says, "*Uebergewalt wird nicht alt*" (Excessive force does not grow old). With the Ultramontanes passion is every day more and more overpowering cool reason, and, in consequence, they are sawing with their own hands the branch on which they sit. Some ladies belonging to the highest aristocracy are at present publicly collecting money for a costly banner to be presented in the name of "the German Catholics" to the Holy Virgin of Lourdes. The manner in which it is done, and many a broad hint in the Ultramontane papers of Germany as well as of France, leave no doubt that it is meant to be, and also to be taken by friend and foe as, a symbolic pledge that France may count upon the friendship of the German Catholics. The bow that is overbent breaks. Those of the priests who know no home and no fatherland but Rome will find out that they have overbent the bow if they hope to make the great mass of the Catholics traitors to their country; in this they will not succeed, neither soon nor at any time, no matter how diligently and how cunningly they work to sow the dragon seeds of strife. The times of the Rheinbund—whether concluded by the princes or by the people—will never again return.

The Empire is about to forge a new weapon which it will be able to use with terrible effect against all its wayward sons at the only time when there could be any real danger of its falling a victim to their parricidal hatred—*i.e.*, when it is attacked from without. There is hardly a doubt that the bill presented by the Bundesrath to the Reichstag about the Landsturm will in some manner become a law. The Landsturm is not to be, as some persons have tried to make the public believe, under a new name the revival of what was called the second *Aufgebot* of the Landwehr; it can never be a means of attack, it is only a means of defence. All men between 17 and 42 years of age, not belonging to the army or navy (that includes the Landwehr), are to belong to the Landsturm, which can only be called into service when the country is invaded or when there is imminent danger of an invasion. The Landsturm, like the army, is to stand under martial law. That would be the powerful fetter on the arms of all those who would like to stab their country in the back while it is attacked in front from without. The *Neuer Socialdemokrat* is already now heard lamenting—"In future, therefore, a government can quite legally call into service the Landsturm, and so put all its adversaries under martial law. In Russia it has for a long time been the custom to put all turbulent people into the army of the Caucasus." None but the adversaries, not of the government, but of the country, have to apprehend any great danger from this power, as the calling into service of the Landsturm is to be restricted to the two cases aforesaid. The main view of the Government in introducing this bill is, of course, not to provide a means of defence against the "German Catholics" or the social democrats; but whosoever in a moment of great danger to the country should harbor any desire to excite civil strife or even civil war, would find himself before a wall, the mere attempt to overleap which might cost him his life.

Correspondence.

MOABITE INSCRIPTIONS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: There has been some question as to the genuineness of the Moabite pottery (collected principally by Mr. Shapira), in this country as well as in Europe, the reasons for which I think may now be dissipated by a statement of the case as it appears in the light of newly discovered facts. There are now extant about 1,000 incriptions, which arrange themselves in four or five systems, representing as many ages or dialects. They were gathered from various parts of the country east of the Dead Sea. The inscriptions are found almost exclusively on articles of pottery or terra-cotta, of which, including jars, images, and a number of indescribable objects, there are in all about 15,000, and of which there are no duplicates, either of the inscriptions or the objects.

For convenience the systems of writings are named: 1, the Zain; 2, the Tsaddi; 3, the Cursive; and 4, the Ligatured, besides which there are one or two minor subdivisions not named.

1. The zain system comprises about one-third of the whole number, and is so named because, in addition to the letters of the Greek alphabet, there is one called zain. Tsaddi, samech, kaf, and teth are always wanting, and gimel sometimes. Lamed is turned to the left.

2. The tsaddi system includes nearly one-half of the whole number, and in about one-third of these that letter is written reversed, while in the other two-thirds it stands as usual, turned towards the right. The lamed follows the tsaddi in position, turned with it to the left or to the right respectively. Several irregular letters occur in this system whose power is not yet known. Gimel is always present, and zain and samech have peculiar forms.

3. In the cursive system, the letters incline to the left. Gimel, samech, and tsaddi are wanting, and lamed is sometimes replaced by resh. Alef, beth, and yode are often reversed, and shin turned up sideways.

4. In the ligatured series there are twenty-two letters, including one supposed to be teth. The mode of connecting the letters was probably optional with the writer, and it is quite artistic in effect. The intention in some cases seems to have been to combine the letters of each word in a separate group or monogram. A small series of inscriptions have the letters supplied with bases, like the lower arm of L.

Six, or it may be eight, of the letters are uniform in all the systems, and also in the Mesho stone; all the others in the several systems differ from each other and from those in the Mesho stone. One or two forms are found in the Mesho stone that are not in the pottery, and three or four forms in the pottery are not on that monument. The several systems are so distinct and consistent in themselves that any one of them may be determined from an examination of a few of the peculiar forms of the letters, and there is no one of the inscriptions that mingles any two of the systems. The antiquity of some of the forms of the letters may be established by their identity with those on the coins of the ancient rulers, as for instance on those of Antigonus, King of the Jews, dated 38 to 36 B.C.; of Hyrcanus I., 135 to 103 B.C.; and of Eleazar, high-priest of the Jews, who caused the Pentateuch to be translated into Greek for the Ptolemy, about 270 B.C., and on all of whose coinage are found letters closely resembling, and on some forms identical, with those in the Moabite inscriptions, and written both in the normal and the reversed positions.

An analysis of the literal structure of the inscriptions, when compared with the language of the Hebrews, the Greek, the Phœnician, and also with the English, presents a complete and consistent whole. The number of letters in 180 inscriptions was nearly 5,000, of which alef formed a proportion of 12½ per cent., daleth 8⅛, he 6⅛, gimel 3, and so on. This coincidence could hardly have been the result of invention. The grammar resembles that of the ancient Egyptians in some points; as, for example, the verb has only two conjugations. It is believed by some scholars that the Hebrew verb originally had but two conjugations, and that the five additional forms were quite a recent improvement. A more thorough knowledge of the Moabite inscriptions may possibly determine not only the age of these supplemental additions, but also open the way towards more definitely dating some of the writings in the Old Testament.

The various hypotheses advanced from time to time concerning the manufacture of this pottery have been abandoned one by one, until the matter now rests between Mr. Shapira, Selim el Gari, and the Bedawin. Of Mr. Shapira, one of the best scholars in Europe has said he is a good Hebrew scholar, knows German, is almost unacquainted with Greek or Latin, not well read in the modern languages, and is deficient in the knowledge and ability requisite for the invention of the inscriptions or any one of the systems. Selim is a Greek, knows German, French, and the Bedawin Arabic, simply from association. In conversation with him I found his knowledge of ancient history or of the Hebrew language entirely inadequate to the work ascribed to him, being only such as is found floating about in vague traditions in Oriental society. It would be difficult to tell how, in a country where the only fuel is dry grass or sun-dried dung gathered in handfuls, enough could have been accumulated to bake such considerable amounts of pottery. The Bedawin being devoid of literature, and having no other knowledge of history than has come down to them orally, it seems strange indeed that they should have had the consummate knowledge of the ancient language and religion of the Phœnicians, Hebrews, and Greeks that would have been essential for the construction of these inscriptions.

Concerning the alleged forgery or manufacture of the pottery, it may be said that so far it has been impossible to imitate, even approximately, the color, texture, or density of the antique specimens, although many attempts have been made at Jerusalem and elsewhere, by others as well as myself, with clay from every known deposit in Syria and Egypt. The tints range from drab to dull buff, dull orange, and russet. The peculiar appearance of the pottery can be produced only by time and the elements. The time-marks on these antiques are sure and unmistakable, and have been intensified by a long exposure to the salts which abound in the dry soil of Moab. Some of the objects fell into fragments soon after exposure to the sun and air. Many have to be soaked in water a long time to remove the destructive agents. Some were covered with flowers of salts, which rose to the surface while they were under the eye of the artist at Berlin. This peculiar process may be seen in the Metropolitan Museum, where the water has dropped on the heads of some of the Di Cesnola antiquities, causing the salts to rise to the surface of the soft limestone, where it is deposited in minute flowers.

Dr. Birch of the British Museum says that he believes that there have been a few genuine objects in pottery or terra-cotta found in Moab, some of which he has seen, bearing inscriptions, but that in his opinion, judging chiefly from reports, the great majority of them are forgeries. I have examined some of the localities where the pottery is found, this year, taking great precaution against deception, with such results as have satisfied myself and others that the articles found in those places are antiquities. Those found elsewhere, whether inscribed or not, bear the same evidences of antiquity, in size, color, texture, density, and general appearance. Successful searches have also been made by Pastor Weser and Mr. Serapion, Chancellor of the Prussian Consulate, Jerusalem, and by a committee of savants sent on an express errand by the Prussian Government. An underground chamber at Masooh, near Heshbon, when explored under my supervision, gave the following results: The floor had been raised eight feet near the entrance, and six at the further side. On exposing a perpendicular face of this drift, there appeared a large number of strata of earthy deposits, leached through and through by many floods, and silted up from a depth of five feet in regular succession, without evidence of recent disturbance. At this level fragments of Roman pottery were found like that in Cyprus and elsewhere, dated five or six centuries before Christ. Below two or three feet more of drift on the rock-bottom were fragments of Moabite pottery bearing letters or parts of letters. A niche in the rocky side of the cave contained a whole jar, seventeen inches high, the body eight inches broad, bearing an inscription in four lines, in letters about an inch and a half high, extending around the object. There was also in the niche a disk of pottery six inches across, having on one side of it a crescent and seven shallow holes. The niche was closed by cement harder than the limestone of the cave.

An examination of several cisterns in Moab showed that the uneven rock of the sides had been levelled up with a rubble composed of cement or mortar mixed with broken stones and pottery. A similar finish was observed by Mr. Henry Maudslay, Member of the Institute of Civil Engineers, London, in five cisterns on Mount Zion, Jerusalem. The antiquity of one of these cisterns may be estimated from the fact that it had been filled with stones, and a wall twelve feet thick built over it, which had evidently formed part of a fort mentioned by Josephus, the stairs of which, cut in the rock, were uncovered this season. These cisterns were disused, and were undoubtedly antiquities in the time of Josephus, and may have been built many centuries previous. Both pottery and glass were found in all of them, like that of Moab as to age and consistency. The many ruined cities, temples with lofty porticos of stone, the thousands of cisterns, the roads paved with squared blocks, and other evidences of a high state of civilization, including the inscriptions, which were written in honor of their dead and of their gods, indicate that the broad and fertile plains of Moab were once occupied by a cultured people, whose alphabet, language, and religion left a profound impression on surrounding nations, traces of which may still be found on monuments in Egypt, Assyria, Greece, France, and notably in the literature of the Hebrews.

A. L. RAWSON.

Notes.

COLLEGE students are not the only class in the community who stand in need of "general rules for punctuation and for the use of capital letters." A concise manual of 20 pages, bearing this title, has just been prepared by Mr. A. S. Hill, and published by C. W. Sever, Cambridge. We can recommend it highly to those who feel the want of such guidance. In another edition a few pages might usefully be added to exemplify some of the typical exceptions to the rules laid down; and the value of the colon in Continental punctuation, as a sign of equation of thought, might be noted. ——General George W. Mindil, former aide-de-camp to General Kearney, has printed for private distribution a limited number of copies of his reply to General Joseph E. Johnston concerning the battle of Fair Oaks. It was worth writing, and will repay reading, though exception may be taken to the writer's conclusion, that "in indecision and vacillation of character General Johnston is much like General McClellan, and in neither can we discern a single trait of the successful soldier."——The Greville Memoirs, whose revelations have created a real sensation in England, are to be served up in specimen extracts in the "Bric-a-brac Series" of Scribner, Armstrong & Co.——We regret to see it announced in the *American Naturalist* for December that this excellent periodical is not yet self-sustaining. The five hundred additional subscribers which it needs ought certainly to be found in as many families having sons and daughters who show a taste for natural history. The programme for the forthcoming year is specially attractive.

—The valuable Squier collection of American antiquities (from Peru, Central America, and the Mississippi Valley), now and for some time past on temporary deposit at the Central Park Museum, is in the market, and is, we fear, likely to be sold out of the country. There are a number of institutions which would be glad to purchase it if their means permitted; and it would perhaps find its most appropriate destination in the National Museum at Washington. There are special reasons at this time why the money will be hard to raise from any source; but the sum required is, we believe, not so large as to tax private munificence unduly. The collection is one which, taken as a whole, could not be replaced, and that it ought to remain in

this country must be the conviction of every one who knows anything about it.

—When we wrote last week concerning the settlement effected between Mr. Ezra Cornell, the Trustees of the University which he founded, and the State of New York, we little supposed we should immediately be called upon to chronicle the death of Mr. Cornell. This took place on Wednesday week, at Ithaca, which had been his home for forty-six years, and where was begun that mechanical and agricultural training which made him the eminently fit patron of a college in which instruction in these branches was a condition of national endowment. The mechanical part of his training, indeed, bore much earlier fruit in the share which Mr. Cornell had with Professor Morse in introducing the electric telegraph, and in perfecting the apparatus for the transmission of messages. This phase of his career is little known to the generation which has honored him as an educational benefactor, but it may be questioned whether he accomplished more for the good of his countrymen in the latter rôle than by the intelligent self-seeking which furnished him the means to indulge his philanthropy. In the case of the telegraph he certainly "builded better than he knew"; in founding the university, his idea was so far in advance of anything that has ever yet been realized in institutions of this kind, that his work was by comparison a failure. No one with half a million dollars, or with fifty times that sum, is going to found off-hand a university at which "any one may learn anything he desires"; and there was nothing in the start which Mr. Cornell gave to his creation which either did or could bring it nearer his idea than the older colleges like Yale and Harvard, by furnishing it something which should take the place of their accumulated wealth, traditions, and culture. There was, if we may say so without the slightest disrespect to his memory, in his belief in the power of mere money to accomplish what he sought, something of the "short-cut" notion to which "self-made men" seldom rise superior, and which is a main cause, perhaps, of that scattering of endowments which we daily have to deplore. To abstain, however, from praising the liberality of his conception simply because it was one which would not have been entertained by a highly-educated man, possessed of even greater means, would of course be absurd. He will be permanently and prominently remembered among those Americans, already too numerous to recall by a single effort of the memory, who have returned to the public the wealth which they had acquired by their own exertions. He had the good sense to make this return in his lifetime, and the good fortune to witness the contagion of his example leading to the still further endowment of his university on a scale hardly less munificent than his own. Mr. Cornell was born at Westchester Landing, N. Y., in January, 1807, and consequently had not quite completed his 68th year.

—On the night between Tuesday, December 8, and Wednesday, the 9th, the planet Venus passed over the disc of the sun for the first time since 1769. The sun being below the horizon both in America and Europe, expeditions for observing the transit were fitted out by our own Government and by the principal ones of Europe. Many of the stations are beyond the reach of telegraphic communication, so that news has yet been received from but three out of the eight American stations—the Japanese and Siberian stations in the northern hemisphere and Hobart Town, Tasmania, in the south. The American parties were unequally divided, only three being sent to the north, while five were stationed in the south. The explanation of this course is that the chances of good weather are much greater in the north than the south. In Siberia and Northern China an entirely cloudy day is rarely seen during December, while at Nagasaki there is a large preponderance of fine days. On the other hand, the whole of the southern hemisphere where the transit is visible is unfavorable as regards weather, and the station on Kerguelen Land is in the midst of the stormiest ocean on the globe. Although this course was no doubt wise, in consideration of the prospects presented by the several stations, the imperfect despatches thus far received lead to the fear that it may not prove to have been fortunate in respect to the results to be obtained from the photographic operations. At Vladivostock, the Siberian station, the sky was hazy during the first hour, and the despatch from Professor Hall mentions that thirteen photographs were taken. As there were three hours remaining, during which the weather was clear enough to admit of photographing the sun, and the photographs could be taken at the rate of thirty or forty per hour, it may be hoped that some error has been made in telegraphing the number. If the number is correct, then only seventy-three photographs were taken at two out of the three northern stations. On the other hand, one hundred and thirteen photographs are reported from the Hobart Town station alone in the southern hemisphere. We thus have more photographs reported from one out of the five southern stations than from two out of the three northern ones. We may hope that observations at Peking were so successful as to make up for the failure in Siberia, but reports from that station cannot be received for several days.

—If we consider the optical observations, the result may be different, as these were very successful both in Japan and Siberia, while it may be inferred that they failed at Hobart Town. It is on these observations that the English have placed their main dependence, while the American Commission has regarded them as secondary to the photographic determinations. For this reason the hot discussion in England respecting the relative merits of "Halley's method" and "De l'Isle's method" has no significance as applied to the operations of our parties, a result which it may be well to explain for the benefit of those newspaper-writers who occupy themselves with the discussion, as well as for the public, who must often have wondered whether our Commission was in accord with the Astronomer-Royal or with Mr. Proctor. The difference between the two methods is simply this: In Halley's method, the time at which Venus enters upon the solar disc, and the time at which it begins to leave it, are both carefully observed, and the difference of the two times shows how long Venus was in crossing the sun's disc at any station. The solar parallax is given by the differences of these durations, as determined at the several stations. In De l'Isle's method, the parallax is determined by the differences between the absolute moments of Greenwich time at which Venus was seen either to enter upon or to leave the sun at the several stations. If both contacts are observed at two stations, the observations can be treated by either method, as the only difference will be that to use De l'Isle's method the longitude of the stations must be known beforehand, while the application of Halley's method would amount practically to supposing the longitude unknown, and determining it from the observations of the transit of Venus itself. With the modern means of determining longitudes, there is no doubt that the observations will be treated by De l'Isle's method, although made according to the plan of Halley. We may expect, in the course of the coming week, to hear from New Zealand, Campbelltown, and Peking. We shall then be in a position to form a much better judgment of the measure of success which has attended the operations of the American parties.

—As good news as any that has come from Germany for a long time is that the abominable script of that myopic nation is finding a Nemesis in the enhanced price of German books. According to the *Academy*, the well-known publisher, B. G. Teubner, of Leipzig, explains how this came about, in a deprecatory circular addressed to whom it may concern. The Leipzig compositors have during the past year obtained an increase of wages—the mathematical, of 100 per cent.; the classical, of 40 to 50 per cent. Of course the cost of corrections has gone up:

"German authors seem to send their manuscript to the printers in a perfectly disgraceful state. The printers have the greatest difficulty in deciphering what is sent to them, and hence the first proof-sheets are full of the most troublesome mistakes. Many authors seem to look on the first proof sent to them as a kind of fair copy, on which they add and change *ad libitum*. The result is, as the firm of Teubner points out, that the expenses are doubled and tripled; and as the author declines to pay for the additional outlay caused by his own carelessness, the extra charge must of course be made up by the price of the book."

This difficulty, comments the *Academy*, has long since been met in England by publishers allowing a certain sum for corrections, and deducting anything in excess of this from the author's honorarium. When it proceeds to ask, "Are we to suppose that in Germany the honorarium is in most cases so small that nothing can be deducted from it?" it hits the nail on the head, for such is incontestably the fact. The scale of intellectual remuneration in Germany is sufficiently indicated by the pay of university professors. We lately heard of a translator (into English) of a standard but difficult German novel who received for the labor of months the sum-total of 60 thalers; the work being done, we believe, for the Tauchnitz or Asher series. It would seem now as if the type-setter were more than ever to be envied, on the score of remuneration, by the author, who still maintains the luxury of a script which at its best deserves to be banished from the face of the earth. Next to the metric system, is there anything whose general adoption by civilized mankind is more desirable than a common text, as well literary as typographical? In their printing the Germans are partly emancipated; their handwriting yet awaits the reforming influence of the effete Latin races.

—Adolf Ebert has just published at Leipzig the first volume of his great work on the literature of Western Europe during the Middle Ages ('Allgemeine Geschichte der Literatur des Mittelalters im Abendlande'), bearing the separate title, 'Geschichte der Christlich-Lateinischen Literatur von ihren Anfängen bis zum Zeitalter Karls des Grossen.' The old school of literary historians always regarded their subject as an isolated phenomenon, without beginning or development. It has only been of late years that a

school has arisen whose principle is to explain what now is by what was, and which, in the case of the literatures of Europe, recognizes the importance of establishing the continuity between them and those of Rome and Greece. To this school Ebert belongs. He says in his preface that the Latin literature of the Middle Ages begot the different national literatures, furnishing them examples and models in the various departments, and by its influence perfecting their poetic as well as prose forms. He begins, therefore, with the Christian Latin literature, all whose writers (how many known to us only by name!), from Tertullian to Beda, are presented in order, with concise analyses of their works, which enable even the unlearned reader to follow the author's argument with ease. The subject is of far more general interest than is usually supposed. The theologians of the early church have seldom been considered from a literary point of view, and we are accustomed to believe that a few hymns compose all the belles-lettres of this period. Ebert has treated his subject in a masterly manner, and his previous contributions to the history of mediæval Romance literature assure us that the rest of his work will be equally well done.

—We have received the first volume of *Italia*, the new German-Italian periodical which we noticed quite fully from the prospectus in our issue of September 10. We find the high expectations there expressed more than realized, while the typography and arrangement of the work are admirable. Especially noticeable is the outspoken critical spirit manifested in every page, and which makes us suspect the authors are not without hope that their articles will be read in Italy. Gallenga, for instance, in an excellent account of an excursion into the Abruzzi and a visit to Aquila, says it would be a delightful summer residence if there were only decent lodgings to be had, but he adds: "Until the railroad has worked wonders, let no mortal have the cruelty to recommend it even to his deadliest enemy." It is pleasant, by the way, to find that municipal extravagance is not confined to America. In the above-named town a theatre has been built at a cost of a million francs, the Monte di Pietà pledging all its funds until the opening of the theatre. The building alone has, however, absorbed all the money, not leaving a penny to furnish it, while there is nothing left in the treasury to relieve the needs of the suffering poor. Still sharper is a note by the editor, who complains that a certain German work has not been translated into Italian, and says: "It would, indeed, not be easy to find a publisher even for a single volume like this, in a land where books are no longer read and fewer bought." This independent tone is renewed in an article by Barzellotti on the literary movement in Italy since 1848, from which one may see how the same causes work in literature and in politics. The literature of Italy down to 1848 was essentially political and polemical; after the regeneration of the country, Italian writers were very much in the same condition as our Republican party after the war: their occupation was gone. This explains the evident falling off in literary activity, and there has not been time for the development of a new national literature. The other articles are all good. The first, by Bonghi, on the church question, is on a subject of increasing importance, and will be read with interest here as well as in Europe. We can thoroughly commend the whole number to our American readers, and some portions especially to our political economists.

—Students of the Romance languages will be glad to learn that a journal devoted especially to Italian philology has been established at Imola, under the direction of L. Manzoni, E. Monaci, and E. Stengel, with the title, *Rivista di Filologia Romanza*. It appears quarterly, and has just completed its first year. The four numbers before us contain several articles of interest to students of literature as well as to mere philologists. Among these are an article by Stengel on the "Provençal Lyric Manuscripts of Florence and Rome," one on the "Vatican MS. 3214," containing a precious collection of old Italian lyrical poetry, from which twenty-nine pieces are now for the first time published. For those interested in folklore there are two country-stories in the Vaudois patois with glossary, and ten Sicilian fairy-tales collected by Pitrè. The distinguished scholar, P. Rajna, contributes two fragmentary romances of chivalry which he has lately discovered, and Theophilo Braga, of Lisbon, has an article on the "Portuguese Origin of Amadis de Gaula." The last number contains a most valuable artice, by Monaci, entitled "Uffizj drammatici dei Disciplinati dell' Umbria," giving an account of dramatic representations (or *laude*, as they are called), written probably in the thirteenth century, and represented by one of the bands of penitents then so common under the names of Flagellanti, Disciplinati, or Battuti. The *laude* are much older than any dramatic composition in Italian which we now possess, and the article is a most welcome contribution to the history of the drama in the Middle Ages. Besides these literary works there are several articles on Italian philology, by Prof. U. A. Canello and others, reviews, etc. Taken altogether, this new journal is not unworthy to stand by the side of the *Romania* and the *Jahrbuch für Romanische und Englische Sprache und Literatur*.

HART'S GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.*

THE two different institutions, the American College and the German University, agree, of course, in the one main point that they are concerned about books and study, and in the broader features that they have professors and students, examinations and degrees. But here all close resemblance ends. The slightest examination into details shows the wide discrepancy in the plan, point of view, object, and method of the two. The American college we know is, or till within a few years has been, merely a boarding-school somewhat enlarged. It assumes that its pupils are under personal as well as intellectual tutelage, and claim from it something like parental care and authority. The students are, as compared with other countries, young, and are often treated as if they were even younger. They are lodged, fed, sermonized, and watched over by the college like children of slightly elder growth. Their professors hear them recite lessons; give them marks and prizes; reprimand, suspend, or expel them for idleness; grant them leave to go out of town; enquire into their hours and habits, their downsittings and their uprisings. In the essential matter of study, the college assumes a partial right at least of selection and direction, and laying down the broad principle that there are a certain number of things which no intelligent youth should fail to know, besides a liberal selection of other things among which he *must* make a choice, proceeds to "funnel them in," as a German would say, in parental and solicitous fashion. Having so brought the student to his twenty-first birthday and his bachelor's degree, the college proper has done with him, and relegates him to his especial school, scientific, theologic, juristic, or what not, which urges him henceforth to narrow his range of work and concentrate his energies on the essential matter of acquiring practical knowledge for his life pursuit.

All, or most of this the German university precisely does *not* do. The work of the American college it leaves to the gymnasium, receiving the young *Primaner* at eighteen or nineteen nearly or quite as well drilled in all essentials as the American A.B. one or two years later. School and preparatory training, it is assumed, are finished; henceforward the youth is supposed to know his own mind, to have fixed on some definite line of labor and thought, and to be ready to set about it with intelligence and determination. But not for this is he condemned to the narrowing labors of the professional school and the technicist merely. The university assumes that the future lawyer, physician, or civil functionary is to be a thinker first, and a specialist afterwards. Though it teaches him one thing, or one closely related group of things, it does so from the ideal standpoint; it aims to give the literature, the broad principles and views, the science, in brief, of the branch in question, leaving to the courts, offices, and hospitals of later life to crystallize the young theorist into the technicist and practical worker. It sets high models, and works by exacting methods. In the official theory, it should be the student's aim to master the *omne scibile*, all attainable information, however recondite or collateral, in his science, in order if possible to extend its boundaries in his own future investigations. Should he choose to settle down later into the mere practising barrister, or police functionary, or woods and forests inspector, very well; but the university has done its best that he have the chance to be all of this, and a philosopher into the bargain. As a natural consequence, the minuteness and research in study inculcated both by precept and example in the German lecture-room are something almost incredible to our Western haste and superficiality. The professor undertakes not so much to teach the student directly all which is or may be known in any given science, as to select special points in it, and show him with what infinite pains and elaboration they may be worked up, leaving him to take the hint in his own private labor, at his own times and seasons.

In order to this, the university leaves him the greatest possible liberty of choice in all his personal habits, as well as in the minutiæ of his course and habits of study. He lodges where he pleases; eats, drinks, sleeps, or travels much at his own pleasure. A certain reasonable number of lectures, bearing more or less directly on his professed department, he must subscribe for, and something like the pretence of regularity of attendance must be certified by the professor's signature; but in the selection of his professors, the question whether he shall diligently copy after their dictation in the class-room, the actual number of absences he may allow himself, the text-books to be consulted, and the like, a freedom of personal choice and taste is allowed which, to the average American professor, would seem like self-destructive license. He may change, and indeed is rather invited to change, his university once or more during his course. His beer-drinking and what comes of it, the university cares nothing about, so long as he has not broken any one's windows or made an unpleasant spectacle of himself on the street. Even in the to our notions dubious pastime of duelling, the government is careful not to disturb him so long as his honor does not need unreasonably

* German Universities. A Narrative of Personal Experience. By James Morgan Hart. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874.

frequent vindication. He may "spree it" pretty steadily for the first year or so, and practically is very apt to do so; but the university quietly bides its time, sure that before long the brooding shadow of that terrible final examination will tone him down, and that the last half of his course at least will be given less to *Tief-quart* and unlimited beer, and more to the Pandects, the "Pure Reason," or the laboratory. If his "Kneiping" or duelling exceed traditional moderation, if he break windows, heads, or the public peace, the university has primary jurisdiction over him. For minor offences, it may suspend, fine, imprison, or expel him, and only in extreme cases turns him over to the secular arm. In and through all, the authorities leave him as much as possible to himself, only setting before him the paramount necessity of getting sooner or later such a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of his subject as shall bring him well through the final examination. This it conducts fairly and generously, but comprehensively and severely, and from its result the young doctor may expect a more or less benign influence on his future steps in the various walks of life which, still under the watchful eye of the state authorities, he now contemplates. Without some fair degree of success in this his final trial, professional life (*i.e.*, state service) in any form—and only the German mind can conceive what manifold forms state service may be made to assume—is closed to him. Failure in a final attempt, however, is not fatal, and the ranks of any given university can show an appreciable number of "mossy heads" whose lack of brains or moral resolution has left them plodding on among their juniors after the coveted "doctor title," without which they must be content to settle down on the farm, in the workshop, or the counting-room.

Such in brief is the main distinction between the American and the German systems, which forms a prominent feature of Mr. Hart's book on German University life. In this excellent little volume the author has told with singular clearness, fidelity, and simplicity the story of his student life in Göttingen, Leipzig, and Berlin. The memories of many an old *Studiosus Georgiæ Augustæ*, now plodding away in the ranks of our own literary or professional men, will bear ready testimony to the photographic truth of his descriptions. We could have borne a little more of the humorous and delineative element in certain parts of a subject so open to picturesque treatment; but Mr. Hart's chapters on the *Kneip*, the *Mensur*, etc., show that the descriptive faculty is not so much lacking with him as held in abeyance by the earnestness with which he pursues the serious and more important phases of his subject. The untechnical reader will hardly enter into the affectionate minuteness of his disquisitions on the Roman law, but the friend of education will recognize in these passages only a consistent part of the author's plan to tell the American reader, in the most vivid and realistic way, exactly how German students study. Many of his collateral remarks and conclusions are not only admirable in themselves, but bear most effectively on the "burning questions" of the day. When he lectures college benefactors on their mania for putting heavy sums into dormitories and museums instead of properly endowing the more directly educational forces of the college, he will have the grateful assent of every half-starved professorling from Maine to Missouri. The retort of the fresh-water Don who replied to some pæan of praise over a new architectural wonder in the college grounds—"Yes, we asked for *bread*, and they gave us a *stone!*" aptly comments this chapter of the book. Nothing, too, could well be better or more suggestive for students of modern languages than the author's account of his method in learning German.

Some of Mr. Hart's inferences must fairly be considered, as he doubtless would himself view them, as open questions, and intended to provoke discussion. Such, for instance, would be his half-hesitating advocacy of the *Paukerei*, or duelling system; or, to take a better case, his evident admiration of the distinctive features of the university lecture as at present adopted throughout Germany. How much criticism, satire, and opposition this peculiar feature has always excited both here and abroad, no student of pedagogy will need to be reminded. There will always be an evident objection in common sense to the system which keeps the student for some hours a day painfully copying from the lecturer's lips at railroad speed a treatise which might better be studied from the printed page at home, and which in practical fact may very often be had in good compact shape at the university bookstore. Every German scholar will remember Mephistopheles' sarcastic advice to the freshman of the period:

> "Five hours a day, you understand,
> And when the clock strikes, be on hand!
> Prepare beforehand for your part
> With paragraphs all got by heart,
> So you can better watch, and look
> That naught is said but what is in the book:
> Yet in thy writing as unwearied be,
> As did the Holy Ghost dictate to thee!"

But on a theme so interesting to the technical mind, it is easy to pass from the reviewer to the controversialist.

CHILDREN'S HOLIDAY BOOKS.*

IV.

WANT of space and the large number of books coming in at this late date to be noticed before the holidays, make it necessary to restrict the remarks about each to a small compass—smaller in some cases than the books deserve. 'The Old Woman that Lived in a Shoe' is a very bright story, and suggestive of much matter for reflection to parents and guardians; but, being obliged to come to the point quickly, we must confess to having found it a work of misdirected talent. The story is that of a poor grandmother in a little old country-house left with the care and support of six grandchildren. One day these three boys and three girls collect in the garret and amuse themselves by saying in turn what each would like to have happen to him. The pretty Florence wishes some lady would drive past, stop for a glass of water, take a fancy to her and adopt her. Joe wants to be a sailor, be shipwrecked, and finally come home laden with gifts for the family. Hal desires to become a florist; Kit, a violinist; Charlotte—the romp—to run away. The remainder of the thick book is a showing how all these wishes came true. Now, what can be out of the way in such innocent pastime, especially when it is carried out in the spirit of kindliness, cheerfulness, and all charitableness? and when the children are so clever and funny? and when the grandmother is such an example of love and patience? when, in short, the intention of the book is so obviously good? Simply this, that all egregiously false pictures of life not openly called fairy tales or allegories are hurtful, like all other false things, and the more cleverly they are made to simulate reality, the greater is their power for harm. The history of the successful castle-building of these poor children is calculated to stimulate the habit of castle-building in other children. Nor will all the sense of the ludicrous, as shown by the author, to the saving of many of her romantic scenes, secure the young reader from the unfortunate effects of her deliberate instruction in the making of sentimental "situations." Take, for instance, that of Charlotte—the once ugly, now a beauty, who has run away alone to New York with her portfolio of remarkable pictures under her arm—taking her stand in a fresh white dress in front of a picture store on Broadway. She is unknown and penniless—almost despairing; but she "closes her red lips resolutely together," and accosts the first fine-looking man that issues from the shop and shows him her portfolio. Of course he is a connoisseur, at once recognizes her genius and acknowledges her beauty; and from that point her life becomes a success. Delightful dream to any dissatisfied girl—to take her compositions, sketches, or embroidery under her arm, run away to New York, stand on Broadway and look her prettiest; out of the multitude of fine-looking and benevolent gentlemen that may chance to come along, surely there will be one to give her merits "recognition." There is no love-sick nonsense in the story, which should be mentioned among its better points. On the whole, it is a surprise that a book can be so good as this and yet no better. Joe is much funnier than most boys in books of this character. The Van Wyck scenes are unpardonably low comedy.

The 'Slavonic Fairy Tales' are a collection of folk-tales which, to quote the preface, are "not the peculiar property of children any longer; the gravest scholars do not disdain to examine and discuss them." Like all such lore, they have a curious interest attaching to them as a repository for national superstitions, and as exhibiting often the crude original traits of a people unmodified by education and experience. The resemblance between the traditions of all nations is an old observation, and the present volume only confirms the truth of it. Children will probably take greater pleasure in Grimm's 'Valiant Little Tailor' and 'Four Accomplished Brothers' than in the Russian 'Story of Gol Voyansky' or the Bohemian 'Wise Judgment,' with which the first-named are in substance identical. But even if the Slavonic legends are shorter and divested of so much circumstance, they have a fresh charm of their own which does not seem to have lost by the translation. The volume will be a curious and pleasant possession for old and young.

We referred last week to a certain kind of animal stories, now so numerous as to form a class by themselves, in which the resemblances of the animal characters to human beings were so exaggerated and distorted as to be both untrue and unpleasing; and we now have a good illustration of what we meant in the pretty little volume entitled 'Mrs. Mouser; or, Tales of a Grandmother.' It is open to about all the objections that could be urged against a story of this kind. It is a history of several cats, containing no *natural* history of any cats, no good cat anecdotes, nor anything of any possible worth about the feline race. A cat family and their friends are por-

* 'The Old Woman that Lived in a Shoe. By Amanda M. Douglas, author of 'In Trust,' 'The Kathie Stories,' etc.' Boston: William F. Gill & Co.

'Slavonic Fairy Tales. Collected and Translated from the Russian, Polish, Servian, and Bohemian. By J. ha T. Naké, of the British Museum. With four Illustrations.' New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

'Mrs. Mouser; or, Tales of a Grandmother. By the author of 'Aunt Annie's Stories,' 'Little Animals,' etc. With twenty Illustrations.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

trayed, the black brother being a hardened villain, the white sister a beauty with admirers; and all the possible vicissitudes of cat-life are drawn upon to make material for the story. Within these narrow limits there is sufficient invention to satisfy only the crude desires of a young child, while the treatment of the subject is in coarse and clumsy forgetfulness of childish innocence and tender-heartedness. The black cat is a "thief, a beggar, and a murderer," and all the strong language used about him is mixed up with the jocularity that might be appropriate to a real cat's proceedings, but is wholly inconsistent with the cat provided for the time being with human traits. "The more the cat fought and struggled, the more he clutched and bit him; but the poor creature might just as well have submitted quietly, and I dare say he would have spared himself some pain if he had, for, as he must have known from the beginning that he would get the worst of it, he might have thought that his life had not been useless, as he would certainly make Job a very good breakfast." Papa "kicked me [the grandmother cat] all the way down the kitchen stairs"; the same gentleman says to his little girl, "We'll tie a stone round his [the black cat's] neck and pitch him into the duck-pond." Mamma talks in the same strain; and when you get down to the conversation of the cooks and gamekeepers, you find an equal ratio of violence and vulgarity. Hanging, poisoning, shooting, catching in traps —these themes are dwelt upon in language to match. "Horrid little wretch," "nasty ugly cat," "I caught him and gave him a good thrashing," "she would like to scratch his face for daring to say such a thing," "hang him on the spot," and so on all through—from which it is easy to conclude, even were there not other internal evidence, that the book was composed under the "bloody blue skies" of Old England.

The excellent theory as to selection of poems laid down in the preface to 'Chimes for Childhood' is scarcely supported by the compilation itself. Many good pieces of course it must contain, though "Lilliput Levee" is too heavily laid under tribute, especially as it has already served so many other collections. Most readers could also spare "Mary had a Little Lamb," "I want to be an Angel," "Casabianca"; and still less will they care to preserve certain vapid lullabies and newspaper selections which were good for the time only, and not very good then, and only fit for adults. As a specimen of positive bad taste, take the parody on Jane Taylor's "My Brother," p. 191; and of unsuitableness for children, Walter Scott's "Proud Maisie in the Wood." The illustrations, to which attention is especially called in the preface, are about as poor as it is possible to make reprints.

History could not well be conveyed in a pleasanter form than it is in Mr. De Liefde's 'Dutch Admirals,' originally a series of papers in *Good Words for the Young*. De Ruyter occupies of right a third of the volume, and the introduction to him as a young monkey climbing to the top of the spire of Flushing cannot fail of its intended effect on the youthful reader. This admiral and Cornelis de Witt particularly recommend themselves by a boyhood which is not only father to their manhood, but is at the same time thoroughly boyish, and therefore sure of the sympathy and admiration of boys the world over. It is, perhaps, one of the very few unidiomatic expressions which we detect in our author, when he speaks of both of these youngsters as "wicked" instead of naughty or wilful, and of their "vices" when he probably means nothing worse than waywardness. Mr. De Liefde's style is simple and familiar, and his patriotism, though strong, will bear favorable comparison with that of Dryden, laureate *in petto*, in his 'Annus Mirabilis.' It might have led him, we should think, to substitute for the not very valuable illustrations a map of Holland, another of the west coast of Africa, and a third of the Dutch East Indies.

'Fairy Gifts' and 'The Golden Fence' are volumes of philosophical fairy stories, which under that guise launch shafts of satire at the weaknesses of modern society. In the latter book is an account of a "Queer School," called the Great Nineteenth Century Mundane Academy, in which the pupils are taught to spell backwards, to define Patriotism as "getting all you can out of your country"; Poet, as "one who writes a peculiar kind of prose"; Positivist, as "one who is not certain of anything," etc. In this school the blind paint pictures which nobody else can understand; the boys are instructed in "Political Gymnastics" and "jumping over high bars called CONSTITUTIONS"; also in the definition and practice of universal suffrage. A vote is taken on the question whether Black is as good a color as White, the majority to get all the prizes. After great confusion the Blacks win, "and there was even some talk of the poor Whites getting a whipping all round for taking the wrong side." We will spare our readers any more of such sapience. The story preceding this is not nearly so bad, being tolerably fit for children, and not without some pretty notions; but the first one, the "Golden Fence," contains some preposterous social propositions, besides being too much of a love-story. Further than these we have not read.

'Fairy Gifts' opened with such a fine picture of the Fairy Rubinetta in scarlet, with her gold-handled broom, blue cat, and one-eared dog, that it was with disappointment we found that everything in her wallet was destined to point a miserable moral, accompanied by some such profundity as this: "And now you see what a state of things the Fairy Rubinetta found in Cornertown; no wonder for her to look cross. Everybody's head was full of female education and geometry, combined with rights, the latter being of a somewhat uncertain and vague description." A prize was offered to the girls for "the best essay on female education and the first principles of Geometry." When the essays come to be read, the fairy's touch converts them all into a bundle of feathers which fly out of the window, and the prize is awarded to the little girl who has no thought beyond housework, and who offers instead of an essay a pile of sewing done with a magic needle, a gift out of the fairy wallet. Some portions of the stories show considerable picture-painting power, and would merit more than ordinary attention were they not so frequently marred by labored and fantastic notions, expressed in showy but yet obscure phraseology.

If it did not seem like bordering on temerity, we should venture to say that Gail Hamilton had improved. 'Little-Folk Life' is certainly free from some of the faults that disfigured her 'Child World' of last year, while the fertility of her invention and the vigor of her style are enhanced in attraction by the apparent restraint put upon both in the interest of "working" mothers, or of any persons in charge of children who have to follow up all clever and thoughtless stories with the proper antidotes. To speak plainly, we are glad to acknowledge the pleasure we have taken in this fresh and wise little volume; and although the author's progress in caution and "quietness" is not so complete as to leave no wish for its increase, it is too marked not to make criticism difficult and gratitude agreeable. A weighty drawback to the enjoyment of Mrs. Stoddard's "Lolly Dinks's Doings" is that none of our great grandmothers can read it. It would be a satisfaction to know what those estimable ladies would say to such a specimen of a nineteenth-century story-book, to the audacity and lawlessness of Lolly Dinks, and to the brilliant foolishness and *abandon* of his mamma. There is a good deal that is absurdly funny in the book, mixed up with a good deal that is absurd without being funny. But, on the whole, it would probably be a welcome present to parents, especially to grandparents, (if they are not hopelessly old-fashioned), of any masterful, wilful, pretty, restless, imperative, bright boy. The accounts of his depredations and tyranny, and the dismays of his seniors, will undoubtedly be agreeable reading to them. The book, as a suitable one for Lolly Dinks himself and his acquaintances, it is not worth while to discuss.

The Hanging of the Crane. By Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. With illustrations. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.. Small 4to, pp. 64.)—Since everybody reads what Mr. Longfellow writes, and everybody enjoys and is the better for it, there is no need of commending any new poem of his. The critic's judgment coincides with the popular approval. In Mr. Longfellow's work the claims of art are satisfied as well as those of sentiment. Whatever he writes is an expression of fine culture as well as of pure feeling, and of the skill no less than the fancy of the poet.

This new poem, of which the title is the only fault, as being a little too remote from common association fully to express its intent and design, is the story, told in seven brief scenes, of a married life in a happy home, from its fortunate beginning to its fortunate close. The sweet domestic quality of the sentiment, its tenderness and simplicity, its freedom from exaggeration of all sorts, are characteristic of the poet. So, too, is the exquisite ease of the versification; verse following verse in melodious flow, as if thus to flow were in its own nature, like the blowing of the wind or the running of the brook. The little poem is full of peace and serenity, the product, as it were, of the highest philosophy of life—the philosophy of sympathy and content. It is a poem of maturity and experience, in which there is alike the abundance and the ripeness of autumn. It is a poem to make the best loved of poets still better loved.

It is but a brief poem, but it makes, as the publishers have given it to us, a considerable volume. It is lavishly illustrated, printed on paper thick as card-board, and bound in the most showy fashion. Altogether, the volume, as regards its external quality, is a characteristic specimen of the modern gift-book or holiday-book. If it suits the public taste at all, it will no doubt suit it extremely well. But we trust that the publishers have made a mistake in supposing that the public really like this sort of book. The worth of the

'Chimes for Childhood. A Collection of Songs for Little Ones. With twenty Illustrations by Birket Foster, Millais, and other eminent Artists.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

'The Great Dutch Admirals. By Jacob De Liefde.' New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

'Fairy Gifts; or, A Wallet of Wonders. By Kathleen Knox, author of 'Father Time's Story Book.' Illustrations by K. Greenaway.' New York: Pott, Young & Co.

'The Golden Fence, and Other Tales.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'Little-Folk Life Series. By Gail Hamilton and Mrs. R. H. Stoddard.' Boston: Wm. F. Gill & Co.

poem, and the demand for an acceptable present at the gift-giving season, may secure a large sale for the volume, but a large sale under such conditions should not be taken as an indication of its merit or of approval of its style.

It is unfortunate that a poem so simple and domestic as 'The Hanging of the Crane' should appear in the form and with the illustrations with which the publishers have sent it out. The pains, and they were no doubt considerable, with which the volume has been got up have been largely wasted through want of taste and of culture. The spirit of the designs is thoroughly out of harmony with that of the poem, and exhibits the incapacity of the artists to appreciate its real and permanent qualities. They show, too, a lack of fancy that would be surprising were not fancy so rare a gift that its absence is not to be wondered at. But the want of it is in this instance so conspicuous as to indicate essential disqualification for the task. The designer's conception of the chief scenes is not only feeble and false, but peculiarly displeasing, by attaching images of affectation and bad taste—scenes as it were from a second-rate theatre instead of from real life—to verse the simplicity and sincerity of which should have protected it from such association. In merely technical qualities the engravings do not deserve praise, though they show a certain skill in effects and a certain vague and distant apprehension of the excellences to be aimed at in work of this kind. But the designs appear often to have been bad in outline and in light and shade, and the execution of them upon the block has exaggerated their original defects. But it is not worth while to examine this sort of work in detail. Mr. Longfellow should give us an edition of his poem free from illustrations, the effect of which, if they have any, upon character and feeling must be directly opposite to that which his work ought and is fitted to produce.

Gift-Books.—Some of the works for which this name is a conventional designation have already received notice at our hands. Such are Marcoy's 'Travels in South America,' 'Boydell's Shakspere Gallery,' the Bida illustrated Bible, the 'Hanging of the Crane,' etc. We still have on our table, from Porter & Coates, 'The Stately Homes of England,' by Llewellyn Jewitt and S. C. Hall; from Henry Holt & Co., 'Vers de Société,' selected from recent authors by Charles H. Jones; from Scribner, Armstrong & Co., Saintine's 'Myths of the Rhine'; and from J. B. Lippincott & Co., 'The New Hyperion.' 'The Stately Homes of England' first appeared as a serial in the London *Art Journal*, and there we are told to look for succeeding papers, ultimately to become volumes, on the same attractive subject. We shall do no injustice to this compilation if we describe it as a sort of glorified guide-book, having reference in our epithet to its handsome apparel and to the two hundred and ten engravings on wood which illustrate the text. These are of various degrees of merit, but of most of them we may say that they are worth printing, and that many of them convey lessons in domestic architecture by which very humble homes in this country might profit, to say nothing of our public buildings. Domestic economy, too, has something to learn occasionally; for example, from the washing-tally found at Haddon Hall figured on p. 231, in which the disk principle of so many office-calendars in our day is successfully applied to the keeping account of the "handkercher," "bootehose," "pillowberes," etc.—up to one dozen of each—sent to the wash. The letterpress is statistical and antiquarian, and if it betrays no high artistic sense nor unusual descriptive powers on the part of the editors, is free from rhapsodical overflow. The book is good to have and good to give away.

The drawing-room poetry which Mr. Jones has selected will be found, we believe, not deficient in quantity by any one, and as for quality the best pieces are there. We have not read 'Vers de Société' by candlelight, and it is possible that if we had we should agree with the taste which prints the verses on an ashen tint, enclosed by a faint purple border. By daylight, we confess, the painstaking after an elegant and pleasing effect does not seem to us altogether rewarded. The binding is, as is customary with Mr. Holt's publications, a novelty and a success.

Similar in size to the foregoing, but if anything a little more sumptuous, is Saintine's 'Myths of the Rhine,' translated by Prof. Schele De Vere, with illustrations by Doré. This light and pleasant discourse about the supernatural, ranging from Odin to the Kobold, from Friedrich Barbarossa to Heinrich Heine, and not omitting the Lorelei, the Wild Huntsman, and the tree Ygdrasil, is exactly adapted for the publisher's holiday purposes. Doré's illustrations, it is enough to say, are characteristic; sometimes characteristically bad, as in the design which represents every created being giving a tear to Balder.

To another work of Saintine's we owe, with that sort of indebtedness which the French express by *d'après*, 'The New Hyperion,' the clever story which has been running through *Lippincott's Magazine* for several months past, and of which we have frequently had occasion to speak in praise as it proceeded. The preface honestly gives credit to Saintine, but the borrowing or imitation appears to have arisen mainly out of the necessity, having once appropriated Doré's illustrations of the French text, of keeping the English in accord with them. There is much more originality in the work than the scrupulous adapter lets be supposed, and his brightness and wit will thoroughly amuse his audience. The *nom de plume* of "Edward Strahan" is understood to cover the authorship of Mr. Earl Shinn.

A Dissertation on the History and Development of the English Verb. By Emil Schwerdtfeger, Class '77, Cornell University. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.)—They have a linguistic prodigy at Cornell University to whom attention is invited by the publication of a monograph on the history and development of the English verb. A preface by Professor Corson tells us that "Mr. Schwerdtfeger entered the University at the beginning of the winter term of 1873-74, he not being of the required age—sixteen years—to enter at the beginning of the year," a statement which has a comical air at first to an old college man, as though Schwerdtfeger had caught up with his class in age as three-year-old children do with four-year-olds by having a birthday. The old notions of age were connected with ripeness for certain studies, and colleges which announced that "no one was admitted to the Freshman class till he had completed his fifteenth year," added "or to an advanced standing without corresponding increase of age"; but that is not the University idea. Professor Corson further says: "His studies in English philology have all been pursued since his admission to the University," and during the winter and spring terms, in addition to the studies of his class, he "read entire or examined with care the works cited on the last page." These works are thirty-eight in number, three of them in the Danish tongue, seven in the German, nineteen in Anglo-Saxon and Early English. Several of the works have two or three volumes each, and big volumes, too, making their thousand-and-more pages to the work. This is a stint for the full time of a ripe scholar, master of German and Danish; Schwerdtfeger, knowing English, so far as appears, and little of that, takes it as by-play, and writes this pamphlet of fifty-six pages besides as a prize essay. The dissertation is a digest of the facts as stated in the latest works on the subject, and is a very good one—accurate, methodical, full, and perspicuous. It would bear criticism very well as the work of one of our full-grown scholars. As to most matters in which it seems open to unfavorable comment, it is to be said that a student in such a case would of course follow the classifications and method of the professor with whom he is studying. It was no drawback, for example, to the prize essay that it begins with dividing the verb into twenty-five conjugations, since Professor Corson adopts that classification, though it gives us the verb in shreds and patches to start with. It seems to be an oversight of the essayist that he gives no discussion of the past participle of the weak verb. On the whole, however, this is probably just about the essay that was aimed at when the subject was given out, and is justly ranked among remarkable essays of its kind. It is an assurance of good work done in the University classes, and a promise of good work hereafter, and a good deal of it, from the happy prizeman. So may it be. But let not every industrious college-student imagine himself a Schwerdtfeger, and think to bear off prizes by writing essays as long as his. Bulky papers made up of good-enough summaries of the opinions of the best books on the topic assigned are often handed in for prizes; they are, in fact, the terror of the unhappy men who are pressed to serve as prize committees. They seldom win prizes. Committees, it is to be feared, do not always read them. They seek for evidence of originality in the fancy and passion and grace of youth, and care little for the extent or rarity of the knowledge displayed; they know that a lad of sixteen can serve up the contents of a rare book just about as well as of a common one, if you put it in his hands, and that he can write as long as paper and pen hold out if he can have his books open before him.

The Life of Thomas Fuller. With Notices of his Books, his Kinsmen, and his Friends. By John Eglinton Bailey. 8vo. pp. 800. (London: Pickering.)—The eminent pulpit orator, tractarian, historian, and witty divine of the seventeenth century is often, perhaps commonly, spoken of as "Old Fuller," but in a reverential spirit, as one of the olden time, as discoursing of old worthies, and in the spirit of his own quaint lines, forming part of the inscription he made for the tomb of Denys Rolle, Esquire, cir. 1638:

> "Witt and Wisedome sate as Peeres,
> Till Death mistooke his Virtues for his Yeares,"

—for he died in London, August 16, 1661, only fifty-three years of age. There have been an abundance of so-called lives of Fuller, one of the best, an anonymous one, published by some ardent admirer the year of his death, and the Royalist Winstanley, that dizzard of a critic, as he has been termed, (who, writing of Fuller's contemporary, Milton, says: "But his Fame is

gone out like a Candle in a snuff, and his memory will always stink, which might have ever lived in honorable repute, had not he been a notorious Traytor, and most impiously and villanously bely'd that blessed martyr, King Charles the First"), in the brief sketch in *his* 'Worthies,' paid a warm tribute to Fuller's consistency and virtues. This tribute to his consistency was of value coming from the source it did, for Fuller, entering life in the waning days of Charles I., lived throughout the troubled times of the Protectorate true to his Royalist proclivities, but wittingly giving offence to none. Prognosticating the Restoration, he published his 'Contemplations in Better Times,' with the happy motto, so characteristic of the man, and so suggestive to the American statesman and politician of to-day, "Let your moderation be known to all men, the Lord is at hand."

Mr. Bailey has performed a marvel of labor, and, by a careful study of Fuller's writings, has given us, to a marked degree, an autobiography and most thorough work. Evidently aware that in these hurrying days his book, in its "voluminous and luminous" detail, will be appreciated by the few, his publishers announce an edition of the sermons, to be accompanied by a biography more strictly "a Life." In editing any edition of the sermons, of the 'Pisgah Sight of Palestine,' the 'Holy and Profane State,' the 'Church History,' or the 'Worthies of England,' we may be assured that Mr. Bailey will give us Fuller's text as he wrote it, and not as some modern publishers have sought to improve it, by modernizing the orthography. As indicating the nature of the volumes, the promise of the title is kept in the most ample way; but, furthermore, we have in an introductory note a compendium of Fuller's biographers, as also reference to his critics, Lamb, Coleridge, Crossley in the *Retrospective Review*, and Prof. Rogers, late of the College, Withington; and in the bibliography, pp. 719, 720, an article on Fuller and the Worthies is mentioned, which appeared in the *Christian Examiner*, Boston, 1831, the author acknowledging the courtesy of Mr. Sibley, the Librarian of Harvard College, in sending to him a copy of the number containing the article. Indeed, Mr. Bailey seems to have sought everywhere in the republic of letters for information, and the response made to his enquiries by his fellow-countrymen from State, university, and curacy, by collectors and publishers, by near friends and entire strangers, must have been flattering to him, indicating a hearty appreciation of the direction of his researches and of his masterly manner of conducting them.

After giving in chronological order Fuller's parentage, birth, youth, and college career, the thread of personal biography is amplified by historical episodes and by running commentaries upon the motives and circumstances incident to the framing and publication of the various works by which he is best known. Beyond this, the volume is replete with plates of interest, and some of rarity. There are genealogical tables, and registers of births and deaths, while sixty-one pages are allotted to a carefully-prepared bibliography, evidently not the least labor of the author. Is there an index? There are indices, which, in their fulness and Fullerness, Fuller and his antagonist in literary warfare, "the lying Peter," as Carlyle terms Dr. Heylyn, would have delighted to fight over, in the verbal affectation of the day. There are indices Nominum, Rerum, Locorum, and an index of archaic words and old-fashioned phrases. Here, as elsewhere, the reader and student will have reason to pay more than a passing tribute to that undisputed womanly right of entering heart and soul into a husband's labors, for Mr. Bailey says in his preface: "Finally, the work has been throughout furthered in no small degree by the co-operation of my devoted wife."

We call attention to this 'Life of Fuller' not only because, being published by subscription, few copies of this especial edition will be found on the booksellers' shelves, but as being a monument of industry, careful research, and discriminating criticism, more than satisfying a long-sought-for desideratum. If any object to the bulk of the volume, the volume is not for them, and they must patiently await the promised digest. Mr. Bailey, as we learn, wields in Manchester a double pen, as did at the India House the gentle Elia, whose mention of Fuller he speaks of so appreciatingly. No one who reads or consults the volume will assent to the author's self-deprecatory remark, that "there is ground for regret that some Cambridge scholar as well beneficed, as kindly witted, and as zealously antiquarian as the famous Cavalier Parson, has not given to the church a worthy record of one of its illustrious ornaments," but, on the other hand, will be grateful that this worthy record has at last been accomplished by so loving and competent a hand.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Art-Journal, November, swd.	(Virtue & Yorston)	
Abbott (Rev. J. S. C.), Life of John Paul Jones	(Dodd & Mead)	$1 50
Adams (C. F.), Memoirs of John Quincy Adams, Vol. III.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Abbott (E.), Elements of Greek Accidence	(Rivingtons)	
Barham, Harness, and Hodder. Personal Reminiscences	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	
Burt (L. C.), Synoptical History of England, 2d ed.	(Lockwood & Co.)	
Beecher (A. C.), Recitations and Readings	(Dick & Fitzgerald)	
Bungener (L.), Louis XV. and His Times	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	
Bancroft (H. H.), The Native Races of the Pacific States, Vol. I.	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Clement's Trial and Victory	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Dodge (Mary M.), Rhymes and Jingles	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	$3 00
Davidson (E. A.), the Boy Joiner and Model Maker	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	
De Liefde (J.), The Great Dutch Admirals	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
Dulcken (H. W.), Happy-Day Stories for the Young	(Geo. Routledge & Sons)	
De Mille (J.), The Babes in the Wood: a Tale, swd.	(W. F. Gill & Co.)	0 75
Draper (Dr. J. W.), History of the Conflict between Religion and Science	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
De Forest (J. W.), Honest John Vane	(Richmond & Patten)	
Edwards (Mrs. S.), Estelle	(Sheldon & Co.)	
For Better, for Worse: a Tale, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	0 75
Frobisher (Prof. J. E.), Selected Readings, No. 2	(J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.)	1 00
Gill (W. F.), Home Recreations	(W. F. Gill & Co.)	1 50
Gairdner (J.), The Houses of Lancaster and York	(Scribner, Armstrong & Co.)	1 00
General Rules for Punctuation, swd.	(Charles W. Sever)	
Green (J. R.), A Short History of the English People	(Macmillan & Co.)	3 00
Greenleaf (Prof. S.), Testimony of the Evangelists Legally Examined	(J. Cockroft & Co.)	5 00
Gorton (Dr. D. A.), Drift of Medical Philosophy, revised ed., swd.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Hardy (T.), Far from the Madding Crowd	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Heermans (Anna A.), Hieroglyphic Geography of the United States, Part I.	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	2 50
Hill (Rev. T.), Geometry and Faith, new ed.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
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Fine Arts.

MR. MARSHALL, the engraver, has finished in pure line the large bust-portrait of Mr. Beecher which he has been preparing for four years past. The subject is a somewhat colorless one, requiring all the arts of the burin to give it vivacity. The artist has treated the whole plate in a key of silvery pallor, abandoning perforce the contrasts and deep tints that have given effect to some of his previous heads. In coloring his work, and setting his point to express the quiet tints of nature in a suit of different grays, he shows himself struggling with uncommon activity, commensurate with the obstinacy of his theme. Mr. Beecher's countenance in fact challenges the engraver to put all possible coloring-power into the instrument, for the purpose of giving life to a subject which, reduced to light and shade, is about as uniform as a terra-cotta. Mr. Marshall, working to no low standard, has usually prepared himself, as in this instance, by carefully painting his subject in oil, and in many cases by modelling it in clay besides. Arriving at the multiplying process of plate-engraving, he aims to concentrate on the steel the facts of color, the juicy quality of oil-painting, and the modelling of the solid object. The head of Mr. Beecher, being without "values," but not without color, can be treated only in an uneasy straining of the warm and cold grays—"warm," in conventional truth, for engravers freely speak of the happy or false "color" of their work, expressed in all sorts of courageous and inventive strokes. In this sort of originality Mr. Marshall has had many a success, of the kind that occur to a man working at a distance from all the schools, and with an eye kept single to nature. In this work the directions of the line, as assisting the modelling, appear to be judicious; the shading of the flesh generally, if somewhat ashen, is firm and expressive; the defective saliency, as with many excellent portraitists, and notably often with Couture and Gallait, is enforced here and there with a thick, dark stroke like an out-

line in crayon or bitumen, as in the boundary-line of the nose, and that separating the neck from the linen; the textures selected for drapery and accessories are very massy, paint-like, and harmonious. Upon the whole conception as a work of *portraiture* we prefer to say nothing. It is as a contribution to its own proper technic that it interests us. Pure-line engraving is not now a very favorite or remunerative art in this country. Those who once practised it among us with distinction are aging or dead; publishers demand new, faster, and cheaper processes; and indeed the Banknote Companies form the only guild of the craftsmen known among us, the only group of engravers working with any notion of solidarity, and the only school which occasionally turns off young artists to attract notice independently on the basis of academic instruction received in this branch of the fine arts.

—It is unnecessary to shorten still further the term of an art-career which death has made all too short, and we may correct the statement repeatedly printed that the late Fortuny became first known by the exhibition of a number of works in 1869. Many a connoisseur will remember the proud air of mystery with which, in 1866, the head of the house of Goupil used to take appreciative visitors into that well-known curtained closet of the Rue Chaptal, the room where the pictures are kept that will not bear a neighbor, the room of the *solitaires;* and there, in an impressive solitude, expose the treasured picture by the man with the unheard-of name, Fortuny, whose work had so little need of previous renown to make it conspicuous. The success of the "Marriage in the Vicaria," and the hot eulogy of Gautier in the *Journal Officiel*, came afterward. The great discerning clairvoyance of M. Goupil had even then long marked Fortuny, and had kept him, with other promising sprouts of the Goupil nursery or *pépinière*, in a safe condition of growth and development in Italy. The youthful trio whom art has lately lost, Zamacoïs, Regnault, and Fortuny, were innovators in the ratio in which we mention their names. Zamacoïs was the least important, his genius being largely literary in character, and Fortuny the most so. "Ah, Fortuny, tu m'empêches de dormir," we find in the correspondence of Regnault, himself a sort of later Velasquez, and also helped or hindered by a grand dramatic talent which partly withdrew his attention from his pure technical faculty, and impelled him to tell glorious stories with it. Fortuny, of the three, had the purest addiction to paint for its own sake, and was most intensely the artist of artists. This distinction came to him early in life, for Mariano Fortuny at his decease was but thirty-six years old. He died at Naples. His funeral, from the church of Santa Maria del Popolo in Rome, was attended by a throng of artists and by very many of the upper clergy. His body was placed in a vault in the cemetery of San Lorenzo, prior to its removal to Madrid. Madrazo, Villegas, Boldini, and many lesser talents are left, to continue awhile in weeds of mourning that school of emancipated color which Fortuny and Regnault led as masters. What it will develop into, with its best lights so prematurely put out, would be hard to prophesy; but in promise and boldness it certainly made the great hit of the age, and perhaps took a more authentic step than any since the Renaissance. Of its meaning and scope we hope to speak at length hereafter.

—A miniature art enterprise has been undertaken by Geo. Goodwin & Co., Boston, in printing from the original plates the Twelve Apostles designed and engraved by Hans Sebald Beham. The preservation of a set of plates of the date assigned to these, 1545, in a condition to give perfect impressions, is in itself a sufficient motive for their republication; but when, as in this case, they are really admirable examples of their school, they become an accession of no inconsiderable value to the collection of amateurs of pure engraving. Their miniature proportion (1⅛ in. by 1¾ in.) is in fit relation to their delicacy of execution, which is remarkable. As examples of Düreresque treatment of draperies they are equally noteworthy.

—The illustrations to the New Testament from Bida's designs now appear in an English edition of the Gospels under the charge of Messrs. Cassell, Petter & Galpin. We need not say how much they seem to gain in being at last associated with a translation which is not only one of the very few translations immeasurably superior in style to their own original, but a version which is the perpetual monument, standard, and pride of a noble language. In their association with the French text these etchings after Bida were the flower of the long career of the Maison Hachette & Cie. All book-collectors know the story of how this important house prepared themselves for the publication of the great Bible intended to be a landmark of our century; how twenty years of effort culminated in the publication; how fifteen of the best French etchers were set to copy the designs; how the type was cut express; how chemistry was commissioned to prepare a new and improved ink, with which the text and pictures were printed upon paper made on purpose in Holland. The result was a characteristically French one—a success in technicalities quite dazzling, along with a text that has always seemed to leave much to be desired, and an artistic invention rather polished than profound; in fact, the old familiar French triumph of care and thoroughness, lacking nothing but "miracle." The English version does not attempt all the typographical perfection of its exemplar; it simply gives a fair folio page of heavy paper, on which a large, lean type, *not* of the popular kind called antique, presents the beauties of King James's version. Many of these leaves have passed thrice through the press, for the printing, for the rubrication, and for the line-engravings of tail-pieces or ornaments. As for the etchings, it is at once hard to blame and hard to praise unreservedly. When we think how often French art has dared to treat Biblical subjects in a sentiment of the most determined melodrama, we feel for these drawings, stamped all over with a chaste, intellectual, if not a spiritual distinction, the debt of reverence and respect. But M. Philippe Burty, in criticising Bida, was right enough in saying that "Biblical themes, under this measured pencil, receive too ethnographic a form." The Bible illustrations do not differ in quality from M. Bida's simple souvenirs of travel, as seen in the Luxembourg collection. In everything he has done, in his Oriental views as well as in the heated, conservatory atmosphere of Musset's poetry, the artist remains fatally calm, elegant, and self-possessed. Several times here, as in the illustrations to the fourth gospel, he elaborates a Rembrandt effect—a Lazarus, a Gethsemane, a Crucifixion—and elaborates it with a completeness, a success in analyzing and applying Rembrandt's secret that few artists could emulate; yet there is a frigidity or calculation visible in his most tender gradations, and after having been touched by his subtle and penetrating shadows one feels that he has been touched by rule. What we like best, and what we feel sure that all may like, are his achievements of mental analysis and penetration, such as the St. Thomas at his task of humbly sifting the evidence, his Pilate with the fine head of a Roman cynic, the Michael-Angelesque mingling of emotions in the profile of the typic mother who rejoices amid her anguish because a man-child is born into the world. This last is etched upon the copper by Bida himself; but we do not find that the other aquafortists have been behindhand in the task of subtly interpreting the artist's work. The commission was a triumph for such etchers as Messrs. Flameng and Veyrassat and Mme. Henriette Brown. Flameng's treatment of light on water, as in the Miraculous Draught and Walking on the Sea, and on architecture, as in the Scourging the Money-Changers and Entry into Jerusalem, is all that artist could desire. It is not a perfectly easy task to interpret through the fine-webbed lines of etching the style usual with Bida, which (as may be seen in that large cartoon of his now hung in the Metropolitan Museum) is full of shifts obtained by gratination of the paper, rubbings in lithographic fashion, and powdery stipplings. The etchers have perhaps improved, by taking away the grit, this dryness of Bida's manner; otherwise they seem to be fidelity embodied. We cannot see that the plates in the English version, on the carefullest comparison with the original French impressions, are inferior; they are doubtless printed in Paris under that same supervision by M. Hédouin which has made the first proofs so successful. In conclusion, we may say that the connoisseur will possess in this edition a Biblical work of great purity, a type of the Galilean at once refined and historically probable, an exquisite series of authentic Judean landscapes, and whatever can assist his Bible-reading as a task of intellectual culture.

—A neat portfolio of photographs of sketches by A. Hendschel is published by F. B. Patterson, 32 Cedar Street, New York. They are effective representations of life under various aspects, partly sentimental and partly comical—some of the latter being well fitted to illustrate the Danbury Newsman's buffoonery, at least the more refined portion of it. A morning caller kept waiting would be glad to find these outlines on the centre-table.

—Goupil & Co.'s photographs of Baudry's decorations for the New Opera at Paris are now being received at the house of the firm in this city. The subjects are, "The Group of Seven Arcadian Shepherds," "The Judgment of Paris," "The Flaying of Marsyas," and the two from sacred history, the "Salome" and "Saint Cecilia." These photographs are reddish in tint, 26 by 23 inches, on very large mounts—a great size and adequate representation even of paintings so large as the originals, which are 14¼ by 12¾ feet. From them and from the photogravures in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts* some competent idea of Baudry's labors for the Opera foyer may be had. The treatment is the reverse of frivolous: some of the draperies, in particular, would be grand even among the designs of Michael Angelo, who has evidently been the inspiration throughout; there are many ingenuities, many original poses, and, along with much nudity, the completest absence of sensual appeal. Such figures as the "Angry Juno," the "Melpomene," the "Marsyas," and a "Group of Angels before Saint Cecilia," are real gains to art. Although the painter idealizes his shapes, he keeps a delicate but perpetual distance between his place and the antique; one would say that if Greek sculpture followed up primitive life to its ideal, so does this artist detect the ideal of contemporary life and its forms. His faces are like neither Venetian nor ancient models; they are conscious, keen, experi-

enced, entirely modern. It is understood that in this work of embellishment Baudry has quite abandoned his positive, Venice-like color, as seen in his best-known pictures, the "Fortune" and the "Pearl and Wave"; the color-harmony is here very monotonous and subdued, and the figures are not much darker nor brighter than their backgrounds; the decorator evidently is determined not to "cut holes" in his ceiling, and the continuous flow of embossed forms in a warm hue suggests the effect of bas-reliefs rather than figures detached from a sky or from scenery. The whole achievement, while less distinctly beautiful than many might desire, seems to exhibit a most satisfying scholarship and dignity.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 14, 1874.

THE money market has remained easy most of the time during the past week, but occasionally there was a tendency towards higher rates, and money loaned as high as 5 per cent.; the ruling rate of the week may fairly be quoted, on call loans, 3 to 4 per cent. The tendency of money is decidedly towards a firmer feeling among buyers of commercial paper, very little paper of the best grade passing below 6 per cent. A fair quotation for good double-name paper would be 6½ to 7 per cent. for that having from sixty days to four months to run.

The bank statement on Saturday was not so unfavorable as had been looked for, especially as it had been known that large amounts of gold had been withdrawn from the banks for shipment. The reason for the small decrease in specie as shown by the statement has not as yet been satisfactorily accounted for. The statement shows that the banks have lost during the week $248,400 in specie and $751,400 in legal tenders; the deposits are down $1,224,100. An analysis of the figures of the statement shows that the banks now hold $9,087,100 in legal tenders and specie above the required legal amount against $9,780,875 last week—a decrease in the surplus reserve of only $693,775.

The following is the statement in detail:

	Dec. 5.	Dec. 12.	Differences.
Loans	$286,063,000	$284,903,300	Dec.. $1,159,700
Specie	14,467,200	14,218,800	Dec.. 248,400
Legal tenders	50,221,700	49,470,300	Dec.. 751,400
Deposits	219,632,100	218,408,000	Dec.. 1,224,100
Circulation	25,012,100	24,804,300	Dec.. 208,300

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Dec. 5.	Dec. 12.	Differences.
Specie	$14,467,200	$14,218,800	Dec.. $248,400
Legal tenders	50,221,700	49,470,300	Dec.. 751,400
Total reserve	$64,688,900	$63,689,100	Dec.. $999,800
Reserve required against deposits	54,908,025	54,602,000	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't.	9,780,875	9,087,100	Dec.. 693,775

The stock market was active during the early part of the week, ending dull on Saturday. The fluctuations in prices were unimportant, except those in Pacific Mail, which seems to have been the objects of a combined attack, by newspapers, Congressional committees, and "bear" operators in Wall Street. Under such powerful influences it is not surprising that the price of the stock should have tumbled down from 41½ to 39. The story of the troubles which have been going on between the directors of the Company has been published daily in the newspapers, and shows plainly that some of its officers and directors have been paying more attention to their own speculative interests in the stock than they have to those of its stockholders in improving the condition of their property. The course of prices in the balance of the active list has been confined within the limit of from 1 to 2½ per cent., the highest and lowest prices having been as follows: N. Y. Central, 102⅛, 101½; Erie, 28, 26; Northwestern Common, 47½, 45¼; Wabash, 31¼, 29¾; Rock Island, 102⅛, 101; St. Paul Common, 39⅛, 37⅞; Union Pacific, 35¾, 35; Ohios, 32⅛, 30⅝; Western Union, 83⅛, 81⅝.

The demand for railroad bonds has continued good, with very little concession in prices from the highest that have been reached. The Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad Company has made application to have its 7 per cent. consolidated mortgage bonds placed upon the list at the Stock Exchange. This Company has recently negotiated a large amount of these bonds, and will use the money received for them in paying off other bonds falling due, or such of its bonds bearing a higher rate of interest as can be called in.

The price of gold declined early in the week owing to speculative sales, which carried the quotation down to 110½ on Tuesday; the heavy demand for gold for shipment later in the week caused a sharp reaction in the price, and the market finally left off on Saturday at 111⅝.

The following shows the course of the market during the week:

	Opening.	*Highest.*	*Lowest.*	*Closing.*
Monday, Dec. 7	111½	111½	111¼	111¼
Tuesday, Dec. 8	111¼	111¼	110⅝	110⅝
Wednesday, Dec. 9	110⅝	111⅛	110⅝	110⅝
Thursday, Dec. 10	110⅝	111⅛	110⅜	111¼
Friday, Dec. 11	111⅜	111¾	111⅜	111⅝
Saturday, Dec. 12	111⅜	111⅝	111¼	111⅝

The shipments of specie for the week amounted to $2,774,900, making the total for the year, $54,784,833, against $46,732,116 last year, and $68,081,772 in 1872.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 24, 1874.

The Week.

ON Wednesday of last week, the District of Columbia Bill came up in the Senate and the Legislative Appropriation Bill in the House. During the debate on the latter, an attempt was made to revive the franking privilege by striking out an appropriation for official postage stamps, and Mr. Kelley of Pennsylvania supported the old system with considerable earnestness, arguing that the free circulation of the agricultural report alone "more than paid all the fraud that might have been practised under it"; but the attempt failed by a vote of 71 to 77. Gen. Butler reported a new Supplementary Civil-Rights Bill, which resembles the one passed by the Senate at the last session, except that it permits separate schools, and omits all reference to cemeteries. On the next day, in the course of a debate on the Appropriation Bill, it was discovered that the Post-office was paying $4,200 a year for the rent of a house worth $18,000. The property, it turned out, belonged to Shepherd, and the lease had been reported on by Mullet; no satisfactory explanation was given, and the appropriation was cut down. In the Senate the District of Columbia Bill was again taken up, and Mr. Morton strongly opposed the disfranchising clauses. On Friday, the day was mainly devoted to the reception of King Kalakaua, while in the consideration of the Appropriation Bill in the House Mr. Beck charged the Department of Justice with being "honeycombed with frauds," and more specifically with corruptly dismissing appeals in cotton cases, declared that in the Louisiana case the Attorney-General had been "a more guilty man than Judge Durell himself," and promised to make good his accusations; this attack, however, resulted for the day only in a laughable discussion between Mr. Garfield and the Democrats as to the parliamentary character of the terms "vampires," "thieves," "robbers," and "swindlers," when applied to officers of the Government.

The only business of importance in the Senate on Monday was the introduction by Mr. Sherman of the Finance Committee's Resumption Bill. The District of Columbia Bill was then debated, the argument turning on the point whether popular elections in the District were or were not a failure. On the same day a very important resolution was introduced in the House by Mr. Holman of Indiana, pledging Congress to refuse all subsidies in money, bonds, lands, or credit to private companies, and limiting all appropriations at present to the imperative necessities of the public service. This resolution received 149 votes in the affirmative to 75 in the negative. Two-thirds were required to suspend the rules, so that the resolution was not adopted, but the overwhelming majority shows probably the temper of the House, and the fate that is in store for the schemes of Scott and Jay Cooke, the application of the Pacific Mail Company, the double-track steel-rail freight railroad from Council Bluffs to New York, and the canal warming-pan movement. From the gratification with which this vote has been received by the press and the people generally, we believe we may say that the present Congress has at last succeeded in discovering the real sentiment of the country as to subsidies, bonuses, bounties, and all other plans for using the credit of the Government for the sake of saving embarrassed persons the necessity of paying their debts.

The Senate passed the Resumption Bill on Tuesday by a vote of 32 to 14. The principal features of this measure are: a provision for the resumption of specie payments in 1879, by the use of the surplus gold in the Treasury at that date, and, should this prove insufficient, the sale of bonds to replenish the stock; the coining of silver by the Treasury as fast as possible, to be put in circulation in lieu of the fractional currency; the removal of all restrictions on the number of national banks and the volume of national bank-notes; and the withdrawal and destruction of greenbacks to the amount of eighty per cent. of all bank currency thus issued. To this we are sorry to offer the following objections, which, let us add, are tolerably obvious to persons possessing even a limited acquaintance with financial matters: 1. That nothing that is known with regard to the demands on the world's available stock of gold warrants the belief that a portion of it sufficient for the purposes of resumption could be accumulated in this country for any length of time without causing a serious financial crisis, as long as the Government paper, which is to be offered for redemption, bears a discount of twelve to fourteen per cent.; and that the only way of getting rid of this discount, and thus making the demand for redemption less heavy and pressing, is such a diminution in the volume of the paper as will bring it to par with gold; and that if this par were but established there is every reason to believe that resumption could be begun and carried out almost without exciting attention. 2. That it is not possible to keep silver in circulation as long as the discount on paper legal-tenders stands as high as it does now, and that the point to which it must be brought down in order to keep silver afloat can be readily ascertained at any exchange broker's office in this city, if not Washington; and that it would be too bad to plunge Mr. Bristow into such an experiment as that which made Mr. Richardson ridiculous. 3. That the demand for more bank-notes does not exist, as is shown by the working of the present law, and that, therefore, the proposed measure would either produce no effect on the volume of the currency at all, or would increase it, and therefore prove a means of inflation; and any banking scheme which does not involve redemption in coin is a mockery and delusion and a snare.

At this moment American silver coin is selling at 97 cents on the dollar in gold—that is, at a premium of 108 in currency. The price, however, is a fancy one, caused by a demand from certain localities which would be filled were it not for the smallness of the supply. As large an increase as this bill would create could not be marketed above its value as bullion. Silver bullion rules at present unusually low, and the recent news from the Comstock lode makes a further decline more probable than an advance. Therefore, it is possible that a silver currency at our present standard might circulate so long as gold remained under 8 to 10 per cent. premium. But gold stands considerably higher than this now, and silver would therefore be exported as fast as it was issued, and we should find ourselves reduced to postage-stamps for small change, as in the first year of the war. Stated roughly, the rule is that whenever one hundred ounces of our standard silver will bring more in foreign markets than can be bought here for $125 in paper currency, we cannot keep silver in circulation. If these facts are not generally known in Washington, we will undertake to prove them before a joint committee of investigation, if it will come here for the purpose with power to send for persons and papers; and we trust Mr. Bristow will in the meantime cry out lustily, and not allow himself to be placed in a false position.

The new bill for the government of the District provides for the creation of a department to be called the Department of the District of Columbia, with a board of three regents at the head of it, to be appointed by the President and Senate, and removable by the President for cause, with a term of six years, salaries of $4,500, and almost the whole power of government; no officers to be elected by the people except three members of the Board of Education; fixes

the rate of taxation at two per cent, and makes all taxes payable into the United States Treasury through the Collector of Internal Revenue. Mr. Morrill, of Maine, has the bill in charge.

Irwin still refuses to tell what he did with the $750,000 given him by the Pacific Mail Company to get their subsidy bill through Congress. He swears that he paid none of it to "any Senator or any Member of Congress, or any officer of the present Congress who was a member or officer of the Forty-second Congress"; but this has not satisfied everybody. Mr. Dawes pointed out on Monday, in making a motion to have Irwin arrested and brought before the bar of the House, that it is extremely unlikely that his method of getting the bill through was by walking up and down the "halls of debate" with a bag of gold, distributing it among the members as he went along; and the House agreed to the motion, after listening to some remarks from General Butler and Mr. Alexander Stephens, who expressed the opinion that Congress had not the power to punish for contempt, while General Butler went further and maintained that Congressional investigations were of no value except as "mud-machines." As he has expressed the same opinion with regard to investigations as carried on by the press, we can only infer that he is opposed to human investigation altogether, and would prefer to leave such matters as Crédit-Mobilier frauds, Pacific Mail subsidies, and Sanborn contracts to a higher court of appeal. Messrs. Beck, Dawes, and other members convinced the House, however, that this was an erroneous position, and the motion passed.

The President has issued a proclamation, at the request of the Legislature of Mississippi, calling on the whites in Warren County to cease their riotous proceedings, and go to their homes within five days. What is to be the next step is not stated, but we suppose Governor Ames will reinstate, or attempt to reinstate, the sheriff of the county, over whose official bond a great deal of the trouble originally arose. It is difficult to make out what grounds for the proclamation there are now, as there has not been any fighting at Vicksburg for two weeks, and if the State government is not strong enough to keep the peace in a single town it must be in so very feeble a condition as to need permanent assistance. As to the character of the Warren County disturbances, all accounts agree that the whites used no actual violence till the negroes marched upon the city; but that the proceedings which led to the resignations of all the black office-holders were decidedly revolutionary there can be little doubt either. That is to say, the whites, driven to desperation by the misgovernment of the place, paid domiciliary visits in unnecessary numbers to the office-holders, and with the greatest politeness informed them that on the whole it would be for the greatest interest of the greatest number if they resigned their offices without unnecessary delay. A visit of this sort to a person in authority, however politely it is done, will naturally be looked on by him as an act of intimidation, and he will regard his resignation as obtained by duress, though he was neither knocked on the head until he signed it, nor ridden out of the place on a rail with a coat of tar and feathers.

Mississippi is a thoroughly negro State. Not only is there an actual negro majority on which the Republican Government rests, but this majority is said to be increasing from the overflow of the negro population from the neighboring States. In Vicksburg they have had such complete control that they have been able to bid defiance to the law itself. Having governed the place as corruptly and ignorantly as possible, and having been indicted for it, to prevent expulsion from office they steal the judicial records of the indictments. This theft was the real cause of the rising of the whites, and though we regret the violence and loss of life which ensued, it seems an almost inevitable result of the state of society and government. The Cincinnati *Commercial* and the Hartford *Courant* have published interesting letters from the scene of the fight, but though there seems no doubt that the complaint of the whites as to the sheriff's bond was a mere quibble, there is as little that the difficulty between the blacks and whites is too deep to be settled by anything short of a revolution like that which has taken place in so many other Southern States, handing the machinery of the government over to the stronger and, on the whole, better race. As an illustration of the character of the Vicksburg government, the *Commercial* correspondent quotes a Republican and ex-Federal soldier, who has been living there for ten years, as saying that neither the sheriff nor any of his deputies could write a simple return; while the clerk of the Chancery Court, Davenport, was not able to enter a plain continuance on the records. Another election, we believe for sheriff, is to be held in a few days.

The concern now so well known as the "Emma Silver Mining Company (limited)" has been brought before Vice-Chancellor Malins in the English Court of Chancery, on the application of a stockholder, named Askew, for an order to enable him to examine the books and papers in aid of a petition, which he has filed, to wind up the company. After hearing counsel against the motion, the Vice-Chancellor at once granted it, saying that "the case made by the petition was one of gross fraud on the part of the original promoters of the company"; that the shareholders had been led to expect dividends of 70 or 80 per cent.; "that dividends of 1½ per cent. a month had been paid for the period of ten months," but the money had been borrowed for the last two; that "enormous sums had been obtained from the shareholders upon the faith of statements which to all appearance were totally untrue." We may now add that there is at least a fair prospect of light being let in on this nefarious transaction on both sides of the water. The new board of directors and a new solicitor of the company recently took office, and they at once determined to make an attempt to bring the principal promoter of the swindle to justice, cost what it might. Indeed, there is a stockholder in England, whose assistance, however, they have declined to accept, who offers to spend ten thousand pounds of his own money, if necessary, in trying to effect this object. The chairman of the board, therefore, General Gardiner, and Mr. Turner the solicitor, came to this country about three months ago on what Dr. Wines would call a "penological" excursion; and, after a full examination of the whole matter in Utah, have begun a suit against Trenor W. Park, Senator Stewart of Nevada, and General Baxter, for fraud and conspiracy, for $5,000,000, and will push it vigorously to the bitter end. In the suit which Park's manager at the mine, Silas Williams, has brought against the *Nation*, we only hoped to lay one chapter in the fraud before the public, but now we think we can promise the whole story—and a shameful story it is, full of mischief to honest American enterprises and of disgrace for the American name. Park has just got control of the Panama Railroad, and Stewart is of course known to everybody as a rich "Administration Senator."

The mention of the Emma leads us to say a word or two about our Minister, General Schenck. The retention of him in a place which, before the late reform in the civil service began, was reserved for Americans of the highest standing and character, is perhaps one of the worst incidents in the history of the coarse and venal régime under which we now live, to which the late elections gave such a stinging blow, and to which all honest men will be prepared, we trust, to give another, and a finishing one, two years hence, should it be necessary. He has been principally known and contemned in English society for the last years for his connection with the Emma Mine and his skill as a player of "poker." So little sensitiveness does he possess, however, that he has just brought out a hand-book of "poker" in a little green pamphlet, for private circulation—a work which we need hardly say has still further raised him and his country in foreign eyes. To crown all, he went down, the other day, to a public dinner at Sheffield, and bragged of the field which America offered for English investments, and joked over the fact that some of them were not very profitable, knowing well of what particular investment his audience were thinking, with a coarse cynicism worthy of Fisk, jr.

The controversy in England over the effect of the Decrees of the Vatican Council and the *ex-cathedrâ* utterances of the Pope on the civil allegiance of Catholics continues, and, if we may judge from the letters and reports in the newspapers, the confusion grows greater. The Catholic theologians, of all shades of opinion, differ greatly about all the matters in dispute. They differ about the nature and extent of the Pope's infallibility before the meeting of the Council; about the nature and effect of the Decrees of the Council; about the extent of the Pope's jurisdiction—that is, about the meaning of the term "faith and morals" and of the term "*ex cathedrâ*"—and in fact, humanly speaking, about everything necessary to form a judgment as to the precise position the Pope now occupies. In the controversy between Mr. Martin Archer Shee, a Catholic barrister, and Dr. Johnson, Archbishop Manning's private secretary, as to the regularity of the proceedings of the Council, and especially of the form in which the Decrees were adopted, it seems clear, to the carnal eye, that Dr. Johnson got the worst of it. Lord Acton, nothing daunted, has come forward with his authorities for the charges he recently made against former Popes, and has apparently held his ground on all points. Mr. De Lisle, too, a well-known Catholic gentleman who has founded an abbey on his estates and built several Catholic churches, writes an approval of Gladstone's pamphlet, and protests strongly against the reckless statements of Monsignor Capel and Monsignor Patterson with regard to the Pope's authority, and says "such pretensions will be endured no longer." Mgr. Capel, in the meantime, shows a disposition to take in sail, and tries to explain away the phrase, "personal infallibility of the Pope," which he used, and somebody else shows that Mgr. Patterson's wild talk in the *Contemporary Review* was really justified by the language of the bull *Unam Sanctam*. In fact, nearly everybody in the fight has thus far produced a bull or decree to justify him. This bull was called out by a Papal quarrel with Philip the Fair, and declared that it was "absolutely necessary for salvation to every human creature to be subject to the sovereign pontiff"; which drew from Philip a vigorous denial of this doctrine, so far as temporals were concerned, in which he addressed the Pope as "Your Folly" (*Tua Fatuitas*)—instead of "Your Holiness"—a form which apparently does not lose its use as the ages roll on.

Apropos of all this, a very large gathering of English Catholics, both clerical and lay, is reported at Rome, and the correspondent of the London *Times* gives as a credible rumor the story that the English Bishops have submitted a plan for something in the nature of a Catholic revival in England—to be carried out by the establishment of new Catholic missions and periodicals, and the increased endowment of Catholic schools and colleges, with professors renowned for combined piety and learning, the raising of the standard of culture for parish priests, and the extension of the operations of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul. It would appear, too, from a lecture recently delivered in Dublin by Father Burke, at which Cardinal Cullen presided, that the church, as far as Great Britain is concerned, is disposed to take the scientific bull by the horns, and accept any theory of the origin of life the philosophers may please to suggest which does not go behind matter, and in this way bring Huxley and Tyndall to confusion. This course is facilitated by the fact that the church is not tied to the Bible as the Protestants are, and makes Dr. Draper's theory that science and the Catholic Church cannot be "reconciled," while science and the Protestant Church can, look somewhat doubtful. The *Osservatore Romano*, the organ of the Vatican, in the meantime attempts none of the compromises or explanations of the English divines. It says, apropos of Gladstone's pamphlet, that modern civilization had its origin through Protestantism, "that is to say, through an open and wicked rebellion against Christ, and its increment through the struggles of rabid sophists," and that he who opposes it "is a servant of God, a worthy successor of the martyrs, a vindicator of true liberty." Of the Pope's Syllabus it says, "Unhappy is he who does not recognize it as his law, a law superior to all laws, because it is divine."

Dr. Kenealy, the hero of the Tichborne trial, has at last been disbarred by the benchers of Gray's Inn, to which he belonged, and the Lord Chancellor had previously, we believe, either resolved to strike his name from the list of Queen's Counsel, or had actually done so. He has appealed to the judges. His career has been a strange one. He is a man of brilliant talents, of great forensic power, of high literary culture and considerable legal learning, and has achieved distinction as a writer of English verse, and, in spite of an erratic temper, had succeeded at the bar, and was made Queen's Counsel, we believe, in 1868. His behavior at the Tichborne trial was, however, very bad, and since then he has started and conducted a scurrilous paper called the *Englishman*, for the purpose of avenging himself on his enemies, a category which includes the judges, the jury in the Tichborne case, the leading members of the bar, and especially the members of his own Inn, all of whom he blackguarded in the regular Yahoo style, with which more than one organ of public opinion has made us familiar here. After standing it a good while, the benchers of Gray's Inn, of whom he is one, expelled him, and some public comment has been excited by the fact that the tribunal which has thus kicked him out of his profession was composed, in part at least, of his personal enemies; to which the tribunal replies that it resembles a court-martial, and its members are therefore no more disqualified for sitting on him than the officers of a regiment or a brigade are for sitting on one of their own number, by whom they have been insulted, and who has been generally insubordinate and disorderly.

The Deputies from Alsace-Lorraine in the German Parliament have for some time shown a disposition, by no means unnatural, to make themselves slightly unpleasant to the Imperial Government, and even to put on an air not only of being oppressed but of being irreconcilable. The other day they objected stoutly to a loan bill introduced on behalf of their province, on the ground that it provided for too large an endowment of the Strassburg University, and made appropriations for educational purposes in the interest of the empire rather than of the provinces themselves. This drew from Bismarck one of those declarations which his enemies call brutal, and which doubtless are brutal, but which have the sovereign merit of doing away with all misunderstanding, and letting everybody know where he stands. In fact, we can hardly avoid considering it an act of kindness to the Alsace-Lorrainers. He said the bill, it was quite true, did concern the empire and not the provinces in question; that the university is to serve imperial purposes; that the provinces were conquered for the benefit of the empire, and are retained for the benefit of the empire; that the conduct of the deputies in the Imperial Parliament showed that a Provincial Parliament would not work; that his policy with regard to Alsace-Lorraine would "always be guided by the interests of the empire and its safety; that he would not be frightened from his course by reproaches, threats, or intimidation," and that he built his hopes of peace and tranquillity on the rising generation, and must, therefore, see to their education.

Count Arnim has been found guilty and sentenced to three months' imprisonment, the month he has already undergone to pass as part of the penalty. Nothing has transpired to enable one to form any clearer judgment as to the moral aspect of the treatment inflicted on him. It appears to be very plain, however, that he had acted illegally, perhaps defiantly, and in violation of good order and discipline, but then some allowance has to be made for the effect on a man of the Count's temper and antecedents of his own estimate of himself and his importance, and of the habits bred by long and intimate friendship with his chief. The affair has ended somewhat ludicrously for those who believed it would result in Bismarck's overthrow, or would lead to any startling revelations. A correspondent in another column furnishes some useful information as to the law of the matter.

THE LEGAL-TENDERS AND "THE DEBTOR CLASS."

THE proposal made by the Secretary of the Treasury that the Legal-Tender Act should be repealed at an early day as regards future contracts, has caused a good deal of commotion among those politicians who have taught themselves that irredeemable paper is the true foundation of popular government; so much so that Mr. Kelley—whose sanity is vouched for by Mr. George W. Blunt—declares it would be "the greatest crime committed since the partition of Poland." It has caused, too, more or less apprehension among that remarkable body of persons now known in political discussion as "the debtor class," and who are popularly supposed to be very poor and needy and in constant fear of a visit from the sheriff, but who, whenever one calls for names and goes into particulars, are usually found living in large mansions, in Beacon Street, Fifth Avenue, and Chestnut Street, with huge safes stuffed full of stocks and bonds, but especially stocks.

Now, we are among the number of those who hold that Mr. Bristow's plan would be not only harmless as regards future contracts, but as harmless as regards all contracts as any change in the currency of which due notice is given can ever be; and that the popular fondness for the legal-tender character of the Government paper is based on a delusion as to the power of Government over any paper not redeemable in coin—a delusion current even among educated men ever since 1861, and of which Mr. Chase took advantage in a very adroit way when he issued paper-money in sufficient quantities to give his bonds the appearance of being sold at par when they were really being sold at sixty cents on the dollar. Whenever the history of the war comes to be thoroughly written, with due attention to the civil side of the struggle, the state of the popular mind on this subject will furnish materials for a chapter of extraordinary interest, as illustrative of the curious psychological support which even a system of bad finance may draw from patriotic enthusiasm. The opinion has prevailed from the date of the first issue of greenbacks almost down to this hour that the poor and "the debtor class," and in fact consumers generally, were protected in some way against creditors and vendors by the fact that the greenbacks were made a legal-tender. The truth is that neither the Government nor anybody else, except debtors on contracts made before the war, derived any advantage from it whatever. All persons who had made contracts before 1861, or during the years 1861-2, falling due before 1864 or until the decline in gold set in, undoubtedly made money by the payment of their creditors in the depreciated paper. On the other hand, all persons who made contracts in the years 1862-3-4 which have matured since 1865, have lost money, owing to the appreciation of the paper since that time, so that it may be said that "the debtor class," as a whole, has made very little if anything by paper legal-tenders. Any one who made contracts during or before the year 1862 payable any time before the close of 1869, profited by the legal-tenders. Any one who made contracts in 1863 payable before 1869, came out about even; any one who made contracts in 1864 payable any time since that, however, has lost heavily. The debtors of 1865, in like manner, only escaped by paying in or before 1869. The same may be said of the debtors of 1866, 1867, and 1868.

In fact, the following table of the average price of gold each year—based on the highest price of each month, and dropping the fractions—from 1862 to 1873, will show better than anything we can say the vicissitudes through which "the debtor class" has passed since the suspension of specie payments, in spite of the legal-tenders:

1862	118	1868	142
1863	154	1869	137
1864	220	1870	117
1865	166	1871	112
1866	146	1872	114
1867	139	1873	115

It will thus be seen that the greenback has risen over thirty-three per cent. in value as compared to gold since the war, or, in other words, that a man who made a contract in 1865 has, in paying his obligations under it now, to pay one-third more in the money of the world, or foreign goods, than he contemplated at that period. In the years 1869-70, the greenbacks rose in value fully one-seventh, which ought, under the theories we hear propounded as to the dreadful effects that would result from a further rise of ten or eleven per cent., to have ruined the debtors of 1869, but as yet there has not been, so far as we have heard, a word of complaint from them. They appear, in fact, to be able to stand any fluctuations in the value of the currency, however great, as long as they do not bring us back to specie payments or a gold basis, and remind one of a patient who should say to his physician, "Physic me, doctor! amputate my legs and arms, cauterize, cup, bleed, or trepan me as much as you please, but for heaven's sake don't cure me, or I shall die."

Nothing, too, could illustrate more forcibly than this table the fallacy of supposing that the legal-tender quality of the greenbacks gave them any stability in value, or did anything for them beyond making them an effective instrument in the hands of such debtors as were able to pay off their liabilities, previously contracted, between 1862 and 1865. Nor did the Government gain more by it than private persons, as any one may satisfy himself by an examination of the prices it had to pay for the commodities it purchased during the war, and the rates in gold at which it sold its bonds. Its paper circulated, as nearly as can be ascertained, precisely as one might have expected it to circulate as a promissory note of the United States, which nobody need have taken unless he pleased. The non-interest-bearing notes of such a government would, like its interest-bearing bonds, always have had a certain value in the market, which would have been, we venture to assert, about what that of the greenbacks was. They would have risen and fallen, according to the quantity of them issued, and according to the ups and downs of the war, as the legal-tenders actually did. Moreover, they would have been used as currency pretty much as the legal-tenders were. There is a notion afloat, which the admirers of the greenbacks studiously spread and uphold, that Government notes without the legal-tender character would not have circulated as money unless they were redeemable in coin at the Treasury on demand, but there is no foundation for this either in the history of finance or in our experience of human nature. Anything which furnishes a convenient currency, and which has a fair prospect of redemption some time or other, always circulates in hard times *at some rate*. Indeed, there are numerous examples of the circulation of things as currency which had no intrinsic value, and were never likely to have any, because they supplied for the moment the needs of trade. The greenbacks would always have circulated, as the promises to pay of a powerful nation, though of course at an open discount instead of a covert one. Gold would not have gone wholly out of use, because there would have been a certain demand for it. So that when you asked the price of a thing you would have been told what it was in coin, and also what it was in paper, and you would doubtless have been allowed to pay in either; for the notion that dealers refuse to carry on business unless they can get payment in the money they prefer, instead of the money customers find it most convenient to give them, is another of those illusions got up by "the debtor class," and which also has no foundation in experience. Dealers always sell for the kind of money the mass of customers have to offer, and protect themselves against its possible badness in fixing their price. This is what they would have done in taking greenbacks, even if greenbacks had never been made a legal-tender. This, too, is exactly what they did after greenbacks had been made a legal-tender. "The debtor class" supposed foolishly that when they went into a store and asked the price of a thing, and the storekeeper gave it them in paper, he thought nothing about the real price in gold; and that this forgetfulness of his was due to the salutary legal-tender feature stamped on the paper by the wisdom of Congress. But there could not be a greater mistake. When he marked his price on a piece of goods, he always calculated, first what it cost him in gold, and then what he would sell it at in paper; and in doing this he considered first what the discount on paper was at that moment, and then added it to his paper price. Then he considered what the discount might become under the influence of fresh issues or military disasters when he

came to pay his notes, or renew his stock, and added something more in order to cover the risk thus incurred. If we were to-day to ask any dealer in the United States whether in marking his goods at any time since 1861, the legal-tender character of the greenbacks made any difference to him, he would be pretty certain to reply that he never thought of them except as paper in which he would probably be paid, and which was at that time depreciated in the market, and likely to remain so. The notion that it was money like gold did not enter into his head. He dealt with it as he would deal with cowries in Africa or government notes in Hayti. It was only barbarian politicians like Logan, or ignorant negroes, who made fetish of it, and worshipped or wept over it.

The Government ought not, however, to do anything to the paper which may possibly change its value as between parties to existing contracts, except as a means of redeeming it in gold. It was guilty of a great wrong when it in this manner interfered with existing contracts in 1861. That wrong was recognized fully when the war was over; and the Supreme Court attempted to prevent its continuous perpetration, when all semblance of excuse for it had ceased, by the decision in Hepburn *v.* Griswold, which was afterwards set aside by the intervention of two new judges, the majority of the Court then deciding in effect that the power of raising forced loans and permitting debtors to defraud their creditors was constitutional, and might prove necessary to the national safety. This was a great misfortune; for the interference of a government to disappoint the reasonable and lawful expectations of men in their private dealings is the mode in which national swindling is most commonly committed. It ought not, therefore, to be repeated. Any man who has made a contract which he expected to pay, and his creditor expected him to pay, in greenbacks, at such discount as prevailed in the market, ought not to be disappointed by any legislation which has not for its object the fulfilment of Government obligations. But Mr. Bristow does not propose any such disappointment. He proposes simply that any man who makes a contract now, payable on or after a certain date, shall understand that it will be payable in coin, and nothing else. There is nothing objectionable about this. It simply makes legally imperative the calculation which prudent men have always hitherto made, whether openly or privately. Every man who has made contracts during the last fourteen years has really made his calculations in gold, though he may have expressed them in paper. What Mr. Bristow proposes now is that he shall not only make but express them in gold. There is here no interference with the obligation of contracts, and no encouragement or suggestion of any description of fraud; and if the suggestion forms part of a scheme for the redemption of greenbacks in coin within a reasonable period, it is absolutely free from objection of any kind.

THE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE.

THE creation of a new department of the Government by act of Congress in 1870 was looked upon by lawyers generally throughout the country with a good deal of satisfaction. The steady increase of the number of States and of the population of the country, and the growing importance of the business of the United States courts, had begun to render it necessary to organize in some way the legal machinery at Washington. The courts were overrun with business, while the numerous legal officers of the Government, scattered over a vast extent of territory or huddled together in the various bureaus in the District of Columbia, were subject to little or no organized discipline, responsible to no common head, and were frequently engaged in the solution of legal questions at cross-purposes, to the great delay of justice and confusion of law. To remedy these evils, so far as they related to the courts, Congress increased the number of Federal judges, and the new offices were filled by the President to the satisfaction of the public and the legal profession. To remedy the confusion, continually growing worse confounded, in the other branch, it was decided to create a new department of the Government, having at its head the Attorney-General, and under him all the legal advisers of the various departments, as well as the district-attorneys in their various districts, in such a way as to give the Attorney-General for the time being complete control of the suits brought by and of the legal advice given to the United States. The name given the new bureau was the Department of Justice—a misnomer, certainly, for there is little resemblance between an American Attorney-General and a European Minister of Justice. Possibly we may see in the magnification of the title evidence of a vagueness of design on the part of the authors of the bill.

The new judges have, we believe, performed their duties satisfactorily; the Department of Justice has discharged its new functions peculiarly. So far as it was intended to give the Attorney-General more power, and to make him the head of the machinery for executing laws, it has worked admirably. He has for some years made and unmade governors, reprimanded judges, and issued orders for enforcement or non-enforcement of laws through a large part of the country, pretty much at his discretion; and almost the last news from Washington is that a caucus of Southern Republican Congressmen have determined that the only way to restore peace and tranquillity at the South is by appropriating money for the War Department and the Department of Justice, making the appropriation for two years instead of one, so that it may not be interfered with by the Democrats when the next House comes together. It is only a few weeks since it was given out from Washington that a highly respectable judge had earned the displeasure of the Department of Justice, by returning answers to the questions of a grand jury on the construction of statutes of the United States. Indeed, as most of the Attorney-General's important operations do not consist of acts of any kind for which he can be held responsible, but merely of legal opinions, he enjoys perhaps a more utterly irresponsible power than any other officer even of our despotic system. The President may be impeached; members of Congress may be expelled; but when the Attorney-General, having a certain state of facts presented to him, and being asked, on the facts, what is the law, replies that the law is so-and-so, when it is as matter of fact exactly the reverse—for him no punishment is provided, nor even seems possible.

For these reasons, the most important thing in organizing the Department of Justice was the selection of a fit person as Attorney-General. Reforms in departments of government are not automatic. Their character depends generally on that of the men who undertake to carry them out; and it is not due to the censorious disposition of the public that the administration of the Department of Justice has become identified with the name and career of the present Attorney-General, Mr. George H. Williams, he having been the most prominent incumbent of the office since the date of the act of Congress increasing his powers. Mr. Williams has had an opportunity of appearing publicly on some very important occasions, when large interests were involved, and on the whole he has been, strictly speaking, a more conspicuous Attorney-General than any of his distinguished predecessors. He has appeared as legal adviser to the Government in all the Reconstruction cases which have arisen; he has undertaken on behalf of the Government to recover large sums of money of which it was unquestionably defrauded by the Crédit-Mobilier corporators; he has attempted to guide the Government through the intricacies of the *Virginius* case; he has very recently advised the Government with regard to the Pacific Mail subsidy; he has been a candidate for the Chief-Justiceship. In some of these cases his knowledge of the law has been put to the test, in others his judgment and discretion, and in his candidature for the Supreme Court his whole previous life and character were carefully examined. From the glare of publicity which has been shed upon his office, we are in a position to determine pretty accurately the character and value of the "Department of Justice." We shall not attempt to discuss here the Attorney-General's proceedings and advice under the Reconstruction acts, but merely touch upon certain points lying wholly without the domain of party politics.

In the *Virginius* case, Mr. Williams had an opportunity of show-

ing what he knew of international law. The *Virginius* was a Cuban vessel, well known to all the world and to the Government to be engaged in a hostile expedition against a friendly state. Her character was indeed a matter of such common notoriety that the Government has been strongly suspected of a grave dereliction of duty in not preventing her ever having the opportunity of making the attempt to invade Cuba. Having been driven off in attempting to land a hostile expedition on the shores of the island, she was captured on the high seas, and, after some hasty drum-head proceedings, large numbers of those on board were shot, some of them being English and some American citizens. This execution furnished a ground for just complaint; but the Attorney-General, on the case being referred to him, decided that the real outrage was not so much the execution as it was the fact that the *Virginius* was flying the American flag at the time of her capture—thus taking the extraordinary position that any pirate or buccaneer who could manage to procure a fraudulent register and a piece of bunting with stars and stripes on it, could bid defiance to any government, hovering about its coasts just three miles out, and landing hostile expeditions whenever opportunities should occur. The capture of the vessel by Spain was justified by one of the fundamental principles of international law—the right of self-defence; and in the end we were obliged to dispense with the salute to the flag, and to bind ourselves to have the *Virginius* and all concerned in the violation of our laws proceeded against in the courts. Meanwhile, the English Government, simply proceeding against Spain on the ground of the massacre, recovered indemnity without having any flag in the case at all. This was a curious termination of the case, looking at it from any point of view; and we are forced to come to the conclusion to which nearly every well-known publicist in the country who has discussed the question seems to have come, including Mr. R. H. Dana, jr., of Boston, the editor of Wheaton, and President Woolsey of Yale College, that the opinion of the Attorney-General shows a singular ignorance of the principles which govern the intercourse of nations.

The law of nations, however, is, in the opinion of some jurists, so difficult to reduce to fixed rules, and so coarse in the sanctions it imposes, that they are inclined to devote themselves to other branches. If Mr. Williams belonged to this class, it would be fairer to compare him with men like O'Conor and the late Judge Curtis, than with Mr. Webster; and his friends might on this account prefer to have him judged by his opinions on questions of municipal law. The Pacific Railroad was built, as every one knows, by the Crédit-Mobilier Company, and the money came from the United States. The construction was, from first to last, tainted with fraud, and after the exposure in Congress it was determined to recover the money in the courts. Into the question of the proper method of doing this it is unnecessary to enter here. It is enough to say that Congress passed an act directing the Attorney-General to recover the money in one of the United States Courts. The interests involved were enormous: the defendants were represented by the ablest lawyers that could be found in the country; the United States were represented by Mr. Williams. Whether he had a strong case or a weak case we shall not definitely know until it is decided by the Supreme Court at Washington; but as to how well the Government's interests were represented by him there is no doubt. He made a failure; he made even so bad an appearance, and exposed so much ignorance of his case and his duties, that the contrast between himself and Mr. Evarts (himself an ex-Attorney-General), became almost painfully ludicrous.

Turning to the Pacific Mail case, we find that the matter of the payment of the subsidy was recently turned over to the Attorney-General. The Pacific Mail is a company which hardly belongs to a class that we should expect Government officials to look on with a favorable eye in doubtful cases. It is, to be sure, an American line; but, on the other hand, its stock is the foot-ball of speculators; its management is so reckless that a list of ten ships has been recently made out as lost by it; and, worse than this, it is strongly suspected that the act authorizing the subsidy was obtained by fraud and corruption. Add to this the fact that the subsidy was to be paid to the company on the condition of their having ships of a certain class to perform the service, and you have the case which the Attorney-General had before him. There was a clear technical default on the part of the company, and at the first blush it would seem that the Government had an excellent opportunity of getting out of a very suspicious bargain. Under these circumstances, the Attorney-General decided in favor of the subsidy, and on the ground of the *bona fides* of the company. The case, it will be seen, was a mixed matter of fact and law, and involved no delicate points of international or municipal jurisprudence. It was rather a case involving discretion and good sense.

But we have not only had these public illustrations of Mr. Williams's judgment and forensic skill and legal attainments, we have also had an indirect official enquiry into his qualifications for office, when the Senate had his name under consideration for the Chief-Justiceship. It was then discovered, not that his character was bad, for we doubt whether the "charges" under which he was laboring at the time were substantially proved, but that he was no lawyer. He had acquired what legal experience he possessed in Oregon. He proved to be, in fact, a politician who turned his law to account in the scramble for place, but professionally had neither reputation nor the right to it. Indeed, his nomination was publicly denounced by the Bar Association of this city as that of a man "wanting" in the qualifications of "intellect, experience, and reputation." It is safe to say that the evidence brought before the Senate at that time showed him quite as unfit to be the head of the "Department of Justice" as to be Chief-Justice.

Such is the professional history, so far as the public knows it, of Mr. Williams and his Department. There may have been a multitude of cases which he has decided correctly; as he has many faithful subordinates, the routine work of the office may have been well done where he has not interfered with it. But the cases in which a minister of justice puts himself to the test are the public and notorious ones in which he appears as the chief legal officer of the country. Particularly is this so when he appears before the country in charge of machinery for the improvement of a branch of administration. As we observed the other day, "reform" in the minds of nine-tenths of the people who demand it does not mean a mere change or amendment of laws—it means the substitution of men fitted by character, reputation, ability, and attainments in positions of trust and authority for incompetent or corrupt place-hunters. When the Department of Justice was instituted, the Administration had a good opportunity for improvement within narrow and well-defined limits, but people smile now when they hear of the "Department of Justice," because it means merely to them Mr. George H. Williams. We doubt if the Democrats, should they carry the next Presidential election, will have any better field for the exercise of their loudly-expressed desire for reform than in the appointment of Mr. Williams's successor.

SCIENTIFIC MEN AS PUBLIC TEACHERS.

A CORRESPONDENT raises in another column a question of considerable interest (apropos of what we have recently said of Professor Tyndall's utterances at Belfast), which seems to call for a fuller explanation of our meaning. Mr. Tyndall's views as to the origin of life have undoubtedly great psychological interest. So have those of any eminent physicist who is constantly working, as he is, on the edge of the great mystery, and, even in a trifling degree, pushing back its limits. But then his views in the case under discussion were not offered as a psychological study, but as a real contribution to the explanation of a problem of great moment; and our objection to his offering them in the way in which he did offer them is justifiable, we think, on grounds which we shall state as briefly as possible.

Science is in all but undisputed possession of the physical world, and it is making claims which grow stronger every day to jurisdiction over the moral and mental world, which it insinuates, if it does not allege, are but provinces of the physical world. The scientific man not only tells me how the earth was prepared for me to inhabit, and how I grew on its surface into the kind of

animal that I am—"an unstable chemical combination," held together by an instrumentality which he calls "vital force"—but he says he is almost certain that my mental action, and consequently my morals, are the result of chemical or mechanical changes in the structure of my brain, and that he greatly doubts whether my freedom of the will, over which I crow so much as distinguishing me from the brutes, is not an illusion; for he adds that he is at present engaged in the study of sociology as well as of biology, and expects to show us before long that though he cannot tell how any one of us will behave, he is able to predict pretty accurately how a herd of us, forming what we call a nation, will conduct ourselves under given circumstances. In fact, he knows all about us, either jointly or severally. He knows the origin and composition of our bodies, the source of our gestures, appetites, affections, tastes, and customs; the origin and history of our habitat; the effect on our structure and mental action of all gases, deposits, exposures, permeations, and environments of every description. He is competent, and he maintains that nobody else is, to tell us what to eat, drink, and avoid—when to marry, how to bring up our children; to indicate the source of our vices, and determine the exact nature and extent of what we call our moral responsibility; and to point out the proper mode of getting rid of our disgusting remains after death.

Now, these claims taken together really constitute a demand on our physical and moral submission and obedience such as were never made by any order of priests since the world began. They make the pretensions of the Pope and the Councils seem slight and shadowy, because while the Church has always had a clear-cut theory of the universe, she has admitted that the world was governed by an apparently capricious Deity, whose purposes she could not reveal, though it was her business to appease him. The scientific man, on the other hand, professes to be the minister of a power in whom is really no variableness, and whose plans can be foreshadowed, and whose rule over the universe is absolute, and of whose requirements he, in his character of chemist, or biologist, or physiologist, or naturalist, is the only interpreter. We doubt much whether the contempt of a mediæval doctor for a lay opinion on a theological question was any greater than that of a natural philosopher in our day for a non-scientific opinion on a scientific question; and, as we have just pointed out, *all* questions are rapidly becoming scientific questions.

But no matter what solution of the problem of liberty and necessity sociologists may reach, the fact is that the great bulk of the work of the world will always have to be done on the theory that man's will is free. By this we do not mean to lay down dogmatically, with the metaphysicians, that men's voluntary actions are in any part undetermined by what has preceded and accompanies them in the characters and circumstances of the agents; or are absolutely capricious, baffling the computation of infinite intelligence; we mean only that to finite intelligences (including the scientific men) the case is *practically* as the metaphysicians put it. All that is essential in what we maintain against the preaching of the "scientists" is, that men's actions, whether determined or not by their antecedents and surroundings, cannot be scientifically predicted or guided, even so well as the weather; or can be foreknown only in vague outlines, and in particulars which are dubiously volitional. Such prediction and guidance as are possible in the simplest of the physical sciences, astronomy, and in the exactest of useful and experimental arts, are as impossible in human actions (notwithstanding the pretensions of the scientists) as if these actions were absolutely free from the law of causation. The poor fellow whose case Professor Huxley commented on at Belfast, as a suggestion, if not more, of the hypothesis that man is an automaton, was not and could not be treated as an automaton by his officers when they were holding the burning village of Bazeilles, amid sights and sounds of the utmost horror. By far the larger part of human activity will always have to be aroused or stimulated by agencies by no means scientific. Doctors, lawyers, ministers, teachers, legislators, soldiers, editors, must always play a very prominent part in carrying on human society, and must constantly rely for success on processes which a scientific man might smile over. Mr. Herbert Spencer, in his latest work on the 'Study of Sociology,' twitting Mr. Gladstone on some of this gentleman's objections to the doctrine of evolution, nevertheless treats his mental attitude, which is one of combined reliance on Providence and on human exertion, as an illustration of "the healthful process of compromise between the old and the new" which is going on in the public mind generally in our day. He mentions as other illustrations of the same thing the fact that when the Prince of Wales "outlived certain abnormal changes in his blood," on his recovery "providential aid and natural causation were unitedly recognized by a thanksgiving to God and a baronetcy to the doctor;" and he adds that "while the prayers with which each legislative sitting commences show a nominal belief in an immediate Divine guidance, the votes with which the sitting ends, given in pursuance of reasons which the speeches assign, show us a real belief that the effects will be determined by the agencies set to work." Mr. Spencer evidently, however, thinks this state of mind is of recent origin, and is transitory, and that "the old" will before long give way wholly to "the new." This is a point on which we may, however, permit ourselves to differ with him. There is about as much chance of any such consummation as there is of the mass of men receiving a thorough scientific training. The "compromise" is as old as civilization itself. To go no further back, Cæsar, after the defeat of Sabinus and Cotta, held out the prospect of deliverance to the troops through "the favor of the immortal gods and their own valor," and Cromwell's advice to his troops in Ireland, "Put your trust in God and keep your powder dry," has almost passed into a proverbial expression of the popular notion of the relation between faith and works. So, still more recently, when the old Scotch judge, Lord Braxfield we think it was, warned a prevaricating witness that "the eye of Almighty God and of the police of Edinburgh was upon him," he mentioned two sanctions for truth-telling which his audience recognized as about equally powerful. People may cease to believe in what we now call Providence, but as long as they sometimes see the best-laid schemes miscarry and the wisest and most heroic efforts fail, or, at other times, see fools and sluggards carry off the prizes of life, they will put in the place of Providence some other deity which scientific men will probably think contemptible. They will worship Fortune or Fate, or, in other words, the disturbing, uncertain element in human life, if they can worship nothing else, until such times as science makes it as easy to govern, or teach, or fight, or cure, or persuade, as to calculate an eclipse or decompose water.

This amounts to saying, however, that the great body of men will always remain to a greater or less extent under the domination of authority in the conduct of their lives. Not knowing themselves where the line lies which separates the certain from the uncertain, they will listen reverently to anybody who does or says he does. The training which will enable a man to stand up against or overhaul the conclusions of the leading scientists of the day on subjects over which they claim jurisdiction, will never be given in schools or colleges to the bulk of any community. The great majority will always have to sit at somebody's feet, and take their truths on trust from somebody who professes to have made a special study of them. In times past the clergy have occupied this relation to the people. There are numerous signs now that the scientific men are gradually taking their place, and that they are by no means unwilling to take it; but it is of great importance that they should not be allowed to make priests of themselves, and that we should not forget that there are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamt of in any man's philosophy. They, like the rest of us, are "unstable combinations," with varying amounts of vital force. They are modified by various external agencies. Their nervous system is disturbed, as is that of the Pope and the bishops, by indigestion, by cold, by heat, by ambition and self-love, and divers other passions. They are consequently, ministers and interpreters of nature though they be, liable to fall into many sorts of errors and illusions, and it is the duty of those who have to live under them to see to it that they do not get into the way, like that with which the clergy have been so often reproached, of considering themselves and science as the same thing, and giving forth their own utterances as if they were hers. They are constantly tempted and stimulated into this attitude by the intoxicating influence of popular admiration. There are already plenty of people ready to receive anything Tyndall or Huxley says as scientific, whether it be a mere guess or the result of experimental demonstration, just as plain Catholics will surely take all the Pope says as "gospel truth," whether he speaks *ex cathedrâ* or not. For instance, we have no doubt that Professor Tyndall's history at Belfast impressed most of his audience as fully as reliable as his pure science, yet on the former he was no authority at all, and made some evident mistakes.

The only way to guard against this sacerdotal tendency—for so we may call it—is to insist on scientific men adhering rigidly to their own rules of reasoning. The public ought not to permit their appearance in the metaphysical or theological arena, to clothe pure speculation with the authority derived, and only derivable, from careful experimentation. The objection to their joining the theologians and metaphysicians in speculating about the first cause, is that in doing so they are departing, which the theologians are not, from their own method, and drawing conclusions which science forbids them to draw. The reason why the public listens to them with deference is, that it believes that they are now the only teachers whose assertions are made on the strength of inductions from facts. In short, the definition given by Newton in the 'Principia' of a scientist's position with regard to such questions as Tyndall touched on at Belfast when he made his "confession" about matter, is one to which the public supposes that scientists in our day adhere, and it is one to which the public ought to insist on their adhering if they are going to play the

part of lecturers on nearly all great moral problems of our time, and are going to make a practice of submitting to promiscuous audiences the darkest and most tremendous suggestions of the laboratory and the dissecting-room. Newton is discussing the source of gravity, just as Tyndall was discussing the source of life, and though Newton is addressing a scientific audience he thus clears his conclusions carefully of all speculative vapor: "But hitherto I have not been able to discover the cause of these properties of gravity from phenomena, and I frame no hypotheses, for whatever is not deduced from phenomena is to be called a hypothesis, and hypotheses, whether metaphysical or physical, whether of occult qualities or mechanical, have no place in experimental philosophy. In this philosophy particular properties are inferred from the phenomena and afterwards rendered general by induction; thus it was that the impenetrability, the mobility and impulsive force of bodies, and the laws of motion and gravitation, were discovered."

Scientific men are, we believe, of opinion now that Newton was too cautious about hypotheses, and had too much aversion to them. Newton treated in such brief and obscure terms of hypothesis and its use in science in the passages usually quoted, that his meaning ought to be sought in his practice. From this it appears evident that he did not mean by the hypotheses he condemned the questions, suppositions, or interrogations of nature, in which his imagination was even more fertile than Kepler's; but any assumptions not proved by induction from phenomena directly, or indirectly through the mathematical deduction of consequences, which could be tested by observation or experiment. In the beginning of his 'System of the World,' he proposes to treat by this latter method, or, as he says, "in a mathematical way," the theory of gravity, or of the *centripetal* force (which is all that he asserts of its nature) that holds the planets in their orbits, "in order to avoid all questions about the nature or quality of this force, which we would not be understood to determine by any hypothesis." Kepler, Descartes, Hooke, and others had attempted such hypotheses; that is, assumptions from which they deduced nothing "in a mathematical way" that if found true would prove the hypothesis, or if false would disprove it. Such were the hypotheses which Newton did not make, or at least tried to avoid, more particularly (it ought to be noted) in respect to the theory of gravity, which he wished especially to disencumber from unnecessary considerations. In hypotheses of the other sort, that is, questions, or *verifiable* hypotheses, no genius was ever more fertile. Their value, and the value of fertility, or even of rashness, in framing them, in the pursuit of scientific truth, are admitted. Every successful explorer probably owes a large measure of his success to his readiness in inventing them; and in fact, all that scientific men exact of each other with regard to them is, that they shall not be held one minute after the attempt to verify them by an examination of the facts has failed. An investigator may, in short, use as many of them as he finds necessary for his purpose—that purpose being the discovery of some law of nature—and cast them aside without discredit when he finds them worthless. But this license is granted solely on the supposition that he remains in his laboratory or observatory, and communicates only with his fellows in the course of his investigations. It certainly was never contemplated, and ought not now to be suffered, that when scientific men step forward as popular lecturers before promiscuous audiences, they may produce their various unverified and perhaps unverifiable guesses, and offer them for inspection as quasi-scientific results which plain people would do well to ponder and retain in their memories.

It may be replied by some one that Mr. Darwin has not acted on this rule, and has promulgated a theory of the origin of species in general, and of the human race in particular, which is still unproved. But he did not produce it until he was able to accompany it with an enormous mass of evidence, to present it in a book on which he had spent many years of labor, or without surrounding all his positions with the most careful limitations and reserves. If anybody draws from his suggestions stronger inferences than they can be made to support, it is certainly not for want of pains on his part. It ought not to be forgotten that one of the greatest scientific men who ever lived—Kepler—preceded his great discoveries by a series of fanciful hypotheses, of which his biographers are ashamed; that he believed in astrology, and even cast nativities. It is not at all unreasonable to ask men of science, therefore, to lay down the rule for themselves, not to communicate *ex cathedrâ* to popular audiences any hypothesis as scientific which, while it is capable of producing great moral confusion, is not capable of verification. It may be true, for instance, that matter contains "the promise and potency of every form and quality of life," and it may be interesting to Mr. Tyndall's friends to know that he believes it; but the verification of this hypothesis is and must for ever remain beyond the boundary of experimental evidence. After all, perhaps we treat the matter seriously. The scientific spirit is so much diffused that it would, we admit, be difficult if not impossible to build up in our time anything like a scientific church, with charlatans or bigots for the clergy; but it is worth while, in the interest of the unlearned and unstable, to utter a protest that may at least help to keep the young scientists modest and self-distrustful, or, in other words, thoroughly scientific.

THE STATE OF PARTIES IN FRANCE.

PARIS, Dec. 4.

AT the time when the Chamber meets again after its long recess, it will perhaps not be inopportune to make a general review of all our parties and, as it were, a reconnoissance of their positions. I will at once begin with the party which has become, in the opinion of many, the most formidable—the Bonapartists. The forces which have been at work in its favor are of two kinds; some are negative, some positive. The negative forces have been the famous *pacte de Bordeaux*, the want of a definitive government, and the faults of the Comte de Chambord. During the whole period of the Gambetta Government and of the struggles of the country with the invaders, the Legitimists had taken an excellent position in the country; they had accepted the rôle of adventurers, and had fought at Coulmiers and other places. Everybody was astonished when the country, at the end of the war, sent to Bordeaux a very large number of Legitimists; the Orleanists were even in larger numbers. It was evident that the instincts of the people could never find better expression than at a moment when France was in danger, and when the nation turned its eyes on the men whom it judged the most capable, the most trustworthy, the most honest. The Assembly, when it met at Bordeaux, was monarchical; but M. Thiers took advantage of the old divisions of the Legitimists and the Orleanists, and he made the famous truce which placed him in possession of the government. The monarchical tide was only arrested for a moment; it rose against the Commune with an overwhelming force; and when the troops reentered the capital, still covered with barricades, the proclamation of the Monarchy on the smouldering ruins of the Tuileries would have been applauded by all the Conservatives in the provinces. M. Thiers continued to oppose the efforts of the Monarchists, and when it became evident that he had only used the truce he had imposed on all parties in the interest of a party, the Monarchical majority of the Chamber hurled him from power on the famous night of the 24th of May.

The crown was soon afterwards offered to the Comte de Chambord. The representative of the branch of Orléans had gone to Frohsdorff and declared that he recognized in the eldest Bourbon the only legitimate pretender; the two fractions of the Monarchical party had forgotten all their old differences; the Orleanists had sacrificed their ambitions, their preferences, in the interest of France and of a union which the progress of communistic and anarchical ideas, as well as the defeats of the war, had rendered absolutely necessary. I need not say what followed. The Comte de Chambord showed himself quite unworthy of the high trust which Providence offered him. He did not understand his time, his country, his duty. But this great monarchical tide, which had set in as early as the beginning of the war, which had become all the more impatient as it had been stopped by so many obstacles, could it cease to flow? It could not run in the old monarchical channel; it was quite natural that, after some hesitation, it should return to the lately-abandoned channel of the Empire. And when once instincts have found their pole, it is marvellous how obediently intelligence will find arguments in their favor. Even the death of the Emperor Napoleon served the Bonapartist cause; the peasants made the legend of the vanquished of Sedan; the Emperor was no longer what he had been—he was sick; he had been forced into the war by treacherous enemies, dragged like a victim with the wagons of the army to the field of Sedan and to captivity. His star had faded, his fortune had left him; they only remembered his old triumphs of the Crimea and of Italy, his unbounded generosity; they sighed for the long years of calm during which France had become so rich and prosperous. We must always bear in mind that there are in France about three millions of peasants who hold small properties; they care little for the liberty of the press or for parliamentary prerogatives; this calm of the Empire, which to so many of us seemed so oppressive that we had to leave France to take a bath of free air, was to them the natural atmosphere of a strong and good government. After a kind of total eclipse, the Bonapartist party has therefore come again to the front, as bold as ever, confiding apparently in the decrees of universal suffrage, and challenging all other parties to make a direct appeal to the people.

I would say nothing against the Legitimists; it is not their fault if their cause is now lost. They have behaved throughout with honesty. They were perhaps too confident at Bordeaux in the promises of M. Thiers, and did not see through his policy; but during the evil days of the Commune, when so many men at Versailles spoke of conciliating the rebels, they never

allowed the dignity of the Assembly of France and of its army to be lowered. They are men of honor, and would have nothing to do with assassins. They were the first to denounce M. Thiers when he signed his alliance with the Radicals, and they were foremost in the parliamentary coalition of the Conservatives which placed MacMahon in power. It is not their fault that the Comte de Chambord did not accept the conditions of modern sovereignty; and it is probably in their ranks that the most bitter criticisms of his conduct might be heard. The conduct of the Legitimists was quite fair till the time when, after the letter of the Comte de Chambord, the powers of Marshal MacMahon were prolonged for seven years. They voted for what is now called the Septennat in a moment of fear lest Thiers and the Radicals should return to power together; and now they will not accept the consequences of their own conduct. It is not fair, not loyal, not equitable to place a man in the most responsible and difficult position, and to refuse to him the very definition of his rights, of his prerogative and his duties. The Marshal at the present time is something more than the delegate of the Assembly: he is invested for six years more with the executive power, and he will, in consequence, survive the Assembly; yet the Legitimists refuse to make the constitutional laws. They are in revolt against their sovereign (for the vote of the Septennat was a vote of revolt), and they dare not be courageous to the end. In the eyes of the Comte de Chambord, they acted like rebels when they excluded him from the throne for seven years; and he continues to send orders to them. It is just as if a husband who had separated from his wife for the gravest motives should continue to consult her on the color of his cravats.

The Legitimists made a great mistake, from their own point of view, when they made a coalition with the Republicans against the Duc de Broglie. They gained nothing by it. The Duc Decazes, who is now the soul of the cabinet, has been constrained to conduct the foreign policy of France in a direction which is not theirs. He has wisely recalled the *Orénoque*, and has enforced on the Spanish frontier the rules of neutrality against the Carlists. The Duc de Broglie would not have acted differently. In reality, the Legitimists are secretly divided. There are among them those who are more Clerical than Legitimist, and those who are more Monarchical than Clerical. The moderate Right—this is the name given to the latter fraction of the Legitimists—feels the necessity of giving the guarantee of some constitutional laws to the executive power which it helped to create. The *chevau-légers*—the name under which we designate the blind followers of the Comte de Chambord—will vote no law which could even for a day hinder the proclamation of the monarchy.

What shall I say of the old Constitutionalists, of the Orleanists? They are perhaps more discouraged than the members of all the other parties. Twice after the disasters of France, the Legitimists have been returned to our parliaments in large numbers, in 1849 and in 1870. They feel that the most formidable events cannot entirely destroy their cause. But the Constitutionalists have suffered some severe injuries. Long before the end of the Empire, M. Thiers, who was their acknowledged leader, did all he could to disorganize the party of the constitutional monarchy. Even under Napoleon III. he had already marked out for himself the rôle of a great citizen, which we have seen him since trying to play. He had, by the charm of his conversation, by the hope of office, drawn to himself many men like M. de Rémusat, M. de Lasteyrie, M. Casimir-Périer, and persuaded them that his was after all the best government. These men have preserved a platonic affection for the Princes of Orléans, but they long ago abandoned the cause of the monarchy of 1830. Thiers was a great power in himself. He is an admirable orator, especially well suited for a parliament which contains somewhat ignorant elements; in the eyes of the small *bourgeoisie* he has the merit of being a *parvenu*, a *petit bourgeois*, as he once called himself; in the eyes of the Republicans, he is still the historian of the Great Revolution, the man who smiled in 1832 on the sacking of the Archbishopric of Paris. Even the diplomatic world has always surrounded him with its admiration, as it looked upon him as the representative of Parliamentary government. When the Constitutionalists lost him as a leader, they had to look for other men; they found such men as the Duc de Broglie, the Duc Decazes, none of whom had the wonderful gifts of M. Thiers. Whoever knows the present leader of the Republicans, his indefatigable activity, his incessant propagandism, his adroit management of men, must acknowledge that his loss was almost fatal to the Parliamentary cause. There are hundreds of old Orleanists who have always been more disposed to follow M. Thiers than to obey the Princes of Orléans, and these men have now become the staff of the Republican party. It must be said, however, that if the Orleanists have lost their chief, they have not renounced their principles. As soon as the Comte de Chambord expressed convictions adverse to these principles, they abandoned his cause; they did not sacrifice the country to the king, and they remain rigidly faithful to the national sovereignty.

It would seem that all these reasons must have added much to the strength of the Republican cause. It is true that the Republican party can now boast of many followers who are men of great fortune and of good standing. Still, as a party, they do not yet form the majority in the country, and to proclaim the Republic to-day would be simply to place the government in the hands of a party; as soon as this were done, all the others would coalesce against the new administration. France is, in reality, profoundly divided—divided into four parties; and when one is dominant, the three others combine. Under such conditions, the best plan seems to me to place the government above all parties, and to invest it with a great force. It is idle to talk of American or Swiss institutions in France; each country must have a government adapted to its circumstances. Marshal MacMahon holds now a position which is neither Monarchical nor Republican: it is, as I have before had occasion to point out, somewhat analogous to that of the old Stadtholders in the Low Countries: he is the head of the army, as France may be forced any day to go to war or to suppress rebellions; he can call into his councils the patriotic men of all parties. We do not well see that much more can be done. When France was saved in former days, it was saved sometimes by very extraordinary means and persons. Our position is illogical, our government must be so. The Septennat is a government of necessity and not of theory, and necessity must have its way. This Septennat may be followed by another, and then by another. Who knows? One thing is certain: as long as France is in the state which I have attempted to describe, it must find a safeguard in a sort of anonymous government, and such a government will be all the stronger as it will only be exercised in the name and in the interests of the country.

SOME LEGAL ASPECTS OF THE ARNIM CASE.

BERLIN, Dec. 5, 1874.

MR. DISRAELI extolled the advantages of the British workingman in his immunity from arbitrary arrest and from domiciliary visits, to which even the nobility of some countries of the Continent are liable; but he afterwards averred that he could not have had the case of Count Arnim in mind, inasmuch as all the proceedings against the ex-ambassador had been in strict accordance with law. He might have added that this case is a signal example of the supremacy and the impartiality of the law as now administered in Prussia. The stigma of "arbitrary arrest" that lurked in Mr. Disraeli's supposed allusion to Arnim is effaced by the simple statement that he was arrested under a strictly legal process. But what of the law itself—of the domiciliary visit, of the secret investigation, of the close imprisonment? If in form there was neither *lettre de cachet* nor Star Chamber—though some American journals will have it there were both—was not the liberty of the subject as really violated through the privacy of the arrest, the rigor of the confinement, the obsequiousness of the court, as if the Chancellor had ordered Arnim to be seized for the gratification of his private malice? The Sacramento *Record* said the other day that in no country not under military rule would the people submit to such an outrage. Yet here upon the ground the national liberal party justify the proceedings against Arnim, and to impartial observers it seems as though something valid had already been gained for the fundamental principle of equality before the law. Naturally enough, many in England and in the United States are scandalized or confused by the seemingly abrupt and violent, or the secret and one sided methods, of Prussian legal administration; but when one analyzes the law as applied to Arnim's case, it is surprising how slight is the difference in fact between American and German law as herein involved.

First, as to domiciliary visits. In the light of such a case as this at Berlin, it is curious to observe the qualified terms in which the Constitution of the United States provides against the invasion of a man's house—the "castle" of the common law: "The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against *unreasonable* searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue but upon *probable cause*, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the persons or things to be seized" (Amend. IV.) The Commissioners of the Code of the State of New York recommended the following sections as restrictions upon search: § 176. "Every peace officer who, in executing a search-warrant, wilfully exceeds his authority or exercises it with unnecessary severity, is guilty of a misdemeanor." § 220. "Every person who maliciously and without probable cause procures a search-warrant to be issued and executed, is guilty of a misdemeanor." By these very cautions and limitations the right of search is distinctly reserved; in the case of Murray's Lessee *v.* Hob. Land and Imp. Co. (18 How. 272) the Court ruled that the Fourth Amendment to the Constitution has no application to proceedings for the recovery of debts; and, in point of fact, "warrants have been allowed to search for stolen goods, for goods supposed to have been smuggled, for implements of gaming or coun-

terfeiting, for lottery tickets or prohibited liquors kept for sale contrary to law, for obscene books and papers kept for sale or circulation, and for powder or other dangerous or explosive material, so kept as to endanger the public safety. And in some States searching is provided for by statute for books and papers of a public character retained from their lawful custody [which is precisely the charge against Arnim]; for females supposed to be concealed in houses of ill-fame; for children enticed or kept away from parents and guardians; for concealed weapons; and for counterfeit money and forged bills or papers" (Cooley's 'Constitutional Limitations,' Chap. X.) Here is a goodly array of searches provided for by American law and practice. Was not every house in Philadelphia searched for the abducted child of Mr. Ross? Were not the books and papers of Phelps, Dodge & Co. seized and carried off to a dark chamber of the Custom-house, and searched for material for a damaging accusation? Did not Butler gloat over a barrel full of private telegrams, seized by authority of Congress, and which he still uses for tormenting his political enemies or rivals? Why, then, this ado about the searching of Arnim's house? That "domiciliary visit" was made under strict authority of law, and conformed in every particular to the Fourth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States and to the statutory provisions of some States of the Union.

The successor of Arnim at Paris found that sundry papers duly registered in the books of the Embassy were missing from its archives. He notified the Foreign Office at Berlin, and the secretary of that department applied to Arnim for information concerning these despatches. Arnim admitted that he had taken several of them, returned some, but retained others, upon the ground that they were of a private character, and necessary to his own justification—a point of which he assumed to be the sole judge. The Foreign Office now demanded the restitution of the papers, but Arnim denied its authority. Here, then, were "papers of a public character retained from their lawful custody" by an officer relieved from his post, who admitted that he had taken them. In this strait the Foreign Office laid the facts before the proper court, and the judge, finding a "probable cause," issued a not "unreasonable" warrant for a search, "particularly describing the place to be searched and the things to be seized." Why should that be the "arbitrary act of a military government" in Germany which is provided for, in precisely the same form, by the Constitution of the United States?

A difference between American law and Prussian law in respect to searches lies in the immunity of the party procuring or ordering the search from retaliatory measures on the part of the defendant. In the famous case of John Wilkes in England, in the last century, the defendant obtained heavy damages against the Government for trespass in the unwarrantable seizure of private papers. In Prussia the law provides no such remedy; the case hinges upon the integrity and discretion of the judge.

For instance, if a creditor makes affidavit to such suspicious acts on the part of a debtor as give reasonable ground for the belief that he is concealing property in his house, the plaintiff can obtain an order to search for such property. If after such searching it is proved that the defendant has acted in good faith, and that the affidavit is unfounded, the defendant must rest satisfied with his acquittal, without remedy at law against the plaintiff. Though his house has been searched, he cannot sue for trespass; though his honor has been sullied, he cannot sue for slander. The proceedings were under an order of the court, which was issued in good faith, upon reasonable evidence presented in the affidavit; at most, therefore, there can only have been an indiscreet action on the part of the judge in granting an order, and for this no action can be had. In the United States the plaintiff who should procure a search-warrant would do so at the risk of a suit for trespass. Second, as to sudden arrest and imprisonment under the laws of Prussia, if the plaintiff in a civil action makes an affidavit showing good grounds of belief, from some action or words of the defendant, that he is about to leave the country or the jurisdiction, or otherwise to evade legal process, then the plaintiff can apply for an order for the arrest of the defendant. If the court is reasonably satisfied of the plaintiff's allegations, such order can be had and served within twenty-four hours. Now, in the case of Arnim there was ground for the suspicion that he was preparing to quit the country, and upon foreign soil to use the documents in his possession to the prejudice of the Government in whose confidential service he had been employed; or there was reason to fear that he would use his liberty to defeat the ends of justice in the case. His arrest was strictly legal, for reasons set forth.

But Prussian law provides no remedy for unjust arrest. In the Middle Ages one could retaliate and find a remedy of his own; in more recent times one could satisfy his honor by a duel; but in these days it is held that the defendant's honor has been vindicated by the verdict of acquittal. Indeed, in the strict conception of Prussian law, there can be no such thing as an *unjust* arrest; the affidavit of the plaintiff gives true and suspicious acts of the defendant as the ground of the order of the arrest.

Third, the principle of the English Habeas Corpus Act is recognized in Prussian law. Thus, in a criminal process the prisoner could demand an immediate hearing within forty-eight hours after his arrest; and the result of such a hearing would be either his acquittal, or his release on bail, or his detention for trial, according to the facts of the case. Arnim had an early hearing, but the court decided that there was good reason for holding him; and out of consideration for his health, he was put into a ward of the hospital under strict guard.

Fourth, bail is much less common in Prussia than in the United States. Arnim, however, was finally released upon a bail of 100,000 thalers, which, in view of his offence, his position, and his circumstances, was not *excessive*, as that term is vaguely used in the Constitution of the United States.

Fifth, the secresy of the preliminary investigation, and the proposed secresy of the reading of the documents during the trial, are features of this case in wide contrast to American procedure. They are here justified by the plea that the publication of the documents involved would be inconsistent with the public welfare. This very case, however, is likely to give emphasis to the movement in Parliament for requiring publicity in judicial proceedings. The American doctrine is, that the safety of the accused requires publicity in the trial. But what of the safety of the public? Would it not be an unspeakable mercy to the community if the Beecher-Tilton case could be hermetically sealed within the walls of the court-room, or even if some special chamber of oblivion could be constructed for it under ground?

The law under which Arnim is indicted makes the abstracting of official papers an offence to be punished by imprisonment for a term not exceeding five years. There is no question that if a clerk in the Treasury or the Post-office had been guilty of this offence, he would have been made to feel the power of the law; and it is hardly credible that Americans, who hold to the fundamental doctrine of the equality of all men before the law, will deem it an act of arbitrary power that this law is now applied in all its rigor to a nobleman and ambassador.

The following works are recommended to those who are interested in the legal points of the case: 'H. von Bayer, Vorträge über den gemeinen ordentlichen Process.' 'Bergmann, Beiträge zur Einleitung in die Praxis der Civilprocesse von deutschen Gerichten.' 'Besseler, Privatrecht.' 'Berner, Strafrecht'; und 'Heffter, Strafrecht, 2 Theil. 1856.' J. P. T.

Correspondence

WHAT IS THE BUSINESS OF SCIENTIFIC MEN?

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: A brief and well-meant admonition of the *Nation* to "scientific men as such" not to meddle with philosophy or theology—*i.e.*, "the origin of things or the existence of a God"—seems prompted by some perhaps unnecessary fears regarding the tendency of the rather misty and rhetorical utterance of Professor Tyndall, who, perhaps in common with all naturalists, sees "in matter the promise and potency of all [terrestrial] life"—as if the scientific man as such could imagine the existence of life without matter.

We would ask whether it is "meddling" with philosophy to enquire into the origin of life and its different forms? Can an enquiry into the origin of things be confined wholly to the origin of angels, demons, ghosts, the modern "spirit," and innate ideas? Can questions as to the origin of the chemical elements, of minerals, plants, animals, of man, and even his intellect and soul, be turned over exclusively to the followers of Kant, Hume, Locke, Berkeley, and Mill?

Why does Mr. Paley argue for the existence of God, and build up a system of natural religion upon the facts and conclusions of biology as known in his day? Why did an Andover professor recommend Agassiz's 'Essay on Classification' as an excellent aid in studying natural theology? In short, why are other systems of natural theology constructed on the conclusions of geologists, anatomists, and physiologists as to the constitution and probable origin of the earth and its inhabitants, unless those deductions are legitimate and useful to genuine religion? The influence of the conclusions of science on theological thought is certainly not unimportant.

Now, who forms these conclusions? who philosophizes on the facts collected by the scientist? Certainly not the theologian. He takes them at second-hand. Does the philosopher discuss and arrange the facts observed by the scientist? We think not, unless, like Aristotle, or Newton, or Descartes, or Spencer, he is both scientist and philosopher. It may be a question as to how much use a philosopher's opinion about the origin of things is, unless he has done some scientific work before reflecting in his study

upon the facts observed. The genus of old-time philosophers who depended on their intuitions and the facts of consciousness for light on the origin of things, material or immaterial, will become extinct, simply for want of food for thought, unless they become experimenters and observers. Reasoning by exclusion, we are forced to believe that "scientific men as such" are their own philosophers, and that it is as useless to divorce philosophy from science as it is to divorce philosophy from religion. Without science philosophy becomes scholasticism, and religion tends to become a superstition. For how can one reason intelligently as to the existence of a First Cause without a critical enquiry into the organization of the cosmos? Can we study the being and mind of an artist without seeing his pictures? How can we study the "origin of things," (rather an indefinite expression), without becoming Daltons, or Herschels, or Lamarcks, or Darwins, and studying the mode of formation of the elements of worlds and the origin of the forms of life?

"Scientific men as such," then, so far from "meddling" with the business of the theologian and philosopher, afford, it seems to us, the one the grounds on which to build his faith, and the other the pedestal on which to sit and think.

Happily there is a common ground upon which all three may meet. We know little about the origin of things, and thus far the existence of a First Cause is not capable of proof, and may always be only a highly probable assumption. The mystery surrounding these primary facts seems at present insoluble. The recent addresses of Lovering, Tyndall, Wurtz, and Du Bois Reymond before the American, British, French, and German scientific associations, or in their journals, acknowledge the mystery of matter and the need of acknowledging or assuming the existence of a First Cause. These men are neither atheists nor materialists, and represent the average scientific and philosophical thought of our age. There are atheists and materialists among scientific men as among philosophers, but materialism is not a characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon mind, nor of the French mind of to-day, nor was it of German scientific thought in the days of Goethe and Oken. It is left to Vogt, Haeckel, and Büchner, who in speculative matters have exhibited as little common sense as they evince in dealing with politics. Unless the meddlesome scientific men continue to pry into the nature of things, we may indulge in the doubt whether philosophy, at least, will be a subject worth meddling with. SCIENTIST.

[If a "Scientist" will look again at the report of Professor Tyndall's address, he will see that he announced his belief "that he saw in matter the promise and potency of every form and quality of life" as "a confession" which "he felt bound to make," and in making which he "abandoned all disguise." It would be very ridiculous for a naturalist to produce in this fashion a belief which he held "in common with all naturalists," and which, according to "Scientist," it is impossible for "a scientific man as such" not to hold. Naturalists surely have no occult creed, which they only reveal to the initiated or under great excitement.—ED. NATION.]

VIRGINIA SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Lest my long silence might be misunderstood, allow me to say that immediately on seeing Miss Putnam's statement concerning the misfeasance of certain school officers in Northumberland County, Va., I wrote to the superintendent of schools for that county, who is a gentleman above reproach, and not personally referred to (as will be shown hereafter), sending him a copy of your paper, and instructing him to hold a court of investigation, after duly inviting Miss Putnam to be present. I at the same time wrote to the lady herself, asking her to appear, and assuring her of every facility and courtesy.

The court was promptly held, and Miss Putnam appeared; but as she was not prepared with evidence, the court was adjourned to a future day.

The testimony will all be recorded and sworn to, and as soon as received here will be forwarded to your office. I have great hopes that the reputation of the old State will survive this trial; and I still stand prepared to investigate any other charges of a similar character which may be brought to my attention. Let us hear from all complainants.

Very truly yours,

W. H. RUFFNER,

Superintendent of Public Instruction of Virginia.

RICHMOND, Dec. 16, 1874.

JUDGE JAMESON ON THE REVISION OF CONSTITUTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your summary of my letter to the Chicago *Tribune* respecting Arkansas affairs, contained in the *Nation* of the 10th inst., you failed to state one point quite correctly. I was represented by you as saying that "the submission to the people of amendments to the constitution directly by the legislature was resorted to for the first time in American history by New York and Michigan, in the present year." This I did not say. What I did say was, that "no attempt *to revise an entire constitution* by the action of the legislature submitting amendments to the people, was ever made until the late cases of Michigan and New York." There is a wide difference between these two propositions. Some forty or fifty constitutions in different States have contained provisions authorizing *amendments*, through the action of their legislatures; and those bodies, in most if not all of those States, have availed themselves of the power. But the amendments have nearly always been few and simple, by no means involving a revision or recasting of the whole Constitution and Bill of Rights. Such a work is a herculean one, and, as I stated in the letter referred to, has never been attempted except in the States named. In those cases the legislatures recognized the impracticability of attempting the task of revision as an ordinary act of legislation. They appointed commissions of eminent gentlemen of both parties, not, as I understand, members of their own bodies, to revise the fundamental law, and to report a coherent and adequate scheme, to be submitted, *as a whole*, to the people. The submission was made, but the result was not very satisfactory; for one or both of the legislatures insisted upon revising this scheme before submitting it, thus disturbing its balance, perhaps, or infusing into it partisan provisions. If it were possible to avoid this tampering with the work of such commissions by compelling our legislatures to submit it, without modification, to the people, such a mode of proceeding would present important advantages, but that, of course, could be effected only by amending our fundamental law so as to authorize such a submission. However that may be, the actual consequence was that, in Michigan, the work of the commission was rejected *in toto*, and that in New York it was, if I have not been misinformed, rejected in part. It was this mode of revising an entire constitution to which I referred, as not having occurred before the present year.

As tending to show the reality of the distinction I have made, let me state that in, I believe, every case where our constitutions have authorized a change to be made in their provisions, without calling a convention, they have used only the word *amend* or *amendment*, and that where they have authorized the calling of a convention, they have employed the words *revise* or *revise and amend*, in stating the duty of the body when assembled.

JOHN A. JAMESON.

CHICAGO, December 14, 1874.

[As far as the popular vote goes, the work of the New York Commission has been adopted *in toto*. There is a question raised as to the effect of the alterations made by the second legislature in two of the amendments.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

ANOTHER Boston magazine has changed hands. *Old and New*, heretofore published by Roberts Bros., has been transferred to Lee & Shepard, but still remains the property of a duly chartered corporation consisting of gentlemen and ladies who, if named, says the prospectus, "would be recognized as among the leaders in the life of New England, or, as we have a right to say, of the United States."——Willmer & Rogers, 31 Beekman Street, New York, have been appointed agents for this country of the *Contemporary Review*.——The Eighth Annual Exhibition of the American Society of Painters in Water-Colors will open at the Academy of Design on the first of February, and continue for about one month. Contributors need especially to be informed of the new regulations in regard to frames. Information on this and other points may be had of J. C. Nicoll, Secretary, 51 West Tenth St.——Surgeon General Barnes's annual report to the Secretary of War states that 700 pages of the second part of the 'Medical and Surgical History of the War' have been printed, and that nearly all the plates have been prepared. The data for the 'Descriptive Anatomical Catalogue of the Army Medical Museum' have been perfected, and authority is again asked for to print a thousand copies of this valuable work. The Museum has been increased by 1,185 specimens, and during the year ending June 30, 1874, was visited by upwards of 26,000 persons.——Part 24 of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (New York: L W. Schmidt) contains, besides a title

page for the entire work, a map of Turkey in Europe and one of Africa, in which the most notable feature is that the identification of the Lualaba with the Congo is provisorily adopted. No. 53 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Journal* contains an excellent map of the latest North Polar discoveries. For more details in regard to Franz-Joseph Land one should consult the map of this hitherto unknown tract in the December number of the *Geographical Magazine* (New York: John Wiley & Son). We are glad to see it announced, by the way, that the price of this always readable journal is to be reduced one half (from two shillings to one shilling per number).

——Quoting from general recollection is dangerous; but the *Nation* has such well-informed readers that its slips are soon corrected. Two valued correspondents have kindly supplied us with the right wording and origin of the eulogy of the strawberry, viz., "Doubtless God might have made a better fruit than the strawberry; but, doubtless, God never did." It is in the 'Complete Angler' of Isaac Walton, who cites it as a saying of Dr. Boteler.

—A correspondent writes us as follows: I find in the second volume, second edition, of Whewell's 'Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences,' published in London in 1847, a formal recommendation of the word "scientist," with the rule for its derivation, and the reason for its introduction into the English vocabulary. Under the head of "Aphorisms concerning the Language of Science," on page 549, Dr. Whewell lays down the rule for the derivation or formation of new words when they are needed, in the form of an aphorism, as follows: "In the composition and inflection of technical terms, philological analogies are to be preserved if possible, but modified according to scientific convenience." In the specific application of this rule to a variety of cases, the author remarks, on page 560, as follows:

"The terminations *ize* (rather than *ise*), *ism*, and *ist*, are applied to words of all origins: thus we have to pulverize, to colonize, witticism, heathenism, journalist, tobacconist. Hence we may make such words when they are wanted. As we cannot use *physician* for a cultivator of physics, I have called him a *physicist*. We need very much a name to describe a cultivator of science in general. I should incline to call him a scientist. Thus we might say, that as an artist is a musician, painter, or poet, a scientist is a mathematician, a physicist, or a naturalist."

This dates the use of the word in England back twenty-seven years from this time—two years earlier than Mr. B. A. Gould claims to have recommended its introduction into the English vocabulary. If the word is found in the first edition of Dr. Whewell's work, published in 1840, this would carry the date of its use by this distinguished author back seven years earlier, or nine years prior to Mr. Gould's recommendation.

—In No. 53 of Koner's *Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin* (New York: L. W. Schmidt), H. Kiepert examines the 'Historical Atlas of Ancient Geography, Biblical and Classical,' issued by Dr. Wm. Smith and Mr. G. Grove, of which the first three parts of six have appeared. His review is by no means favorable to this pretentious specimen of Dr. Smith's bookmaking, in which the responsible work has really been done by Mr. Grove and Dr. Karl Müller. Not to mention the more delicate historical and philological slips or ignorances, the coloring is very poorly and carelessly done, and the delineation of the surface is faulty. In Sicily and Southern Etruria many mountains are given which have no existence, and in Gallia whole chains are wanting; while in Brittany and Normandy the mountains are drawn higher than those of Eastern Switzerland. In many instances there is a pitiable ignorance of recent or even modern geographical studies. Kiepert regrets sarcastically that in using his 'Atlas von Hellas' recourse has been had to an old and incomplete edition, in apparent ignorance of that of 1867–70, and of Kiepert's maps of Thessaly, Epirus, and European Turkey, issued in 1870. Kiepert points out the absurdity of issuing a map of Palestine now in preference to waiting for the results of the new survey, which will be completed in two or three years—that is, for the part west of the Jordan. Here Mr. Grove does not even use recent trustworthy French investigations (Callier, Guérin, and Clermont Ganneau). But the map of Jerusalem particularly exasperates Kiepert; on it pretty nearly everything that was well established is turned wrong.

—The late J. A. Hartung, whose 'Religion der Römer,' published in 1836, may be said to have laid the foundation for the scientific treatment of Roman mythology, as distinguished from Grecian, was engaged, at the time of his death, in 1867, upon a companion work, 'Die Religion und Mythologie der Griechen.' Three parts of this were already published, and the fourth part was published some months ago by his son. It is not stated whether this completes the work as laid out by the author; so far as we can judge, however, it covers the entire field of Grecian mythology, and is provided with an excellent index. The treatment of the details is very compendious, and even bare; but this is because the theoretical portion is taken up by itself very fully and in a very interesting manner—the whole first part being of this character, and each division being introduced by a general statement of principles, which these details are made to illustrate. In this way the work is confined to quite moderate compass, making, when bound, two very thin octavos. The view presented is that of a pure religion of nature, starting from the fetish, or indwelling spirit of natural objects and phenomena. In developing this view, Hartung draws his materials rather from the fragments of popular belief and local custom, chiefly survivals of a primitive belief—as found especially in such writers as Pausanias—than from the poets, who have worked over and modified the religion of their time, and who are thus in great part not merely the channel of information, but the actual authors of the mythology that has come down to us. It is noticeable that he almost wholly neglects the prevailing comparative view of Greek mythology, considering it exclusively as the outgrowth of the Greek national genius.

—At the conference of meteorologists, held at Leipzig in August, 1872, the question of the usefulness of telegraphic weather reports was one of the subjects under discussion. In view of the practical bearing of this question, it was referred to a committee, consisting of Messrs. Buys-Ballot, Scott, and Neumayer, who were to enter into correspondence with meteorologic authorities in all parts of the world, and to present the views thus obtained at the next conference, to assemble at Vienna. Circulars in German, English, and French were consequently sent out, and answers to six formulated questions solicited. The report of the committee, edited by Dr. G. von Boguslawski, with a preface by Dr. G. Neumayer, has now appeared in print, under the title of 'Bericht über Wetter-Telegraphie und Sturmwarnungen,' etc. Replies were received from the following places: Berlin, the Bermudas, Bombay, Buda-Pesth, Calcutta, Christiania, Copenhagen, Dorpat, Edinburgh, Emden, Fiume, Florence, Greenwich, Halifax, Lisbon, Liverpool, London, Manchester, the Isle of Mauritius, Silloth (Cumberland), Stockholm, St. Petersburg, Toronto, and Utrecht. Singularly enough, the United States is not represented in this list. The answers received—among which we may mention those of Buys-Ballot, the late G. B. Donati, Dove, H. Mohn, and the Meteorological Societies of London and Edinburgh—are for the most part published in full, but the report of the commission gives a résumé of their salient features. The practical importance of telegraphic weather reports was generally conceded, and, in order to secure for them the widest possible usefulness an interchange of observations between the central stations of different countries was proposed. An international central station once established, reports are to be sent to it every evening from the various points of observation, which, in turn, are informed the next morning by the central station of the state of the weather throughout Europe. Atmospheric disturbances of importance, particularly approaching storms, should be announced, but general predictions of the weather are unanimously discountenanced. Stress is laid on the importance of an international system of signals for shipping, and the co-operation of the various governments is invoked.

—The Italian Bureau of Statistics has issued its ninth annual review of the population from the civil point of view; being for the year 1871. No account is taken of emigration, and the total population is estimated by adding the difference in number between the births and the deaths to the total population assigned to the preceding year. In 1871, accordingly, the estimated population was 26,093,822; the increase since 1862 having averaged 0.75 per cent. per annum, at which rate the kingdom would be 92 years in doubling its population. Registered marriages averaged (1863–1871) 189,864; births, 948,425 (of which one in thirty-seven was a still birth); and deaths, 765,225. The proportion in 1871 of legitimate births to marriages was 4.65 of the former to each of the latter. In Central Italy the population is most fruitful, and shows the greatest number of first marriages; in Southern Italy and Sicily early marriages prevail. For the whole country the brides under twenty furnish 16 per cent. of the whole number. February and November are the favorite months for getting married; the first being the carnival season, the last the season of repose for the agriculturist. Corresponding considerations make March and July the months when matrimony is least thought of. The extent and direction of Italian emigration are inferable from the Postmaster-General's report for 1872, according to which money-orders amounting to $625,870 were sent home from Buenos Ayres; $341,318 from Montevideo; $154,205 from New York. The Italian mail-service, by the way, which in 1862 cost the state $3,160,000, is now self-sustaining, and in 1872 paid into the treasury the significant sum of $630,147. The Indian mail alone, which, after leaving Calais, passes through the Mont Cenis tunnel and crosses the peninsula to Brindisi, netted nearly $70,000.

—The typhoon of Sept. 22–23, which made a wreck of Macao, came late as a retribution for the sins of the former slave emporium. The town was already suffering from the stagnation caused by the abolition of the coolie-

traffic when it was overwhelmed by wind, an unprecedentedly high tide, and by fire, and in the course of a few hours lost thousands of lives and a million of property. The granite sea-wall was torn away in huge masses; the new fort was washed out, with all its guns, and all but one of the guard perished; buildings were blown down in all directions; and hundreds of vessels of all sizes were sunk or washed inland—sometimes to great distances. The man-of-war *Principe Dom Carlos* is said to have been carried 12 miles inland and stranded in a rice-field, and a similar fate overtook the gunboat *Camoëns*. The poet's name is associated with still another disaster, which, from a sentimental point of view, will be widely regretted. Among the places devastated in Macao was the famous "Camoëns's Garden." The grotto to the memory of the author of the 'Lusiad,' and the garden in which it stands, where the poet is said by tradition to have composed the greater part of his work when in exile, were long the property of the Macaese Government. They, however, sold it some time ago to a Señor Marques, who with his family occupied a substantial house on the estate. From this gentleman, who was very courteous to strangers, permission had to be obtained to visit the garden. The typhoon swept over it with fearful fury, breaking and uprooting the splendid trees with which it was planted, and strewing the ground with them in all directions. The magnificent banyans, some of which in their youth may have shaded the poet, were reduced to firewood. The historical grotto is almost uninjured; but it will be years before the garden of Camoëns recovers its old-time beauty of branch and foliage.

—The momentary distress and confusion furnishing a rare opportunity for plunder and violence (the fires, indeed, are supposed to have been incendiary), it became necessary to reinforce the police, and for this purpose the Portuguese governor enrolled in the National Guard large numbers of the Macaese, ex-coolie-hunters and the like, whom the suppression of the coolie-trade had reduced to poverty. These choice spirits immediately attempted a Communistic revolt, which was, however, speedily put down, and there will probably be less talk than before of reviving the odious traffic. Emigration will still go on, but not under the auspices of private speculators, nor will Macao be the chief port of departure. Peru, which has just concluded with China a treaty of friendship and commerce, has stipulated for free yet regulated emigration, and this will probably be effected by means of steamers plying, under strict Government supervision, between the northern ports of China and Peru. The satisfactory condition of the Chinese already in Peru, and the protection uniformly accorded them by the Government, are strongly asserted by Mr. Markham in the last number of his *Geographical Magazine*. In the preceding number the editor had done Portugal the justice of rehearsing the steps she had taken to mitigate the evils of the coolie-traffic at Macao from its very inception in 1851. These are clearly set forth in a report of the present Portuguese Minister of Foreign Affairs, Señor João de Andrade Corvo, to whose initiative the suppression of contract emigration last March was due. The story reads much like the efforts of our successive administrations to deal justly by the Indians: fair motives, unexceptionable legislation, and no results. It was even more difficult to regulate a distant colony through a governor on the spot, than to watch Indian agents and traders on a comparatively near frontier. The Portuguese character abroad—in China, in Peru, on the coast of Africa—has stood sorely in need of vindication; and it is gratifying to be assured that at home it is still moral and enlightened.

FAR FROM THE MADDING CROWD.*

MR. HARDY'S novel came into the world under brilliant auspices—such as the declaration by the London *Spectator* that either George Eliot had written it or George Eliot had found her match. One could make out in a manner what the *Spectator* meant. To guess, one has only to open 'Far from the Madding Crowd' at random: "Mr. Jan Coggan, who had passed the cup to Henery, was a crimson man with a spacious countenance and a private glimmer in his eye, whose name had appeared on the marriage register of Weatherbury and neighboring parishes as best-man and chief witness in countless unions of the previous twenty years; he also very frequently filled the post of head godfather in baptisms of the subtly-jovial kind." That is a very fair imitation of George Eliot's humorous manner. Here is a specimen of her serious one: "He fancied he had felt himself in the penumbra of a very deep sadness when touching that slight and fragile creature. But wisdom lies in moderating mere impressions, and Gabriel endeavored to think little of this." But the *Spectator's* theory had an even broader base, and we may profitably quote a passage which perhaps constituted one of its solidest blocks. The author of 'Silas Marner' has won no small part of her fame by her remarkable faculty as a reporter of ale-house and kitchen-fire conversations among simple-minded rustics. Mr. Hardy has also made a great effort in this direction, and here is a specimen—a particularly favorable specimen—of his success:

"'Why, Joseph Poorgrass, you han't had a drop!' said Mr. Coggan to a very shrinking man in the background, thrusting the cup towards him.

"'Such a shy man as he is,' said Jacob Smallbury. 'Why, ye've hardly had strength of eye enough to look in our young mis'ess's face, so I hear, Joseph?'

"All looked at Joseph Poorgrass with pitying reproach.

"'No, I've hardly looked at her at all,' faltered Joseph, reducing his body smaller while talking, apparently from a meek sense of undue prominence; 'and when I see'd her, it was nothing but blushes with me!'

"'Poor fellow,' said Mr. Clark.

"''Tis a curious nature for a man,' said Jan Coggan.

"'Yes,' continued Joseph Poorgrass, his shyness, which was so painful as a defect, just beginning to fill him with a little complacency, now that it was regarded in the light of an interesting study. ''Twere blush, blush, blush with me every minute of the time when she was speaking to me.'

"'I believe ye, Joseph Poorgrass, for we all know ye to be a very bashful man.'

"''Tis terrible bad for a man, poor soul!' said the maltster. 'And how long have ye suffered from it, Joseph?'

"'Oh, ever since I was a boy. Yes—mother was concerned to her heart about it—yes. But 'twas all naught.'

"'Did ye ever take anything to try and stop it, Joseph Poorgrass?'

"'Oh, aye, tried all sorts. They took me to Greenhill Fair, and into a great large jerry-go-nimble show, where there were women-folk riding round—standing up on horses, with hardly anything on but their smocks; but it didn't cure me a morsel—no, not a morsel. And then I was put errand-man at the Woman's Skittle Alley at the back of the Tailor's Arms in Casterbridge. 'Twas a horrible gross situation, and altogether a very curious place for a good man. I had to stand and look at wicked people in the face from morning till night; but 'twas no use—I was just as bad as ever after all. Blushes have been in the family for generations. There, 'tis a happy providence I be no worse, so to speak it—yes, a happy thing, and I feel my few poor gratitudes.'"

This is extremely clever, and the author has evidently read to good purpose the low-life chapters in George Eliot's novels; he has caught very happily her trick of seeming to humor benignantly her queer people and look down at them from the heights of analytic omniscience. But we have quoted the episode because it seems to us an excellent example of the cleverness which is only cleverness, of the difference between original and imitative talent—the disparity, which it is almost unpardonable not to perceive, between first-rate talent and those inferior grades which range from second-rate downward, and as to which confusion is a more venial offence. Mr. Hardy puts his figures through a variety of comical movements; he fills their mouths with quaint turns of speech; he baptizes them with odd names ("Joseph Poorgrass" for a bashful, easily-snubbed Dissenter is excellent); he pulls the wires, in short, and produces a vast deal of sound and commotion; and his novel, at a cursory glance, has a rather promising air of life and warmth. But by critics who prefer a grain of substance to a pound of shadow it will, we think, be pronounced a decidedly delusive performance; it has a fatal lack of magic. We have found it hard to read, but its shortcomings are easier to summarize than to encounter in order. Mr. Hardy's novel is very long, but his subject is very short and simple, and the work has been distended to its rather formidable dimensions by the infusion of a large amount of conversational and descriptive padding and the use of an ingeniously verbose and redundant style. It is inordinately diffuse, and, as a piece of narrative, singularly inartistic. The author has little sense of proportion, and almost none of composition. We learn about Bathsheba and Gabriel, Farmer Boldwood and Sergeant Troy, what we can rather than what we should; for Mr. Hardy's inexhaustible faculty for spinning smart dialogue makes him forget that dialogue in a story is after all but episode, and that a novelist is after all but a historian, thoroughly possessed of certain facts, and bound in some way or other to impart them. To tell a story almost exclusively by reporting people's talks is the most difficult art in the world, and really leads, logically, to a severe economy in the use of rejoinder and repartee, and not to a lavish expenditure of them. 'Far from the Madding Crowd' gives us an uncomfortable sense of being a simple "tale," pulled and stretched to make the conventional three volumes; and the author, in his long-sustained appeal to one's attention, reminds us of a person fishing with an enormous net, of which the meshes should be thrice too wide.

We are happily not subject, in this (as to minor matters) much-emancipated land, to the tyranny of the three volumes; but we confess that we are nevertheless being rapidly urged to a conviction that (since it is in the nature of fashions to revolve and recur) the day has come round again for some of the antique restrictions as to literary form. The three unities, in Aristotle's day, were inexorably imposed on Greek tragedy: why shouldn't we have something of the same sort for English fiction in the day of Mr. Hardy? Almost all novels are greatly too long, and the

* 'Far from the Madding Crowd. By Thomas Hardy.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874.

being too long becomes with each elapsing year a more serious offence. Mr. Hardy begins with a detailed description of his hero's smile, and proceeds thence to give a voluminous account of his large silver watch. Gabriel Oak's smile and his watch were doubtless respectable and important phenomena; but everything is relative, and daily becoming more so; and we confess that, as a hint of the pace at which the author proposed to proceed, his treatment of these facts produced upon us a deterring and depressing effect. If novels were the only books written, novels written on this scale would be all very well; but as they compete, in the esteem of sensible people, with a great many other books, and a great many other objects of interest of all kinds, we are inclined to think that, in the long run, they will be defeated in the struggle for existence unless they lighten their baggage very considerably and do battle in a more scientific equipment. Therefore, we really imagine that a few arbitrary rules—a kind of depleting process—might have a wholesome effect. It might be enjoined, for instance, that no "tale" should exceed fifty pages and no novel two hundred; that a plot should have but such and such a number of ramifications; that no ramification should have more than a certain number of persons; that no person should utter more than a given number of words; and that no description of an inanimate object should consist of more than a fixed number of lines. We should not incline to advocate this oppressive legislation as a comfortable or ideal finality for the romancer's art, but we think it might be excellent as a transitory discipline or drill. Necessity is the mother of invention, and writers with a powerful tendency to expatiation might in this temporary strait-jacket be induced to transfer their attention rather more severely from quantity to quality. The use of the strait-jacket would have cut down Mr. Hardy's novel to half its actual length and, as he is a clever man, have made the abbreviated work very ingeniously pregnant. We should have had a more occasional taste of all the barn-yard worthies—Joseph Poorgrass, Laban Tall, Matthew Moon, and the rest—and the vagaries of Miss Bathsheba would have had a more sensible consistency. Our restrictions would have been generous, however, and we should not have proscribed such a fine passage as this:

"Then there came a third flash. Manœuvres of the most extraordinary kind were going on in the vast firmamental hollows overhead. The lightning now was the color of silver, and gleamed in the heavens like a mailed army. Rumbles became rattles. Gabriel, from his elevated position, could see over the landscape for at least half a dozen miles in front. Every hedge, bush, and tree was distinct as in a line engraving. In a paddock in the same direction was a herd of heifers, and the forms of these were visible at this moment in the act of galloping about in the wildest and maddest confusion, flinging their heels and tails high into the air, their heads to earth. A poplar in the immediate foreground was like an ink-stroke on burnished tin. Then the picture vanished, leaving a darkness so intense that Gabriel worked entirely by feeling with his hands."

Mr. Hardy describes nature with a great deal of felicity, and is evidently very much at home among rural phenomena. The most genuine thing in his book, to our sense, is a certain aroma of the meadows and lanes—a natural relish for harvestings and sheep-washings. He has laid his scene in an agricultural county, and his characters are children of the soil—unsophisticated country-folk. Bathsheba Everdene is a rural heiress, left alone in the world, in possession of a substantial farm. Gabriel Oak is her shepherd, Farmer Boldwood is her neighbor, and Sergeant Troy is a loose young soldier who comes a-courting her. They are all in love with her, and the young lady is a flirt, and encourages them all. Finally she marries the Sergeant, who has just seduced her maid-servant. The maid-servant dies in the work-house, the Sergeant repents, leaves his wife, and is given up for drowned. But he reappears and is shot by Farmer Boldwood, who delivers himself up to justice. Bathsheba then marries Gabriel Oak, who has loved and waited in silence, and is, in our opinion, much too good for her. The chief purpose of the book is, we suppose, to represent Gabriel's dumb, devoted passion, his biding his time, his rendering unsuspected services to the woman who has scorned him, his integrity and simplicity and sturdy patience. In all this the tale is very fairly successful, and Gabriel has a certain vividness of expression. But we cannot say that we either understand or like Bathsheba. She is a young lady of the inconsequential, wilful, mettlesome type which has lately become so much the fashion for heroines, and of which Mr. Charles Reade is in a manner the inventor—the type which aims at giving one a very intimate sense of a young lady's *womanishness*. But Mr. Hardy's embodiment of it seems to us to lack reality; he puts her through the Charles Reade paces, but she remains alternately vague and coarse, and seems always artificial. This is Mr. Hardy's trouble; he rarely gets beyond ambitious artifice—the mechanical simulation of heat and depth and wisdom that are absent. Farmer Boldwood is a shadow, and Sergeant Troy an elaborate stage-figure. Everything human in the book strikes us as factitious and insubstantial; the only things we believe in are the sheep and the dogs. But, as we say, Mr. Hardy has gone astray very cleverly, and his superficial novel is a really curious imitation of something better.

HISTORIES OF INDIA.*

A FIRST-CLASS history of India, in the fullest sense of the expression, is still to be produced. James Mill's voluminous work, of which there is a spiritless continuation by Prof. H. H. Wilson, has been highly praised by Lord Macaulay; and Lord Macaulay's praise of that portion of it which he was qualified by his studies to estimate may be endorsed without much reservation. Mill had diligently groped out, and weighed with merciless equity, all the facts of any importance available in his day that bear on the foundation and extension of the Indian Empire, but there his merit pretty nearly ends. Of his sole rival, Mr. Edward Thornton, it is scarcely needful to do more than merely make mention. Southey's 'History of the Peninsular War' was at once extinguished by Sir William Napier's; and Mr. Thornton's 'History of India' stood no chance of success whatever before the immeasurable superiority of James Mill's. That a repellent tinge of Benthamism colors the views of Mill in his occasional philosophical excursions, is true enough. Mr. Thornton, however, mistook in supposing this to be a blemish which would prove fatal, on the emergence of a competitor, to the historiographical fame of his predecessor. The simple avoidance of what revolts the popular mind is by no means positive excellence; and for more than such avoidance it is hard to discover, in Mr. Thornton's monotonous pages, anything to commend.

Neither Mill nor his feeble emulator knew the East personally; and the former was at the pains to frame a sophistical argument, which, it is to be hoped, gave himself more satisfaction than it can have given any one else, to demonstrate that he was the better able to write impartially about the people of India from never having been there. Yet the Hindu which he composed from books and his inner consciousness is in nowise a thing of hazy outlines and vague features. Nothing can be more distinct or can bristle with sharper saliencies. A character in one of O'Keeffe's farces asks, "What, an't I a priest, and know what wickedness is?" Somewhat similarly, James Mill, who was in his younger days a theological student, found his early lucubrations eminently helpful when he sat down to portray the Hindu. Among his juvenile acquirements, there must have been included a most scientifically complete conception of total depravity. In this conception, particularized and labelled, we have his picture of our Aryan cousin at the antipodes. Very ingenious are the wrenching and wresting to which he subjects Sanskrit literature, with design to make out that his representation is that of reality; and his ingenuity has borne ample and bitter fruit. Though it may be questionable whether anybody has ever accepted that representation as wholly worthy of reliance, doubtless it has weighed with thousands of Britons who have sojourned in India, and has shaped to a lifelong attitude of undeserved harshness and contempt towards its natives many a youth who, if imbued with other lessons, would have found the dark man of Hindustan hardly distinguishable, on the whole, from the white man of his own home. Professor Wilson, Mill's annotator and continuator, going on the directly contrary track, has delineated the Hindu as a good deal more of an angel of light than one expects ever to meet with on this planet. Many years as the Professor was a resident in India, his experience was limited almost entirely to Calcutta; and his much whitewashed Bengalee, presented as a typical Hindu, must have struck with amazement countless "old Indians" who have seen things with their own eyes. Let the Hindu be seen at his best where he may, he is surely to be seen at his very worst in the lower valley of the Ganges.

While Mill was no Orientalist, Professor Wilson was little but a Sanskritist, and, as such, far short of being a master. A most inexact linguist, and totally void of mental grasp and even of average power of constructiveness, he has left to the world, as the best bequest he was capable of leaving it, a huge mass of translated matter, prose and verse, very readable and very untrustworthy. To supply what Mill wanted was, notwithstanding his learning, entirely beyond him. A whole ocean of facts about ancient and mediæval India, unknown to Mill, was accessible to him, but it needed much more than his intellectual calibre to turn these facts to account. The reader of German is at no loss to possess himself of the information in question, as regards India before the time of the Mahometans there; and of Mahometan India we shall, before long, be enabled to form a desirably definite idea from the writings of the late Sir Henry M. Elliot, now in course of publication. Still, to construct, independently, a history of the India of all ages, a much wider knowledge of languages than that of a Gibbon is first of all necessary; and, this knowledge apart, no mind inferior to that of a Gibbon could hope to deal with the multiplied difficulties of the subject adequately. India, it may be gathered, is likely therefore to go a long while without a thoroughly competent historian.

*'History of India. From the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By L. J. Trotter.' London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge; New York: Pott, Young & Co. 1874.

The so-called 'History of India' by Mr. Trotter is, in about equal proportions, pretentious and abortive. Its author positively seems to be endowed with no one qualification out of the many requisite for the due execution of the task he has essayed. In his "introduction" he call the Jains "an offshoot from Buddhism," a description to which no scholar, we suspect, would assent. There, too, we are told that "the most purely Aryan" of the vernaculars of India is the Hindî—the Bengalee being so out of all comparison. A chapter of 42 pages comprehends all that he has to say of India before the Mahometan invasions, and the chapter contains at least as many groundless or dubious assertions as it contains paragraphs. As to the Vedas, "it is safe to assume, with Dr. Max Müller, on evidence of a very strong kind," that they "were composed between 1,200 and 1,500 years before Christ." Contrariwise, it is very unsafe to assume anything of the kind; and the evidence alluded to is of the airiest. The founder of Buddhism flourished "about the end of the sixth century before Christ." Indeed? The laws of the Mânavas were "compiled about 900 years before Christ." Again, indeed? "The Purânas held that Brahmâ, Vishnu, and Siva were but different attributes of one same [*sic*] godhead." Comment must here be superfluous. Rammohun Roy "proclaimed a pure theism"; and the Hindus believe in a "great unseen spirit." The Mahâbhârata "was probably composed by Vyâsa, in the second century before Christ"; and the Râmâyana "would seem to have been composed ten or eleven centuries before Christ." "In the twelfth century of our era, Bhâskar Achârya, of Ujjain, had forestalled by five hundred years the analytical methods of Newton and Leibnitz." We might fill a column with such rashnesses as these. Wherever we open the book they meet our eyes. Even the most familiar of the Hindoo eras, that of Vikramâditya, the author knows so little of that he postdates it by a year. Hindu philosophy he nowhere alludes to; and of the monism which underlies all the forms of the Hindu religion he certainly has never heard. There is a censurable intrepidity suggested by things like these; and we are not much surprised that, mixed up with them, we should read of Lord Macaulay's "curious want of insight" and "perverse blindness." But the author is somewhat addicted to devious moods. What India has to do with the United States of America is not very obvious. For all this, to please somebody or other, the imaginative statements are ventured that, in our country, "all classes are equal before the sovereign people," and that here "wealth has set up an aristocracy of its own."

But, after all, it is the author's pedantry, quite as much as any of his other peculiarities, that will annoy a scholar of the old school. He claims to spell Oriental words after a novel and improved fashion; and very novel is his fashion, at all events. The most elementary acquaintance with the Nâgarî and Arabic alphabets would here have saved him from scores of blunders. His "Dâsyus," "Gûru," "Mûni," and "Râjmahâl," which instances might be multiplied tenfold, are utterly wrong; still more laboriously so are his "Dâra Sheko," "Hindû Khûsh," "Narbadha," "Sedâsheo," and "Soliman"; and he shows himself all at sea, as regards sibilants, in his "Shakas," "Shesha," and "Siva." His "satti, or widow-burning," is to be corrected (if we would have a real word and its definition) to "*satî*, or a widow who is cremated with her husband." To close this wearisome list, "Maharajah Adirâj," a piece of cabalism belonging to no known language, is rendered "Lord Paramount of the Old Empire." *Mahârâjâdhirâja*, which we conjecture to be intended, is Sanskrit, and signifies "supreme king of great kings."

Among smaller histories of India, that by Mr. J. C. Marshman, son of the celebrated missionary, may confidently be recommended, much rather than anything else of the same kind, to our readers. It was compiled at the request of the University of Calcutta, and appeared in 1867. It is in three small volumes, and is published by Longmans, London. On neither side of the Atlantic has the reception hitherto given to it been at all proportionate to its excellence.

A Ramble Round the World—1871. By M. le Baron de Hübner, formerly Ambassador and Minister, and author of 'Sixte Quint.' Translated by Lady Herbert. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1874.)—Baron Hübner left Queenstown on the 14th of May, 1871, and reached Marseilles, by way of New York, San Francisco, Japan, and China, on the 10th of January, 1872, thus "doing" the world in the space of eight months of exceedingly rapid travelling, which seems to have been amusing to him, and the results of which make a volume of entertaining light reading. Readers of a scientifically accurate habit of mind would perhaps do well to consult other itineraries as well as this of Baron Hübner if they wish to have a perfect mental picture of the various countries he visited before them, but they cannot fail to get from his journal a very vivid impression of the way in which the men and things the author saw struck his own mind. When (p. 24) he describes his surprise at finding the debates of the Senate at Washington conducted, contrary to his expectations, in an orderly manner, without constant resort on the part of the honorable members to revolvers or even to bad language, and describes their oratory in this way—"In speaking they alternately raised and let fall their voices, and only in certain eloquent moments struck the palm of their left hand, stuck out horizontally, with their right finger"—the reader gets a glimpse of the pleasant presumptions and preconceptions as to American manners existing abroad, and also a rather good off-hand description of one kind, and a well-known kind, of national oratory. Take also the account of the pessimistic Western governor, who, having asked the diplomatic author what he thinks of our glorious country, and having received an answer as satisfactory as it is possible for any human answer to be to the truly patriotic mind, continues the conversation by saying: "Yes, we are a great nation—a glorious country. But we are sick. We are suffering from the consequences of a precocious childhood—a too sudden growth. As young men, we lived in a forcing-house; arrived at maturity, we undertook too much, and are now wearing ourselves out with overwork. It is possible, but not probable, that we shall arrive at old age. The Union, I fear, has no future." Here, though there may be a little exaggeration, we feel that we are on American ground, and that it is a statesman in whose presence we are standing—a statesman not apparently belonging to the dominant party—whose views on the future of the Union and the condition of the negro would probably be found to have materially changed since the recent elections turned the majority in the House of Representatives, and whose statesmanship was naturally, before those elections, of a hopeless kind. On page 33, where Baron Hübner discusses the question of the passion of Americans for titles, we may doubt the accuracy of the statement that titles of nobility, "the forbidden fruit of the republican American," are pronounced with a sort of "voluptuous pleasure"; for, according to our experience, most Americans are so unfamiliar with the delicate shades of meaning and etiquette of titles of nobility that they avoid using them with foreigners, or if they do use them the voluptuous pleasure is apt to disappear in the trepidation caused by a doubt whether they are correctly applied; and when Baron Hübner tell us that he never made the acquaintance of a descendant of the French Huguenots, the Puritans, or the early Dutch emigrants who did not at once begin the conversation by saying, "I am of a very old family—my ancestors arrived in this country two hundred years ago," we cannot help wondering how many of the scions of these three stocks he actually met in his hurried trip. At the same time, it is impossible to deny the justice or the delicacy of his observation, that as to such titles as governor, senator, colonel, or general, "to him who gives it, as to him who receives it, it is felt to be an equal honor," though the remark need not be confined to these titles or to this country, for the fact on which it rests exists in the abysmal depths of human nature.

Correct generalizations are not to be expected of a traveller whose rambling is done at the rate of two or three hundred miles a day, and who belongs to a class the members of which are said by M. de Hübner to be known in America as "globe-trotters"; and to the foreign globe-trotter some inaccuracy may be pardoned. So the startling statement (p. 53), that American women attach so much importance to "globe-trotting" that young men of a serious turn of mind who think of marrying take pains to ascertain first whether the object of their affections has a strong desire to go to Europe—in which case, as we understand it, they break off the engagement—is probably founded altogether on the amusing story of the disconsolate husband who kept a colored photograph of his deceased wife in the cover of his watch, and lamented her with many tears as "a first-rate manager" and who "never asked to be taken to Europe." "No Europe-going, no such nonsense."

On the whole, we have found the account of the author's travels in China and Japan more interesting, though not so entertaining as his observations on America. In both these countries he had unusual opportunities of seeing what was worth seeing, and in Japan he had the benefit of much conversation with many of the local magnates, including the leader of the reform party, Iwakura, and had the honor, then almost unprecedented, of a presentation to the Mikado. His reproduction of the account given on the spot by the friends and enemies of reform and the European movement in Japan, is well worth reading. Of course he does not pretend to do more than repeat what he heard from the Japanese and the foreign residents; but he managed to pick up altogether the most consistent and coherent account of the movement that we have seen anywhere. His conclusions are that there is grave reason to doubt both the sincerity of the reformers and the possibility of doing the people of the country any lasting good by the changes now being introduced. The Mikado he represents as a mere puppet of a number of crafty chieftains who are making use of him, raising an army, and govern-

ing in his name, and playing at philo-Europeanism with great good-will. From Iwakura down to the lowest official, the stereotyped reply universally made to any question on the subject of the time probably necessary to accomplish the change of Japan into a modern country is—"In three years; it will be finished in three years."

William Blake's Illustrations of the Book of Job. With descriptive letterpress and a sketch of the artist's life and works. By Charles Eliot Norton. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.)—These designs, for which, in addition to the biographical sketch, Mr. Norton furnishes short critical notices, are tolerably well known by reputation as the most important artistic work of their author. The rough photolithographs of them, contained in Alexander Gilchrist's 'Life of Blake,' published by Macmillan in 1863, must be familiar to a great many persons in this country, as the last-named book has been common in bookstores for years past, and cheap, and must be pretty widely distributed by this time. The original engravings are, however, somewhat difficult to find, and the set brings a high price; so that it is probable that there are few persons in America who have seen the originals, or, in the dearth of public or accessible collections, who have any immediate chance of seeing them. It is well, therefore, to have more adequate copies than the small Gilchrist lithographs. The Osgood heliotypes are of the same size as the originals, and are so far successful as reproductions that they give the grouping and general action clearly, and so much of the light and shade as to show to the careful student what Blake intended. Mr. Norton's words in regard to the heliotypes, at the very end of the book, are as follows: "They reproduce, with the closeness of a facsimile, the general character of the original engravings; but they fail to render the most delicate beauties of expression and the finest touches of execution." And, again, it is said that they give "the distribution, though not the scale, of the light and shade of the original." These criticisms are just. It may be said, further, that they are about the equivalent of very late impressions, taken after the plates are much worn by printing. It is clear what the designer meant to do with his figures in action, gesture, grouping; what he meant to express in his background; what the general composition of lines and masses was. But the design in light and shade is lost, the delicate gradations of tone are not even to be guessed at, and the expression of the faces cannot be judged of satisfactorily. It should be said, in qualification of our judgment, that a somewhat careful comparison of the heliotypes with proof copies of the originals has led us to think better of the former than we were inclined to on a first inspection. They are not the same thing; but then, is it very important that they should be the same thing? The quaintness, the originality, both for good and evil, the unlikeness to conventional renderings of nature and of thought, are all fairly well shown to whosoever will examine the heliotypes carefully, and for the rest it may well be argued that these copies at ten dollars are better worth buying than the originals for seventy dollars or more. It may be that if you have at all an engraving by Dürer, an etching by Rembrandt, or Haden, or Meryon, or a print from the 'Liber Studiorum,' you should not spare money, but get the finest impression possible—that there is no comparison between the finest and all others, and no question but that one print in a fine state is worth many less fine. But Blake's light and shade is not of such value as that; and a comprehension of its full merits is not incumbent upon most persons of cultivation. They can afford to disregard it if they choose to do so, and to study the general significance of the work in other than perfect examples. It is probable, indeed, that what there is of Blake in this book is enough for anybody but professed students of art. Mr. Norton's brief "sketch" is a model of selection and condensation, and gives facts enough and criticism enough to answer the purpose of all but the especially curious in strange manifestations of artistic power. One error should be pointed out: in the quotation from Mr. Ruskin on the last page, "light" should be read instead of "life."

The Naturalist on the River Amazons. By Henry Walter Bates, F.L.S. Third edition, with illustrations. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.)—Mr. Bates's South American experiences covered the eleven years from May 26, 1848, to June 3, 1859, and the first edition of this account of them was published in London eleven years ago. No one who reads his delightful narrative will wonder that it has maintained itself so long. The opening pages at once attest the writer's unusual descriptive powers, and from first to last there is no dull spot in them. Moreover, his professional observations are kept from being too technical; and a final reason for a third edition at this late day is furnished by Mr. Bates's sympathy with those views of natural creation which have since come to be known (and denounced) as Darwinian. He was for a part of the time the companion of Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace, who afterwards in another hemisphere, and quite in ignorance of Mr. Darwin's enunciation of the same doctrine, deduced from his own researches the theory of "natural selection." Mr. Bates's narrative was therefore sure to profit by the extraordinary revival of science to which Darwinism in all its length and breadth has led. It is not, however, so pronounced or so path-breaking a work as to be compared, for instance, with the 'Voyage of the *Beagle*'; and those who read it without bias will be surprised that an American historian of Brazil has thought it necessary to qualify his recommendation of this "most charming and valuable work" by an allusion to its scientific heresy. Not scientific so much as theological, of course, for the historian in question is a clergyman. His exact words are worth quoting. Mr. Bates, he says, "has given the world many important facts concerning the great valley, aside from information in regard to its natural history. Only one drawback to many [*qu.* important facts?] is to be found in his 'Darwinian' views; but they are 'put' so modestly, and his investigations are so much better than his theory, that one becomes only interested in the great theme of his book, 'the King of Waters.'" Incoherent as this disclaimer is, it is plain that the praise of Mr. Bates is natural and hearty, the reproof perfunctory merely. But our clergyman wrote in 1866, when the obligation to mention "drawbacks" was very much stronger for his class than it is now.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
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Blake (W.), Illustrations of the Book of Job	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 10 00
Crofton (F. B.), The Bewildered Querists	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Chaney (Rev. G. L.), F. Grant & Co	(Roberts Bros.)
Coolidge (Susan), Mischief's Thanksgiving	(Roberts Bros.)
Chimes for Childhood	(Estes & Lauriat) 0 75
Coffin (C. C.), Caleb Krinkle: an American novel	(Lee & Shepard)
Eclectic Historical Atlas	(Wilson, Hinkle & Co.) 1 50
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Hittell (J. S.), Brief History of Culture	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hippeau (C.), L'Instruction publique en Italie, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Lotos Leaves	(W. F. Gill & Co.) 6 00
Linton (Mrs. E. L.), Patricia Kemball: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Munson (J. E.), Dictionary of Practical Phonography	(Hurd & Houghton) 3 00
Moulton (Mrs. L. C.), More Bed-Time Stories	(Roberts Bros.)
Macleod (Rev. N.), The Starling	(Dodd & Mead) 1 50
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Stieler's Hand-Atlas, Part 24, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)
Tyson (Miss), The Queen of the Kitchen	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 75
Upton (G. B.), Memories: a German Tale	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 2 25
Zeitschrift der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde zu Berlin, No. 53	(L. W. Schmidt)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 22, 1874.

MONEY has remained easy at from 3 to 4 per cent. on call loans; at times as high as 5 per cent. was paid by borrowers who had delayed making up their accounts till very late in the day. Commercial paper remains as last quoted, the best names passing at 6 to 6½ per cent. We have heard of sales, however, as low as 5½ per cent., but this rate was exceptional.

Cable advices from London on Thursday report that the Bank of England had gained £521,000 in bullion during the week ending on that day. The rate of discount was left standing at 6 per cent.

The weekly bank statement on Saturday showed further losses in specie and legal tenders. The small loss in specie—$599,300—is difficult to explain, as during the week which the statement covers $5,725,000 in gold was withdrawn from the banks, and either shipped to Europe, placed in the Treasury for California account, or deposited in the Treasury on account of custom receipts. The Treasury disbursed during the same time $2,000,000 gold, on account of 5-20 bonds redeemed, and $500,000 gold sold, in all amounting to $2,500,000; this amount, deducted from the $5,725,000 withdrawn, leaves $3,225,000, which the banks have actually lost, while the statement shows only $599,300.

The following is the statement in detail:

	Dec. 12.	Dec. 19.	Differences.
Loans	$284,903,300	$285,409,800	Inc.. $506,500
Specie	14,218,800	13,619,500	Dec.. 599,300
Legal tenders	49,470,300	47,931,700	Dec.. 1,538,600
Deposits	218,408,000	215,707,800	Dec.. 2,700,200
Circulation	24,804,300	24,731,600	Dec.. 72,700

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Dec. 12.	Dec. 19.	Differences.
Specie	$14,218,800	$13,619,500	Dec.. $599,300
Legal tenders	49,470,300	47,931,700	Dec.. 1,538,600
Total reserve	$63,689,100	$61,551,200	Dec.. $2,137,900
Reserve required against deposits	54,602,000	53,926,950	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	9,087,100	7,624,250	Dec.. 1,462,850

The stock market, up to Friday, was without special features. On Friday, a bear movement began to develop itself, with the main efforts to depress prices directed against Wabash, which sold down to 25, carrying the balance of the speculative list along with it from ½ to 2 per cent. There were rumors afloat that the company would not be able to pay the January interest on its bonds. The investigation by the Congressional Committee into the mode of obtaining the subsidy from the Government for the Pacific Mail S. S. Company has had a very depressing effect upon its stock, which has declined to 33⅝—the decline having been accelerated by the severe attacks of newspapers, which the Street considers to have been made wholly in the interests of a certain large operator who is short of the stock.

On Saturday a little piece of stock-operating took place which, happily, is not often witnessed in the Stock Exchange. A broker named Wright, without capital or credit, finding himself short of funds, thought that the best way to improve his condition would be to go into a little operation on his own account in Wabash. He bought in all 18,000 shares of stock, and then, finding that the market did not respond to his large purchases and go up, quietly left the Exchange, and shortly afterwards announced to the President of the Board his inability to meet his contracts. Wright was summoned to-day before the Governing Committee, and expelled from the Board for having been "guilty of obvious fraud" in his transactions.

The announcement of Wright's failure brought about, for a short time, a panic in Wabash stock. The parties who had sold to him, still having the stock on their hands, immediately commenced protecting themselves by selling out "under the rate." The price tumbled rapidly from 26¾ to 21½; it afterwards rallied to 24⅞, and finally closed at 22⅞. The whole market became unsettled and weak. The bears now became buyers, and on their purchases to cover shorts the market rallied from 1 to 2 per cent. from the lowest quotations.

Government bonds have been active, and prices have advanced from 1 to 1¼ per cent. on the entire list. The principal buyers were the insurance companies, who seem to be anxious to have a large supply on hand in order to make a favorable exhibit in their January statement. The gold market has remained quiet, with the range of fluctuations confined between 111¼ and 111¾. The specie shipments for the week amount to $2,849,000, consisting principally of gold coin.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 31, 1874.

The Week.

THE Louisiana Returning Board has, after two months' work, completed its labors, and made a report showing the election of three Democratic and three Republican members of Congress, a slight Republican majority in the House, and the adoption of all the constitutional amendments. The report which accompanies this return explains at considerable length the proceedings of the Board. The law requires that they shall first canvass the votes from all polling places where there has been a "fair, free, and peaceable registration and election," rejecting any polling place where there has been "any riot, tumult, acts of violence, intimidation, armed disturbances, bribery, or corrupt influences, which prevented or tended to prevent a fair, free, and peaceable vote," postponing the investigation of these doubtful cases until they have disposed of the others. On examination of the returns, however, it appeared that the election had been so loosely conducted that "at not one-tenth of the polls in the State were the forms required by law observed"; and the report declares that, "had the Board decided that anything like a strict compliance with the forms of law in holding the election" should be required, the result would have been to throw out so many of the polls "that there would have been no election in the State." The Board therefore adopted what they say was a "just and reasonable" rule, that in cases where there was any evidence of an election having been held, "although it be only a tally-sheet unsigned and not sworn to," it would consider this the official record, and compile the vote from it, in the absence of "fraud or intimidation." But where a charge of fraud or intimidation was made, the Board proceeded to receive affidavits on the subject. The Board, however, did not exclude any poll except "on satisfactory proof" that the intimidation had been sufficient to "change the result."

The affidavits taken, it seems, showed the existence of a widespread Democratic conspiracy throughout the State to prevent the negroes from voting the Republican ticket, to prevent them from holding office, to compel Republican office-holders to resign, and to drive the white Republicans out of the State; and the Board admits that as all acts of intimidation were perpetrated in favor of the Democratic party, and against the Republican party, "the polls excluded from compilation generally gave majorities in favor of the Democratic party, and their exclusion from compilation reduced the vote of that party, and in some instances had the effect of returning representatives and other officers of the opposite party." Having given the Board's version of their performances, let us now give our own. In the first week of November an election was held in Louisiana, for members of Congress and other officers. The returns of this election were sent in to the Returning Board, which on going over them found that nine-tenths of the returns were illegal and void, either on account of their not complying with the requirements of the law, or on account of bribery, intimidation, and so on. They thereupon determined to hold the election over again, and for two months past they have been engaged in "fixing" the politics of the State according to their own impression of what it ought to have been, first passing all the necessary laws and then construing them in their own way, with the above result. The Conservatives have issued a protest, declaring the report of the Board an outrage; they maintain that the election was carried by the Democrats; and what we maintain is that, on the Returning Board's showing, the election was not held by the people of Louisiana at all, but by half a dozen gentlemen assembled in a room in New Orleans, and, as the politicians of the Tweed school say, the people were "voted" by them. Mr. Arroyo, one of the members of the Board, resigned in disgust before the result was announced.

Congress has adjourned over the holidays, the first month having been mainly occupied with the District of Columbia and Finance Bills in the Senate, and the Appropriation Bills in the House. Just before the adjournment an active dispute took place in the House over the Navy-Yard election abuses. Mr. Hale, of Maine, having charge of the Naval Appropriation Bill, began the disturbance by declaring that he "did not envy any man upon this floor who had a navy-yard in his district," and added that any such member would always find it "a source of trouble and disappointment"; on which Mr. Creamer, of New York, declared that the Navy Department "above all other departments of the Government" needed investigation, and enforced his remarks by a reference to the district represented by Mr. Gooch, of Massachusetts (including the Charlestown Navy-Yard), "where men to the number of fifteen hundred were employed two months before the election, and discharged upon the very opening of winter, immediately after the election was over." Mr. Hale defended the Department, producing statistics for the years 1873 and 1874 to show that the New York Navy-Yard had more men a year ago than during the same months this year. Mr. Archer suggested that "a year ago was the time when we supposed we should have trouble with Cuba," but Mr. Hale said that the months he had selected for comparison were earlier, and then proposed to go back to the year 1856, and see how it was "in the pure days of Democratic administration." This led to a lively discussion between Mr. Hale and Mr. Schumaker, the latter insisting that the Presidential years 1868 and 1872 must be taken, if a fair comparison was desired; Mr. Hale suggested in reply that Mr. Schumaker was getting "nervous," but admitted that, knowing as he did the utter groundlessness of the charges, he felt no wonder at it. Mr. Schumaker denied with some feeling that there was "anything nervous about him," and added that he hated to see a gentleman enjoying "a reputation for candor and fairness attempting to perpetrate a fraud upon this House." Mr. Gooch himself then appeared and substantially admitted the charge that the Navy-Yard force always increased before an election, but declared that the increase at Charlestown had been caused by the necessity of employing some men to "protect" some live-oak timber—a statement which was received with broad smiles of incredulity by the House.

The new Finance Bill seems to meet with little favor in any quarter. We have not met with a single word of general praise of it in any paper. The occasional commendation of it, on the ground that it fixed a day certain for a return to specie payments, which was at first elicited has been, in the larger number of cases within our observation, withdrawn on a closer inspection of the bill. It is generally recognized that we cannot resume without contraction; that mere pledges by Congress to return to specie payments at a remote period are of no value, considering what twistings and turnings Congress has already gone through on currency matters; that the part of the scheme relating to national banking means unmitigated inflation; that the powers given to the Secretary are enormous and alarming; that the absence of any provision for the destruction of the redeemed greenbacks is a trick looking to the establishment of another "reserve"; and that the sudden passage of the bill, without discussion in the Senate, is an unworthy attempt of the Republican managers to humbug the public, by appearing to

legislate on a subject which they really mean to shirk, and by appearing to stand up for hard money when they are really playing into the hands of the inflationists.

When one reads about a fatal "street-fight" at the South between editors or politicians, one's horror over the breach of the public peace is almost always moderated by the reflection that somebody was killed, and that though possibly "an estimable citizen in private life," as the reporters say, the public was the better of his removal. We fear this or something like this has been the state of mind of most people of the North on reading that Warmoth, the carpet-bagger and ex-governor of the State, had slain in single combat one Byerly, the White League editor of the New Orleans *Bulletin*. Byerly, it appears, had been advocating in his paper separate street-cars for colored people, and Warmoth, to his honor, been opposing the plan, also in print, which led to arrangements for a duel between him and a Mr. Jewell, one of the editors. Pending this encounter, however, Byerly assaulted Warmoth in the street with a common domestic cudgel, whereupon Warmoth drew a knife, and they both "clinched" and fell, and when they got up "it was found," says Warmoth, "that Byerly was cut, and I understand that I am accused of doing the cutting." The fact was that Byerly was "cut" in six places so deeply that he has died, and the plan of having separate cars for colored people, so important to the interests of Southern society, will perhaps now miscarry.

We are bound to say that Warmoth has borne himself better in this transaction than his successor Kellogg, the actual governor, who, when a few weeks ago a brother politician approached his carriage in what he thought was a threatening manner, drove off rapidly, firing out of the window at the foe in the crowded street as he went, happily without damage to bystanders. If a governor or ex-governor has to fight with knives or pistols in the State capital, we think he ought, for the credit of his office, to kill his man, and ought to stand his ground while doing the shooting or "the cutting." We now sincerely hope that there will be no Conservatives in New Orleans besotted enough to get up sympathetic excitement for Byerly. A dog's death is, in the estimation of the civilized world, good enough for a street-fighter, and street-fighting is a custom worthy only of savages. Southerners must somehow get this idea into their heads. They have got over the illusion that slavery was to spread over the earth; they must now get over the notion that they can be considered within the pale of civilization as long as murder is a favorite mode of avenging insults and settling differences of opinion, and murderers go unwhipped of justice. Their present state of mind on this subject is only worthy of Gaul in the sixth century.

There was another long discussion before the General Term of the Court in Brooklyn on Monday over the "bill of particulars" in the Tilton-Beecher case which had been ordered by the Court below, in terms which forbade the defendant "to produce on the trial proof of the occurrence of any specific acts of adultery at any other time and place than such as shall be set forth in the bill of particulars." The "argument" of the lawyers, which fills one side of the *Tribune*, in very fine print, was very discursive, and indeed bore a striking resemblance to the statements of the parties published last summer in the newspapers. In fact, most of the speeches appear to have been really aimed at the public out-of-doors. Mr. Shearman, who at the last argument cited the case of Susanna and the Elders, in this cited the case of Athanasius, delivered a glowing eulogy on his client, and, by way of justifying his desire to tie Tilton down to "particulars," mentioned "that one of the most respectable members of the bar in this city had told him (Shearman) that he (the member of the bar) had heard Tilton say that adultery could be committed by parties who were at the time forty miles apart," which sounds like something Susan B. Anthony might say at a suffrage tea-party. He also cited, for the same object, one of Tilton's silly articles in the *Independent* some years ago, advocating legal divorce for "adultery of the soul." In fact, thus far it cannot be said that the case has fared much better at the bar than among the newspapers. The Court has refused the bill.

The writer of the money article in the *Tribune* has for some time past by his persistent gloom excited more or less merriment even among those who generally concurred in his financial views. Not very long ago he stated that property in railroads might before long be found no more valuable than property in slaves was found to be in 1860, and he half predicted a virulent Granger movement in this State. He looked hopefully for numerous failures towards the close of the year, and was plunged in the deepest distress by the arrival of Christmas and the attempts of his fellow-Christians to enjoy it. Calling it "merry," and trying to be merry on Christmas day, roused his hearty indignation, inasmuch as he apparently felt satisfied that everybody who looked at his year's accounts must see that he was ruined. Everybody who said he had been doing a good business he apparently suspected either of mental unsoundness or of some criminal design. Now come McKillop & Sprague, however, with the annual report of their Commercial Agency, and its conclusions are worth any number of speculative groans. These are that though the first half of the year 1874 has been generally unprofitable, the second half "has, in many lines of business, been generally profitable," and "the quantity of goods gone into consumption during the last six months has been a fair average." It sets down the amount saved by economy during the year at $400,000,000, and the number of failures in 1874 about the same as in 1873, many of them, however, belonging to the latter year. The Southern States, it says, have, on the whole, done well; in the West the speculative fever has very much diminished; and it thinks a survey of the whole field justifies "satisfaction with the status and prospects of business" for the coming year. One source of consolation remains, however, to the writer in the *Tribune*, no matter what people may say about the business outlook, and that is, that human nature has not improved to any perceptible extent since the panic, and that crime is still rife all over the continent. Lying is not uncommon, and theft is resorted to with distressing frequency, and the railroad men all continue sinful or absorbed in the pursuit of temporal riches.

Perhaps nothing in the history of William M. Tweed has been more curious than his prison life. He had hardly reached his prison when the Commissioners of Charities and Correction—three in number, appointed by a reform Mayor elected in the middle of the "uprising" caused by Tweed's robberies—who have charge of the city prisons, were charged with either ordering or permitting him a great number of indulgences. Instead of wearing the prison dress he was allowed to attire himself in the simple garb of a "Boss"; instead of occupying a cell, he had a suite of apartments assigned him, including a capacious and well-furnished dining-room and sitting-room; instead of engaging in the coarse labor of a convict, he occupied himself with what he calls his "private business," or, in other words, in the management of the money stolen by him from the city, and in this he had the assistance of a "private secretary." *Harper's Weekly* published an accurate picture of the rooms, and the whole story of Tweed's immunities and avocations was laid before the public, but it excited really comparatively little attention. At last Governor Dix interfered and called Mayor Havemeyer to account, and he called the Commissioners to account, and an enquiry was pending when the Mayor died. His successor, Mr. Vance, followed the matter up by removing the Commissioners, and it now remains to be seen how Tweed will fare under a Democratic administration. Mr. Myer Stern, however, has sent us a letter

addressed to Mayor Vance denying his charges, and challenging him to waive his privilege and stand a libel suit.

What a very little way into the Republican skin the reform has penetrated has been well illustrated by the politicians' criticisms on Mr. Vance's action after removing the Commissioners. He is only *ad interim* Mayor until the 1st of January, when his Democratic successor takes office. Accordingly, he felt it to be his duty when making any removals to allow his successor to fill the vacancies. It was his duty for two reasons—first, because it would be unjust and unfair to seize the opportunity afforded by a month's tenure of office to saddle the new Mayor with employés for whom he would be responsible but whom he had not selected; and secondly, because all hope of reform in municipal government rests on the possibility of establishing the practice of treating the offices not as the spoils of party, but as trusts to be administered by whatever party holds them for the public good. Mr. Vance's course was therefore not only just but expedient in the highest degree. Nevertheless, the Republican politicians denounce him fiercely, we are told, as a traitor, and think that, when he made a vacancy, he ought to have "euchred" his successor by popping one of their "workers" into it.

The November elections nowhere caused greater rejoicing in the South than in Alabama, where the whites were raised from a state of despondency to one of exceeding hopefulness. They saw that the colored vote was divided, and they had good reasons for believing that it would never again be cast solidly for any party. The Republican officials, by a cunning use of the bacon which Congress had appropriated for the relief of sufferers by overflows, did what they could in the way of bribing the blacks, but in vain. There was noticeable during the canvass an extreme indifference to the contest on the part of the colored population. So striking, indeed, was it that the whites suspected some deep-laid scheme, since in former years the negro laborers would abandon the most pressing work at the call of their political leaders. The explanation of this remarkable transformation is one which throws much light on the tendency of affairs at the South. It is one, too, offered by the negroes themselves, who say they had attended meetings and voted year after year as they had been ordered, and had seen no good come of it to themselves. They were growing steadily poorer and more deeply in debt to their white neighbors, and it was time to look after their own interests. Here we have, in fact, the key to the whole situation. The whites of Alabama are poor, destitute of capital. They have, however, intelligence and superior position. The negroes are still poorer, and are weighted down by ignorance and social demoralization. They will be longer in rising, and in the meantime will come more and more under the influence of the more prosperous whites among whom they live, and who are at present their creditors. They have already ceased to furnish a basis for the pseudo-Republican party at the South, and in future we may look to see them divided at the polls as the whites are divided—a consummation devoutly to be wished for every Southern State.

Ecclesiastical matters are now, as will be seen from our correspondent's letter, occupying the public mind in England, almost to the exclusion of all others. Little incidents are constantly occurring to fan the flame of excitement, and some of the clergy lend themselves to the work with strange fatuity. For instance, the Bishop of Lincoln a short time ago supported a minister of his own diocese in a rude, and almost certainly unlawful, refusal to allow a Wesleyan minister to place at his daughter's grave a headstone on which the bereaved father had caused the term "Rev." to be attached to his own name. This roused the Dissenters fiercely, and made all sensible people weep; but the Bishop could not get it out of his head that he was discharging a lofty duty. Now he has again got into a collision with another of his clergy by forbidding him to invite Dr. Colenso to preach in his church. Dr. Colenso, while Bishop of Natal in Africa, propounded certain views touching the Pentateuch which were considered heretical by the other bishops of South Africa, and they tried and deposed him. He appealed, however, to the Privy Council, which pronounced the whole proceeding null and void; but then forty-three English bishops united in a request that he would resign, and the English Convocation and other Episcopal bodies approved of the action of the South African bishops. But now comes Mr. Fletcher, the minister who has invited him to preach, and says that the Bishop of Lincoln has no legal right to interfere, and that he will not regard his inhibition, and Dean Stanley supports him by inviting Dr. Colenso to preach in Westminster Abbey, following this closely by a similar invitation to Dr. Cardwell, a Scotch Presbyterian divine. These things all help to mark more distinctly the line between the English clergy who are willing to live under the law of the state and those who are not, and help to turn the minds of the laity more and more towards disestablishment as the best cure for these disturbances and dissensions.

The Emma Mine scandal grows in England under the stimulation of the Court of Chancery and the spectacle of callous indifference to the moral aspects of the affair exhibited by our own Government. Mr. Conway writes to the Cincinnati *Commercial* that it now furnishes materials for "jocular allusions" to it and our share in it at the Opéra Comique and elsewhere, and the interest in it is heightened by the fact that a person connected with the American Legation, whom Mr. Conway calls "a gallant colonel," has recently been operating vigorously on the London Stock Exchange, doubtless inspired by the example of his poker-playing chief. To crown all, Mr. Moran, who has been for seventeen years the secretary of the Legation, and has won everybody's respect in the place, and has been of late, in fact, almost the only unimpeachable person connected with it, has just been appointed Minister at Lisbon, the story goes, for the purpose of getting him out of the way. Mr. Conway adds some very timely observations on the influence which the present condition of that Legation is exerting in England on American credits, and the increasing suspicion with which the pecuniary ventures of a community which can have Mr. Schenck for its Minister are regarded. To put it plainly, and in language which he and General Grant will understand, it does not "pay" to keep him there.

A despatch of Prince Bismarck to Count von Arnim, which was produced on the trial of the latter, has been published, and it throws more light on the cause of the differences between them, and does more credit to Bismarck's character and cause, than anything we have yet seen. In the first place, he warns Arnim against transmitting to Berlin, at a crisis of such importance, hasty and unverified impressions about French affairs, as if they were well-established conclusions; against disregarding or trying to set aside the foreign policy resolved on by the Chancellor; makes some very sound and shrewd remarks on the difficulties which would be wrought in Germany's relations to France by the overthrow of the Thiers Republic and the establishment of a monarchy; shows the strength which such an occurrence would give to the Ultramontanes, and points out, by reference to the experience of the last forty years, that the influence of French democracy on the neighboring states depended not on the kind of government which existed in France, but on the weight and authority in Europe possessed by France It is altogether an exceedingly able state-paper, although sharp and peremptory throughout, and one sees, from the nature of the reproofs it contains, not only that Arnim's faults were of an irritating kind, but that much forbearance had been already exercised towards him.

THE LATEST "HAPPY ADJUSTMENT."

WE wish most sincerely that the financial unsoundness of Mr. Sherman's bill was the only objection to it; but the political and moral objections are just as great. It is, in the first place, a plain attempt on the part of the Republican leaders to cover up the division among them on a vital question of the day by a very transparent sham. The absence of any policy on the subject of the currency was undoubtedly one of the causes of the late defeats at the polls. This can neither be denied nor concealed. It was no answer to this charge, as we have often pointed out, that the Democrats had no policy either, because the Democrats were not in power. An opposition is not bound to have a policy on any question. It may confine itself to criticism if it pleases. The party charged with the conduct of the Government must make up its mind on such leading questions of the day as really call for legislation, and this duty the Republicans have for ten years persistently shirked, and have turned over the finances of this great commercial nation to very obscure and ignorant persons like Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson, whom the President, a soldier without experience in civil affairs, raised to power to preserve order, chose in his caprice to put in charge of the Treasury. The license, indeed, extended to Mr. Boutwell is without a parallel, considering his antecedents, in the history of constitutional government.

The bill now pending has, therefore, been evidently got up to produce both an appearance of union where no real union exists, and an appearance of doing something where nothing is done, or where something entirely different from what the country expects is contemplated. Nothing about the bill is, however, more objectionable than the *manner* of its passage in the Senate. Government by caucus has just received a very severe rebuke at the polls by the overwhelming defeat of scores of the regular party candidates. But was there ever a worse attempt to govern by caucus than the concoction of a bill which is not surpassed in importance by more than two or three pieces of legislation within the present century, which may exert a deep and lasting influence on the prosperity and business of a great nation, by a self-appointed party committee sitting in secret, and its passage through the Senate almost without debate—that is, without any complete statement of the arguments for or against it—and without giving the public time to consider it?

At the bottom of all these attempts of our Republican financiers at compromises and "happy adjustments," there is a kind of child's faith, such as George Eliot has so admirably described in the case of Hetty Sorrel, that the rules of arithmetic and the order of nature can somehow be evaded; that it cannot be that paper-money will produce the bad effects here it has produced elsewhere; that the American people will somehow, at some time or other, struggle into specie payments without any special efforts or sacrifice, and, above all, without "hurting the party." But Mr. Sherman, Mr. Dawes, and all their colleagues will find, like Hetty, that this is a miserable delusion, that the day of reckoning must come and the sacrifice be made, and that when it comes the greatness of the calamity will be in the direct ratio of the length of the period of evasion.

The bill, as we explained hastily in our last issue, is either a delusion or a snare. The attempt at specie payments is deferred for four years, which, in the way of direct delay, is the limit of possibility to any man now concerned in legislation. Even then it is to be made under conditions which will render its failure or further postponement inevitable. Political economy has long settled that no currency can be kept equal to coin while its issue exceeds the requirements of a specie basis. Neither the wit of man nor any sacrifice upon the part of the nation will avail to alter this condition. Yet the bill fails—utterly, and, considering its origin, we doubt not purposely fails—to secure such contraction as will make resumption possible. Thirty-two and a half million national bank-notes must be issued before the twenty-six million greenbacks, legalized in a former compromise, will cease from doing mischief. One hundred and two and a half millions added to the present circulation must choke the filled channels of trade before the legal-tender notes can be brought as low as three hundred million dollars. Here contraction will stop. The bill expressly forbids reduction below this minimum. It does not, however, prohibit the reissue of the retired notes, that point, as Mr. Sherman was not ashamed to declare, "being a question for consideration four years from now." Suspense is ruin to business men. They complain of it at this moment bitterly and justly. Yet the Senator offers them as a Christmas present four years of doubt, compared with which their present condition is certainty itself.

But perhaps anxiety is needless regarding the reissue of paper-money so unlikely to be withdrawn. For the contraction of greenbacks depends upon an increase of national bank-notes, and in what year may the larger, or even the smaller, of the above-mentioned additions to these be looked for? The Comptroller of the Currency tells us that, of $54,000,000 circulation authorized by the Act of July 12, 1870, no more than $37,720,411 had been absorbed up to the 1st of November last; at which date $16,279,589 remained for distribution. Thus the increase has averaged only 8¼ millions per annum. But this is not the worst of his showing for the bill. The growth has diminished rapidly and very steadily throughout the period, until it is now nothing, *or less*, as the following table will prove:

Issue from	July 12, 1870, to Nov. 1, 1871	$24,773,261
do.	Nov. 1, 1871, to Nov. 1, 1872	16,220,210
do.	Nov. 1, 1872, to Nov. 1, 1873	7,357,479
do.	Nov. 1, 1873, to Nov. 1, 1874	3,576,297

—and, during the last year, $7,714,550 greenbacks were deposited by banks for the withdrawal of their circulation.

Arithmetic fails us in calculating the date when the outstanding legal-tenders may be expected to approach $300,000,000 under this bill, which, as regards the advancement of resumption by a contraction of greenbacks, is a device so transparent that it will impose upon no person who does not wish to be deceived. Its other provisions deserve notice only because of their rashness or absurdity. We are to have free banking without the restrictions of either a limited circulation or redemption in coin. Nay—and this we may call the crown of the bill—one hundred dollars in national bank-notes are to replace each eighty dollars of greenbacks withdrawn. The former, being semi-legal-tender, and requiring no reserve, will continue, until specie payments have been secured, to be as great an obstacle to resumption as the latter themselves. But paper—ever more and more paper—is what contractionists must submit to who desire the company of such currency reformers as Messrs. Morton, and Logan, and Ferry of Michigan.

The withdrawal of fractional currency and its replacement by silver coin are excellent steps in the proper place. But they must not be taken too soon. We showed in our last issue that silver coin cannot be used as money unless the premium upon gold shall fall to a point so low that there will be no profit from shipments of silver. At its present value in the markets of the world, it would certainly be driven abroad by a gold premium higher than ten per cent., while any material rise above this figure would export it quite as fast as it could be issued from the mint.

For another reason, a premature attempt to use silver as money must be deprecated. Every dollar circulated here means either a dollar of gold sent abroad, or the retention of the latter by such an advance in the premium as shall enable us to replace it with otherwise unexportable merchandise. Silver is a very important component of our exports. From New York, at which point the bullion movement for the whole country centres, there have been shipped thus far this year $18,340,360 in silver bars. Gold and silver are not separated in the regular specie returns; but we have carefully prepared a table to show the movement in the latter during the past three years:

Net export, deducting imports, of silver from New York in 1872				$19,669,770
Do.	do.	do.	do. in 1873	29.688,897
Do.	do.	do.	to date in 1874	17,309,498

Surely these figures are sufficient to prove that resumption in silver must come to us as the companion, not the herald, of resumption in gold.

The redemption clause is quite as ill-judged and valueless as any other section of the bill. What is meant by the surplus revenue which the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to use? Is it to be a surplus in excess of the requirements of the Sinking Fund? None other could have been contemplated, but there is no possibility of its existence. For the current fiscal year the Secretary estimates that the deficiency in the Sinking Fund Account will amount to $22,093,748. Even were the fund entirely ignored throughout the next four years, any probable surplus of revenue would be more than absorbed by purchases of silver wherewith to redeem $40,284,952 outstanding fractional currency, in obedience to the provisions of this bill. The authority given to the Secretary "to issue, sell, and dispose of, at not less than par in coin, either of the bonds described in the Act of Congress approved July 14, 1870," will avail him but little on the 1st January, 1879, for none of the bonds authorized by this Act which he has the slighest prospect of selling at par remain to be disposed of. The Syndicate owns, and for another month will own, a call upon the whole $122,688,550 unsold Fives. What a mockery it is to authorize the sale of 4½ per cent. bonds at not less than par, when the 5 per cent. bonds are being marketed with difficulty at one quarter per cent. below it.

But the bill we are dealing with is not an attempt wisely framed, after deliberate discussion, to accomplish resumption in the surest, easiest manner, as the safety of business requires. The purpose, the only purpose, from the very first caucus has been to enable Mr. Dawes to inform his friends in Massachusetts that this is a measure of contraction and a happy adjustment, while at the same time Mr. Morton can assure his supporters in Indiana that it is a measure of inflation and a happy adjustment. Thus statesmen labor for their own popularity and the future of a great national party. We have much pleasure, and no difficulty, in believing that their work will receive its reward.

THE MISSOURI SENATORSHIP.

THE week after the elections, when it was plain that the return of a Democratic majority in the Missouri Legislature put Mr. Schurz's seat in peril, we ventured to remark that "few things the Democrats could do to inspire confidence in themselves and in their policy, and make the way easy for them in 1876, would be more effective than sending him back again." The idea is one which of course suggested itself to almost everybody who did not look on the Democratic victory as unmixed evil, and who believed it possible for something in the nature of a reform organization to grow out of it. It suggested itself, too, as a matter of course to all those shrewd and sensible Democrats who perceived that their triumph was by no means the triumph of the Democratic party, and that it would depend on the behavior of the party during the coming two years whether it proved of any real and permanent advantage to them or not. People, of course, do not expect of the party, on the strength of a majority in one house, any striking display of legislative capacity. What they do expect of it is the display of a real spirit of reform and real comprehension of what reform means in the limited field of activity which is now open to it. In other words, they will judge by the speeches, resolutions, reports, and elections of the next two years whether it will be safe or desirable to entrust the general Government to Democratic hands at the end of that period. Moreover, the class which is looking on and making up its mind, and which turned the scale at the last election, and may turn it at the next, is not a large or stupid one. It comprises what is keenest and most watchful and independent in both parties, and is not to be deceived by buncombe speeches or resolutions, as a good many Republican politicians now know to their cost. When these gentlemen found everything else fail, they tried to retain their hold on power by telling dreadful stories of what would happen if the Democrats came into power, and upon a great many of the Republicans these stories undoubtedly produced the desired effect. But upon the class of which we are speaking, they ceased to produce any effect, and when it determined to try the Democrats, Republican ascendancy was at an end.

Now, this class has to be satisfied as to Democratic intentions, and it will not be satisfied by fine words, but by the use Democrats make of such scraps of power as now come into their hands. For instance, it will watch with interest the kind of Speaker they elect, and the kind of committees he appoints, the kind of enquiries on which they enter, and the spirit in which they conduct them, the character of the measures they propose and support, and the kind of senators Democratic legislators send up—and we would warn Democratic politicians that unless they give satisfaction on these points, they will be again consigned to powerlessness and obscurity in 1876. We know that they flatter themselves that as "practical men" they know more about these things than we do who do not attend caucuses, and do not know how to "control primaries," but we tell them they are mistaken. We know a great deal more about the way the opinion of that portion of the public which controls elections is going than they do, and that they are hardly ever so far astray as when they think they are doing "cute things" and outwitting the "theorists." Their little electioneering tricks and their windy rhetoric do not reach the people who hold the balance of power, and we know what these people are feeling and thinking far better than the able-bodied gentlemen who do the "subsoiling" and "managing."

We think we may safely say that this confidence has of late derived abundant justification from events, and it impels us once again to call the serious attention of the Democratic chiefs to the senatorial election in Missouri. We must remind them that they have no great principle on their side to lead people to overlook even small mistakes. The recent history of the party is not illustrious, and in the matter of ideas or policy they are not one whit better off than the Republicans, if indeed they are as well off. If they dismiss Mr. Schurz from the Senate, too, they will not be able to justify it on the score of party usage or tradition. They themselves deliberately broke up that usage and tradition in 1872 when they adopted Horace Greeley as their candidate for the presidency—a man who had all his life been the bitter enemy of their organization, had never made a pretence of belonging to it, had vigorously opposed all their distinctive doctrines, and had connived at and supported many if not most of the abuses they were openly denouncing. When they nominated him, they proclaimed to the world that they were willing to do anything for success; and it will not do for them two years later to pretend that they must sacrifice everything to party discipline and fealty. Any Democrat who was able to swallow Greeley would be estopped from making wry faces over Schurz, even if Schurz were no better than Greeley.

But Schurz is better than Greeley, from the Democratic standpoint as well as from the standpoint of all intelligent and patriotic men, for a variety of reasons. If the Democratic party says that his course during the last eight years has been such that Democrats cannot trust him, then the class which turns the scale at elections will most certainly reply that the country cannot trust the Democratic party. In the first place, as has been often pointed out, reform means, at this juncture, not so much improvement in legislation as in administration and in the personnel of the Government. The country wants to see men of higher character and greater knowledge, and of better aims, in prominent positions than it is now treated to, and wants to see the public revenues and patronage used for public ends. It wants, in short, to see the term "statesman" restored to its original meaning and taken away from the motley crew of rhetoricians, tricksters, and thieves who have of late years appropriated it. Looked at from this standpoint, Mr. Schurz is a man who cannot be excluded from any party in the country at this moment calling itself a reform party. He is the most prominent man in the history of all recent attempts at reform. He has vigorously opposed, step by step, that downward course on

which the Administration entered when it appointed Tom Murphy collector of this port, and which ended in handing the control of the "reformed" civil service in the State of Massachusetts over to Ben Butler. He was the earliest and ablest promoter of that system of investigation which has already brought so much corruption to light, and which we have no doubt, if firmly prosecuted, will bring a great deal more to light hereafter. He has all along, in particular, set his face against that alliance of the Administration with the corrupt element in Southern politics which forms so disgraceful a chapter in the history of Reconstruction. He has, too, in all this been the object of especial detestation and vilification on the part of the Administration and its adherents. Its agents in the press have made him the object of vituperation and caricature which was too ruffianly to injure any man, but which carried the American press to as low a depth of degradation as it has ever reached. He belongs also to a class of men whom it must be the end and aim of any reform party to bring more prominently into public life. He speaks upon the leading questions of the day with an eloquence, ability, and fulness of information which it is no exaggeration to say is just now unequalled, and he has thus, by mere force of contrast, done much to create that disgust with the ignorance and absurdity of some leading Republican politicians which has given the Democrats their present opportunity. If these things do not entitle him to any mark of honor and confidence the Democrats have it in their power to bestow, then we are sure the country will say that the work of purifying the Government ought not to be committed to Democratic hands, and we venture to predict that it will not be.

In saying all this, we are of course not unmindful of the error into which Mr. Schurz fell in supporting even feebly the folly known as "the Greeley movement." We are, however, as well qualified as anybody to weigh this, because nobody condemned it more freely. But we knew very well that it was condemned by his own better judgment, and that he went to Cincinnati in furtherance of the very ends on which those Republicans who gave the Democrats their victory in November are now intent. We now know, too, what we then believed, that he did not go to Cincinnati a minute too soon, and that if his views had been carried out the country would either have been spared the scandals and disgraces of the past two years, or reformers would have had an organization which they would have no reason to distrust or feel ashamed to turn to for comfort or deliverance. His weakness in accepting Greeley's nomination as the result of a serious political movement was of course deplorable, but it was a weakness with which Democrats certainly cannot reproach him, and which any honest Republican politician who recalls the queer things and queer people he has himself supported in order to avoid scandal and dissension, and preserve the faith of voters in each other, will be shy about criticising. In short, if Mr. Schurz has not reached the loftiest standard of political duty and perspicacity, he has reached a standard the general adoption of which by public men would solve the problem by which the souls of patriotic Americans are to-day most vexed. If the Missouri Legislature substitutes for him one of the ignorant and obscure or ignoble busybodies or intriguers who now so often play the game called "a senatorial election," it will not only be a serious injury to the country, but as serious a disaster as could befall the party to which the majority of the members belong and which, we presume, they are anxious to serve.

CHURCH QUESTIONS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, December 11, 1874.

"EVERYTHING in the Empire," as Lord Cockburn somewhere says in his lately published journal, "is tinged for the present with Church." English society is deeply stirred by ecclesiastical questions. Wherever you go you find that the conversation has a bias towards Church politics. Members of Parliament, addressing their constituents, have given up speaking of the past. The five years of Liberal government and Conservative opposition, and the causes of the estrangement of the people from the Gladstone government, as topics for extra-parliamentary speeches, are relegated to the domain of history. The future is again in the ascendant, and all the more important utterances of late have reference to the relations of Church and State. Newspapers are full of the same subject; and whether in society, or in the public speeches of members of Parliament, or in the newspapers, much the same view is accepted, and that view Mr. Fawcett, the member for Hackney, puts in these words: "Nothing is more remarkable than the change which has come over the Disestablishment question. Twelve months ago the disestablishment of the English Church was spoken of as the distant dream of a few enthusiastic fanatics, but now even moderate politicians speak of it as a change certain to come, and the only question is by whom and in what form it shall be done." It is difficult to say how this has come about. It has not been sought for or pushed into the front prematurely, but it seems as if the question had struck its roots far down, and in the process of maturing had taken an unusual start with unexpected rapidity. The Government are in a sense responsible. The stream was flowing very languidly, but an impetus was given to it by the prominence assigned to ecclesiastical questions last session. The Public Worship Regulation Act and the Abolition of Church Patronage (Scotland) Act opened the sluices, and the Government claim the credit and must take the responsibility of both these measures. The immediate result has been a pamphlet controversy in England, the brunt of which is borne by Mr. Gladstone, and a pamphlet controversy in Scotland, the brunt of which is borne by Mr. Gladstone's late colleague, the Duke of Argyll, and, indirectly, both these controversies have given a new prominence to the question of disestablishment.

Mr. Gladstone's paper on Ritualism in the *Contemporary Review* for October was in itself of small political significance. It was interesting and suggestive as containing the thoughts of a single Christian addressed to his fellow-Christians, warning them against letting any forms or ceremonies that give them pleasure stand in the place of real communion with God, and as illustrating the simplicity and piety of nature which the author has preserved pure through a long political career. The second paper, that on the Vatican Decrees, is of a different character, and has, as you are well aware, moved society in Western Europe both inside and outside the church of Rome, and especially in Germany, in a manner that is almost startling. Its direct effect on English politics is likely to be small. Henceforth it is probable that the Irish vote both in the constituencies and in Parliament will be even less to be depended on by either party than heretofore; and that, to my mind, is not of much consequence. Since the Emancipation Act was passed the Irishmen in the House of Commons have been more Liberal than Tory, because they had, or imagined they had, more to expect from the former party than from the latter. But now that they see no prospect of future favors from the Liberals, they are verging towards the other side, to which, moreover, the traditions and temperament of the Catholic faith incline. By all means let them go if the Tories want them; or let them drift about, a powerless body in the Legislature, now on one side and now on the other. In the past they could never be trusted in emergencies by either party, and they never will be in the future. Mr. Gladstone's pamphlet, however, may indirectly have considerable political influence. It will strengthen the hold which he has upon the more evangelical and dissenting bodies in the state—a hold which malignant and persistent insinuations about his Romish tendencies had somewhat relaxed—and while in one sense it may, by directing attention to the Church of Rome, weaken the strain which is upon the Church of England at present, in another sense it will tighten it, because by keeping the public mind fixed upon ecclesiastical questions it cannot but tend to hasten on the wider questions of the relation of church and state which are looming in the future, and with which, it is now pretty generally believed, Mr. Gladstone will not be averse to grapple when public opinion is prepared to follow him.

In Scotland matters are much nearer to a crisis, and, as might be expected in a practical country, the issues are more tangible and definite than in England. The Presbyterian Church is fundamentally a democratic institution, and one of its leading principles is that the minister shall be elected by the congregation to whom he ministers. This principle of election prevailed until the reign of Queen Anne, when a Tory government smuggled through Parliament an act restoring the rights of patronage to the Crown and to individual patrons. Out of this act of Parliament, which was directly antagonistic to the genius of the Scotch Church, the various secessions from the Establishment, including the great disruption of 1843, have all arisen. These secessions have weakened, and, indeed, almost destroyed the influence of the church. The present generation of Scotch Tories, wiser, or, it may turn out, more foolish, than their predecessors of Queen Anne's time, seeing that the Church of Scotland was undergoing shipwreck, determined last session to make a bold bid for safety by undoing the hasty legislation of a century and a half ago, and they passed an act which repealed the obnoxious statute of Anne, and gave the right of presentation to each congregation of the Es

tablished Church. It was a daring venture, and thirty years ago, had such an act been passed, it would have prevented the disruption and saved the church. Now it is too late. The Free Church and other dissenting bodies outnumber the Established Church by nearly three to one, and they have vigorously commenced a crusade against it. In Queen Anne's time, and indeed down to 1843, the Established Church was the Church of Scotland; Dissenters were but a fraction of the population. It is not so now. The Established Church is the church of the minority. In some Highland parishes such a thing as a congregation belonging to the Established Church has no existence. It is a farce to give the right of presentation to a congregation consisting of a couple of families (the minister's and the schoolmaster's) and a few sheep dogs. In such cases the right of presentation should be given to the parish, not to the congregation. The Established Church, by the act of last session, has voluntarily separated itself from the land and from the Crown—in other words, from the nation. It has become a sect free from all national trammels and all state control, but living on national property. So the opponents of the church have begun to argue, and, in an important public meeting held two days ago in Edinburgh, in which some of the leading politicians and ministers belonging to the dissenting denominations took an active part, resolutions were passed condemning the existing relation between the state and the church in Scotland, and pledging the meeting to commence hostile operations against the church.

But being, as I have said, a practical people, the Scotch have set a tangible and definite proposal before them. Their proposal is this: The funds, they say, engrossed by the present church establishment in Scotland, if fully realized, would amount to upwards of £300,000 annually. This is national property. Let this national property be applied to a national object. The providing of a sound secular and religious education for the children of Scotland is a national object. It takes about £300,000 annually to maintain the Scotch school system. Why should not the Established Church be left to support itself, like the other Presbyterian churches, and the £300,000 which it monopolizes be applied for providing, not a pauper, but a free education for the whole youth of Scotland? This is plain speaking, and, if you grant the minor premiss, it is sufficiently logical to satisfy even the Scotch mind. It is to meet these and similar arguments growing out of the Patronage Abolition Act that the Duke of Argyll has rushed into a pamphlet controversy. He had better have left it alone. He has done no good either to himself or to the cause. His motives in supporting the measure introduced by his political opponents were no doubt good. His desire was and is to see a really national church in Scotland sufficiently comprehensive to include all Presbyterian sects within itself. But he did not calculate upon the amount of animosity which the Established Church had raised in the breasts of leading members of the non-established churches. Perhaps the promoters of the measure did not do so either. However that may be, the result promises to be fatal to the Establishment. At the next general election Disestablishment and Disendowment will be the shibboleth in the Scotch constituencies, and while in England we may watch with interest how the problems work themselves out in the sister country, we may take this lesson to heart, that if we wish to keep up the relations between the church and the state here we had better leave the church alone. Left to itself, it may survive for many years, but if any party in the state commence to tinker it with the view to its improvement, they will only bring the fabric down upon their heads.

TWO DEBATES IN THE REICHSTAG.

BERLIN, Dec. 7, 1874.

"THE fight has grown hotter." So the leader of the Ultramontanes in the Reichstag confessed last Friday. Mr. Windthorst deserves the grateful acknowledgments of all his adversaries for this frank confession. During the summer and the early fall, rumors, which could be traced to high sources, were afloat that the bishops were seriously discussing the project of a compromise with the Government, and, though nothing was done to that effect, yet the rumors were to some extent kept alive by the apparent calm during the first two weeks of this session of the Reichstag. There were many people who, in spite of their earnest desire to help the speedy return of peace, could not help wishing that the rumors might prove to be unfounded, for they were firmly convinced that, under the actual circumstances, such a compromise could not be anything but a foul truce. The last week has proved the correctness of this view to many who at first did not hold it: the storm has cleared away the fog.

Before I proceed to a description of the last exciting incidents of the conflict, let us cast a glance at the battle-field and review the combatants. It will be well known to your readers that the Reichstag is divided into ten to twelve different parties, none of them commanding a majority of all the votes. The whole number of deputies is 382. In 1871, of these 382 seats, 127 were held by the National-Liberals, 62 by the Centre, 56 by the Conservatives, 37 by the Deutsche Reichspartei, 29 by the Liberale Reichspartei, 45 by the Fortschrittspartei, 2 by the Social Democrats; the remaining 24 seats were held by the Poles, Particularisten, Volkspartei, and Protestpartei. In 1874 the Conservatives have lost 34 seats (22), the Liberale Reichspartei 26 (3), the Deutsche Reichspartei 4 (33); the Social-Democrats have gained 7 seats, Fortschrittspartei 4, National-Liberale 28, Centre, 29. These numbers, however, do not sufficiently indicate the relative strength of the parties. The number of electors voting for the candidates of the Fortschrittspartei has increased from 349,048 to 479,151 (+ 130,103, + 0·6 per cent.); National-Liberale from 1,202,039 to 1,601,368 (+ 409,329, + 1·3 per cent.); Social-Democrats from 120,108 to 339,058 (+ 218,950, + 3·7 per cent.); Centre from 693,875 to 1,442,627 (+ 748,752, + 11·0 per cent.). So the Centre, and next the Social-Democrats, can boast of having gained the most ground. To draw from this undeniable fact the conclusion that the Empire is sliding down-hill would, however, be wholly unjustified. In 1871, of all the people entitled to vote, 51 per cent. actually voted; in 1874 (without Alsace and Lorraine), the vote polled was 61·6 per cent. of the whole number of electors. With the exception of five election districts, the number of voters has everywhere increased; by far the greatest increase is found in the districts where a majority of the population belong to the Roman Catholic Church. The heaviest vote has been polled in Swabia, 84·4 per cent.; the place next to the last is occupied by Berlin, 36·3 per cent. In all the districts where there has been a vote polled of over 74 per cent., the majority of the population are—with the single exception of the older branch of Reuss—Roman Catholics; and wherever the majority of the population are Roman Catholics the voting has been above the average. On the other side, in all the districts where the vote polled is below 50 per cent., three-quarters or more of the whole population belong to either of the Protestant churches. So we see that a great majority of those who have thus far stood aloof from the polls can be safely presumed to be friendly to the Empire. However severely they deserve to be blamed for neglecting their political duties, there is no question that they will step forward whenever it comes to the worst. The Ultramontanes, on the contrary, have already brought forth pretty nearly their last man. This ought to be kept in view. It will, to some extent, help us to understand their apparent folly in bending the bow with such violence at the risk of breaking it before the time.

Wherever there is openly avowed or covert enmity against the Empire, there has been a general and passionate outcry against Bismarck for having met the criticism passed by Mr. Winterer on the administration of Alsace and Lorraine with the brutal barbarian's *væ victis!* The short and disjointed sentences reported by the telegraph gave some color to such an interpretation of the Chancellor's speech. Since the full text of the provocation and of the answer have been spread before the public, no candid and impartial man will any longer sustain the accusation. For many a year it has been notorious that Bismarck disdains the common art of diplomatists of dealing blows from behind a screen of smooth and oily words. He pleases himself with calling things by their right names, and, if irritated, he does this in the manner of a very outspoken or even somewhat rough man. Thus far Bismarck had been astonishingly cautious in the selection of his phraseology towards the representatives of the Provinces. They did not choose to understand him; it remains to be seen whether the roaring of the Lion finds an easier access to their ears. Only the manner in which he spoke was new and rather striking; what he said he had repeated already many times, and it is so self-evident that no man capable of a sober political thought needs a Bismarck to see the correctness of it. The representatives of the Provinces start in all their reasoning from the fact that they do not like at all to belong to the Empire. Bismarck, on the other hand, starts from the fact that they do belong to the Empire, and that they have been joined to it for a purpose. These two starting-points being opposed to each other, the parties, of course, find each other more widely separated the further they go. Mr. Winterer tells what the Provinces wish to get, and claims it as right, and founds the title on general abstract theories and the above-mentioned dislike. Bismarck answers bluntly: The question is not at all what *you* like, but what best serves the purpose for which we conquered you. That, certainly, is not agreeable to hear; but no one ever asserted that it is agreeable to be a conquered province. The question is not now whether it was right or wrong to conquer the provinces. Germany has conquered them and is resolved to keep them, and, as Bismarck has now emphatically repeated, not because they were once stolen from her, nor because the inhabitants are a German tribe, but because she was victorious in a just war, and needed them as a wall against the enemy who for centuries has never missed an opportunity of gratifying his thirst for glory and increasing his power at her expense. And as long as they do nothing but "squint with one eye towards France,

and with the other towards Rome," as the Chancellor said, they cannot serve as such a wall unless they are held with the iron grasp of the conqueror. In their own hands it lies to loosen this grasp. Bismarck's assertion is sustained by the fact that he had not only hoped but also expected that he would at an earlier moment be able to trust the provinces with a larger share of self-government. But it is a strange way for conquered provinces to support their demand for self-government by most violent attacks against everything he has done, against all his dearest interests, against the very principles of his *whole* policy. The Government is engaged in a struggle for life and death with the Ultramontanes, and one of the main arguments of Mr. Winterer for the necessity of the immediate grant of self-government is the crime of the Chancellor, in that he has taken the schools out of the hands of the clergy, and that the University at Strassburg is fostering a German spirit. The sooner and the more completely the provinces learn to feel and to act as a part of Germany, the sooner they will be allowed to assume the position of an equal; the more and the longer they choose to stand aloof with the sullen looks of enemies, the more and the longer theirs will be the hard lot of the vanquished. They are as yet far from enjoying self-government, but they are no longer under the absolute dictatorship of the Chancellor. They have already received proof that the Government knows full well that their value as a rampart against France will be increased just in proportion as their interests become identical with those of the Empire and their attachment to it increases, and that it is not guilty of the folly of believing a dictatorship the right means to bring about such an attachment. But this is, under all circumstances, a plant of very slow growth. No sensible man expects as yet to see even the first germs of it. What the Government wants to know is only how far it may safely trust. It has taken the first step forward, and now it is for the Alsatians to meet it half-way. In this announcement culminates the speech of Bismarck, in which his adversaries affect to find nothing but a *væ victis!*

Whether it would not have been better policy to take a somewhat larger step towards meeting the Alsatians is, of course, a debatable question. In order to answer it correctly, one must, however, not forget that, like the Jews, we dare not lay aside sword and shield while we are building the temple, for at any moment the enemy may be down upon us from all sides. Those who think that there is exaggeration in this statement may read the full report of last Friday's debate in the Reichstag. The battle was opened by Mr. Jörg of Bavaria, the leader of the Ultramontanes of South Germany, whom the party has chosen to take the vacant place of the late Mr. Malinckrodt. He commenced by accusing Bismarck of keeping the diplomatic committee of the Bundesrath (in which Prussia is not represented and Bavaria holds the principal place) out in the cold, insinuating that some fine day we might find ourselves engaged in a war, which would have been avoided if the Chancellor had suffered the other governments really to exercise their constitutional influence on the foreign relations of the Empire. This was followed up by an enumeration of the cases in which Bismarck has been guilty of a "flagrant intervention in the home concerns" of foreign states, *i.e.*, his remonstrances against the insults heaped upon the Empire by the French bishops, and the recognition of the Spanish Republic. According to the speaker, the Chancellor was in both cases prompted by nothing but his desire to strike a blow at the Ultramontanes wherever he found them. The recognition of the Spanish Republic Dr. Jörg deems a terrible fiasco, because Russia has failed to recognize her too, and because Russia is at present more than ever before the arbiter of Europe. This fiasco, which has sapped the good understanding between the three emperors, would have been avoided if the legitimate action of the diplomatic committee had not been superseded by the personal government of the Chancellor. In a not very logical way, but for a reason which it is not difficult to understand, the speaker managed to bring in the attempt at Kissingen, and called Kullmann a "half-crazy man." It is probable that Dr. Jörg did not expect quite so rough a handling from the "century-man" as he was treated to. The insinuations as to the first point Bismarck characterized as "fit for novels and children's reading-books." The foreign relations of the Empire were "a pretty clean wash." He did more than strict duty required to keep the other German governments *au courant;* there was no desire to weaken their legitimate influence, and they did not need the perfidious instigations of Dr. Jörg to take good care of it. As to Spain, his (Bismarck's) first thought after receiving the news of the shooting of Captain Schmidt had been: "To an English, American, Russian, or French newspaper correspondent that would not have happened." The government at Madrid he could not hold responsible for it, and to retaliate on the Carlists in a barbarian's way he could not do, either; so he chose "to strengthen by recognition the remnants of political consolidation still to be found" in the unhappy country. Russia had followed a different policy, which had to be respected; but if Dr. Jörg has thought, "with his small arrows aiming in that direction, to cause a little ill-temper, he only excites our mirth. Heaven be thanked, our relations there stand firm and tower high above such little attempts. If the gentleman spoke of my fiasco, I can only answer, I would not like to exchange it for the one which has just happened to him." As to Kullmann, several eminent physicians have officially testified to the fact that he was entirely in his senses. That Dr. Jörg and his party protest with disgust against being brought into any connection with this "assassin" is a matter of course, and nobody will doubt their candor; "but yet he holds fast to your coat-tails; he calls you *his* fraction." At the statement of these "historical facts," cries of "Fie! fie!" arose from the benches of the Centre, and a scene ensued such as was never before witnessed in the Reichstag. After the president had at last succeeded in restoring order, Mr. Windthorst came to the rescue of his worsted friend, speaking of the "unfortunate" Kullmann, and making Bismarck responsible for the conflict, the natural consequence of which was that "here and there unfortunate men are seized with madness."

The judgment not only of the majority of the Reichstag but also of the nation on this debate may be read in the short speech of Mr. Lasker: "It is not the first time that the German Government is accused of planning and plotting to provoke the peace-loving French nation into war. This manœuvre I want to stigmatize before all Germany. . . . To declare this of the governments of Germany in public assembly, to incite in this manner all foreign powers against Germany, is unworthy of a representative. And I want to brand this policy, that henceforth all the attacks of this gentleman (Mr. Windthorst) may appear before Germany as what they really are, and not as what they pretend to be—as crimes against the Fatherland." Mr. Lasker was called to order for using unparliamentary language. Mr. Forkenbeck was right in doing so; but Mr. Simson, Mr. Bennigsen, and all the other prominent members who rushed up to Mr. Lasker to grasp his hands, were right too.

I am far from having told my whole story. Many facts giving particular significance and importance to these two debates might and perhaps should be mentioned yet. But your patience will be exhausted, and, as the play is going on, some other opportunity will be offered to take notice of them in their proper connection.

Correspondence.

AN ALLEGED DICTUM OF COPERNICUS.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: In his 'Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy' (vol. i., p. 272) Mr. John Fiske advances the proposition that "while metaphysics is satisfied with nothing short of subjective congruity, it is quite enough for a scientific hypothesis that it gives a correct description of the observed coexistences and sequences among phenomena," and then adds in a note: "This is distinctly stated by Copernicus: 'Neque enim necesse est eas hypotheses esse veras, sed sufficit hoc unum, si calculum observationibus congruentem exhibeant.'" For this quotation Mr. Fiske gives the authority of Mr. Lewes ('Aristotle,' p. 92; 'Problems of Life and Mind,' vol. i., p. 317).

Without desiring at this time to raise the question whether or not Mr. Fiske's proposition, in the broad and unqualified form in which he states it, is tenable, I beg leave to call attention to the fact that Copernicus is in no wise responsible for the sentence attributed to him. This sentence is found in the prefatory epistle to Copernicus's great work, and was written, not by Copernicus, but by Osiander, as Mr. Lewes ought to have known, even if he quoted at second-hand. Many years before the publication of Lewes's 'Aristotle' (in which, by the way, the sentence referred to is misquoted) Mr Whewell wrote ('History of the Inductive Sciences,' vol. i., p. 268; Appletons' reprint of 3d ed., published in 1858): "In another epistle prefixed to the work (by Andreas Osiander) the reader is reminded that the hypotheses of astronomers are not necessarily asserted to be true by those who propose them, but only to be a way of *representing* facts." That Mr. Whewell is right appears from a notice in the well-known Warsaw edition of the book in question ('Nicolai Copernici de Revolutionibus Orbium Cœlestium libri sex.' Varsaviæ, 1854), where we read, p. xxxii:

"Prima operis Copernici editio in hunc modum facta est. Copernicus postquam librum scripsit, diu perpolitum tandem Tidemanno Gysio Episcopo Culmensi sibi amicissimo, qui multis jam annis eum ut ederet hortatus erat, sua voluntate typis excudendum tradidit. Gysius misit Rhetico-professori Wittembergensi, qui Norimbergam ad librum in lucem edendum aptissimam judicaverat, et librum typis excudendum curaturos Joannem Schonerum et Andream Osiandrum elegit. Osiander autem, ut videtur, eo consilio usus, ut animi nova doctrina incitati mitigarentur, Copernici præfatione rejecta, ipse pauca, *Copernici rationi et sententiæ non consentanea*, ad lectorem ita præfatus est, ut novam doctrinam tanquam conjecturam proponeret. Quod ægre ferens Gysius, in literis die mensis Julii, anni 1543 (*i.e.*, duobus

mensibus post Copernici mortem) ad Rheticum datis, malam fidem et editoris et typographi deplorat."

J. B. S.

CINCINNATI, Dec. 20, 1874.

THE MOOD OF SCIENCE AND THE MOOD OF FAITH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your note to "Scientist's" letter, and in your able article on the same subject, you seem to me *rem acu tetigisse*. Men are essentially gregarious, and in thought as in politics follow models and leaders rather than reasons. Physical science has well earned the great authority she enjoys for solidity of premiss and certainty of conclusion. But how has she earned it? By the modesty of her aims and the excellence of her method, and by these alone. By her method of verification she has racked and riddled and cross-examined every theory and every detail of fact, before letting it pass muster; and where the subject was too vague quantitatively for such control to be devised, she has avowedly held all conclusions as provisional and subject to future correction. Hence her prestige, hence the relative discredit of moral speculation, whose votaries have insisted on defining and characterizing the entire universe in one single effort.

But now that an age of synthesis seems approaching, scientific men obey the current, cut loose from the old traditions of taking things piecemeal and contentedly ignoring much, and commit themselves to vast theories which, whether true or false, stand at least as much unverified to-day, in the strict scientific sense of the word verification, as any of the theosophies of the past. Your correspondent "Scientist" says they have a perfect right to do so. As men, of course they have! Heaven forbid that they should not sometimes outstrip the proof, and, no longer sicklied o'er with scruples about crucial experiments and adequate evidence, yield to the pleasure of taking for true what they happen vividly to conceive as possible. Only when this exhilarated, but by no means unhealthy, mood is upon them, let it be distinctly recognized for what it is—the mood of Faith, not Science. And when the partisan herd girds itself up to exercise its right of following its leaders, let it be told beforehand by what route they are to pass, whether over scientific highways and bridges or by balloon. But when the leaders assume to be mouthpieces still of Science, while throwing off all that has been hitherto distinctive in that service; when like Dr. Tyndall they "abandon disguise" and "confess"—what presumably must have been authentically imparted to them; or when like Prof. Huxley they propound what is merely one out of several equally unverified conceptions as if it were an established truth, and proceed to rally the faithful around them by pealing the slogan, and branding in advance all critics of this particular hypothesis as minions of "Ecclesiasticism": why then it behooves every clear-headed guide of public opinion to insist as loudly as he can upon the truth that in these perilously recondite regions no man's *authority* is worth a jot. A man's authority means the presumption that his opinion will be right in a given matter—in that matter, namely, in which he has had a great personal experience of concrete particulars. In the matter of radiant heat, most of us will do well to submit our judgment to Dr. Tyndall's, and in the matter of the bones of the ear or the pedigree of porpoises to bow to Dr. Huxley's mere opinion. But in the question of the essence of life, terrestrial or other, I feel sure Dr. Tyndall has access to no data which are not open to any other person of equally enthusiastic nature—to Mr. Beecher for example; nor do I think Prof. Huxley's "expertness" in anatomy entitles him to hold his notion that consciousness is something less than the fabled fly on the coach-wheel, any more dogmatically than Archbishop Manning's ordination authorizes in him the opposite opinion. In "science," as a whole, no man is expert, no man an authority; in other words, there is no such thing as an abstract "Scientist"—fearful word! And where the subject-matter is vague, and sedulously kept *in abstracto* (as in these questions of the potencies of matter and the dynamics of consciousness), no man is expert beyond his neighbor, nor can any one, except perhaps the Pope, fall back upon his antecedent occupations for support.

By all means let every man who has a stomach for the fray be admitted to the speculative arena. But let it be on an equal footing with all comers, all to wear the speculative colors, no odds given, and no favors shown. And may the critics help fair-play as much as possible by pointing out to the excellent but rather unperceptive public that this wild-eyed champion, who is now seen throwing in his hat and cracking his joints, *was* no other than the laborious and accurate physicist, chemist, or physiologist Blank, who, having got tired for a time of the laboratory's confinement, now appears in his new and brilliant rôle of Blank, the Audacious and Ingenious Speculative Philosopher, in which he hopes to outdo even those who are to the manner born.

And who knows but that now, in honestly disusing the colors of a "scientist," and refusing to imperil their hard-earned lustre, he may even gain a victory over his antagonists? Not I surely, for I am

Yours very truly,

IGNORAMUS.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Dec. 25, 1874.

THE AMENDMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be permitted a few suggestions upon the subject discussed in a recent issue of the *Nation* (No. 493) under the caption "The Protection of the Negro"—viz., the scope of the last Amendments? Heartily agreeing as I do with your strictures upon the extreme enactments of Congress against the acts of individuals, under the pretense of enforcing certain prohibitions upon the States as such, as being unwarranted by the Amendments upon any principle of constitutional interpretation which obtained prior to their adoption, yet I cannot but think that you underestimate the actual change—and that a most dangerous one—which the Amendments have wrought in the relation of the States to the Federal Government. It seems to me only too plain that certain clauses in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments have had, and while unrepealed will increasingly have in the future, "an effect on State rights and duties greater and other than the prohibitory clauses already existing in the Constitution," and an effect sure to lead to "unprecedented departure from the beaten track of American Constitutional Law."

Prior to these late grafts upon our political system, there was but one way to enforce any prohibition of the Constitution upon State action, viz., through the orderly operation of an appeal to a National Tribunal from the decision of a State Court upholding any assumption of unconstitutional powers by the State. The principle was well established that positive legislation by Congress to enforce prohibitions upon the States did not belong to that class of laws which were "necessary and proper" to carry into effect the powers granted to the government. Now, the Amendments have certainly changed all this. Incorporated in each of them is a special grant of power to Congress to enforce its provisions, by "appropriate legislation." It is idle to say that this legislation means no more than Congress might have enacted before, viz., the facilitating of appeals from State to Federal Courts upon questions involving the Amendments. "Appropriate legislation," under the circumstances, means something more and different from that to which Congress had heretofore been competent.

What then is it? Certainly it must comprehend, by any just construction of the grant, the exercise of the most sweeping powers in the contingency of State action contravening the provisions of the Amendments, and that in such contingency these powers must operate upon individuals, I think can hardly be denied by any one who will fairly consider what, under such circumstances, would be "appropriate" to the case, and what was contemplated in the proposal of the Amendments for adoption. If this be so, we can see at a glance that a vast increase has been made in the original civil jurisdiction of the Federal Courts, and that a province of criminal legislation has been opened to Congress which is simply appalling. If it be said that the clauses in the Amendments authorizing legislation by Congress can practically add nothing to the power which is already given by the provision of the Constitution extending the original jurisdiction of the United States Courts to all cases arising under the Constitution and the laws of Congress, the only answer is that then the objection is even stronger, for under that provision Congress can make that jurisdiction exclusive, and an exclusive jurisdiction of all matters comprised in the Fourteenth Amendment would deprive the State Courts of a very large province of their common-law powers. The question of *personal* rights involved in that amendment is a very much broader one than that of national *citizenship*—partially defined in the "Slaughter-House Cases"—and one which as yet has received no adjudication in the court of last resort. What is to hinder Congress to-day from opening the United States courts in California for the purpose of securing to the Chinaman the rights of person and property that are denied him under the State laws?

The effect of such a vast increase in the power and functions of the Federal governmental machinery within the several States as has been here suggested would be unmistakable. It would essentially alter the relation of the individual to the national government, and by so much would serve to extinguish, both in his estimation and as an actual fact, the integrity of the State as a commonwealth. What the exact conditions must be upon which Congress can act is also, it seems to me, a question of considerable difficulty. It certainly cannot be limited to the contingency of positive legislation by a State. Cases where, from the established decisions of the State Courts upon the subject-matter, parties would reasonably fear that their rights under the Amendments would not be secured in those courts, would of course come

within the rule The recent decision of the Indiana Supreme Court on the question of public instruction could very plausibly be urged as a fair instance. How undefined the limits of this new Federal domain are—viz., what is sufficient action by a State to warrant Federal legislation—may be seen by the opening jurisdictional clause of the Ku-Klux Act of April, 1871. It provides against the acts of individuals "under color of any law, statute, ordinance, regulation, *custom, usage,* of any State," etc. Just how far we must go in this gradation before the point of rightful Congressional interference is reached might well tax a greater mind than his who drew this bill. More can be said, I feel forced to admit, on the side of a constructive denial of "the equal protection of the laws" (instance, the third section of the Ku-klux Act) than I should wish. Certain it is that the Congress which passed this bill meant to claim the broadest power possible under any construction of the amendment, and the opening clause quoted above only serves to exhibit the difficulty and danger with which the subject is fraught. However remote the possibility may be of a State legislature or its courts directly contravening the provisions of the Amendments, yet it certainly is plain that a large additional province of most pernicious Federal interference within the States has been created, and by so much has the national Government been aggrandized at the expense of the States, and our original Constitutional system mutilated. And the danger arising is not merely from the propagation and enforcement of such extreme views as are found in portions of the legislation of recent Congresses and in some of Mr. Blaine's late speeches. These dissipate with the passions and party exigencies which prompted them. What I apprehend is the growth of a body of law based upon the actual change—be it greater or smaller—which I consider the Amendments to have made in our confederated system of government, and which will serve to perpetuate that change with its attendant evils. Indeed, the danger, to my mind, is so real that I can look to nothing short of further fundamental legislation to avoid it.

P. S.

111 Broadway, December 21, 1874.

Notes.

THE several educational monthlies of the Eastern States are to be merged hereafter with the *College Courant* under the title of the *New England Journal of Education.* The new journal, which will resemble the *Courant* in size and style, will be published weekly in Boston, with Hon. T. W. Bicknell (formerly of the *Rhode Island Teacher*) as editor-in-chief. Each State will be represented on the staff of the paper by a local editor. The subscription price is three dollars.——Mr. Stephen Noyes, of the Brooklyn Mercantile Library, has sent us the second edition of his convenient Class List of English Prose Fiction (including juveniles and translations), with a supplement of four pages, covering the accessions from November 1, 1873.——Americans abroad, and may be some at home, will be interested in the sale of the well-known art collection of Hon. H. S. Sanford, late U. S. Minister to Belgium, which takes place in Brussels on the 15th of February next, in consequence of a change of residence on the owner's part. Catalogues may be obtained of Etienne Le Roy, rue des Chevaliers, Brussels.——We have received from B. Westermann & Co. the concluding parts (there are eighteen in all) of 'Ritter's Geographisch-statistisches Lexicon,' which will be found extremely useful to persons engaged in commerce (with Germany in particular), and answers most of the ordinary purposes of a gazetteer. It is in two volumes.——Mr. J. W. Bouton, 706 Broadway, has taken the American agency of Mr. P. G. Hamerton's well-known art-journal, the *Portfolio,* which is published monthly at twelve dollars per annum.

—Apropos of the strawberry, we have received still another communication which is worth printing. The writer says: Your correspondent has not given exactly the "right wording" of the eulogy of the strawberry, as Walton quoted it. Read, "As Dr. Boteler said of strawberries, 'Doubtless God *could* have made a better *berry,* but doubtless God never did.'" In this form, nearly, it may be found in an older book than Walton's, namely, Roger Williams's 'Key into the Language of America,' printed in London in 1643, ten years before the first edition of the 'Complete Angler.' "This Berry," wrote Williams, "is the wonder of all the Fruits growing naturally in those parts: It is of it selfe Excellent: so that one of the chiefest Doctors of England was wont to say, that God could have made, but God never did make a better Berry." ('Key,' p. 98.) Did Walton take the quotation from Williams? or, as seems more probable, did both take it from some earlier writer?

—Gerrit Smith died in this city on Monday last, and in him, as so recently in Ezra Cornell, Central New York loses a conspicuous and useful citizen, as generous and philanthropic as he was wealthy, and actively concerned with all questions of public interest up to the very sudden termination of his long career. His warm heart, keenly sensitive to every form of suffering brought to his attention, controlled all the other elements of his nature, and more than once led him impulsively to assume positions from which a logical consistency would have kept him. In this respect he resembled not a little both Mr. Greeley and Mr. Beecher; and there was even a still closer resemblance to the former in the mental disturbance by which Mr. Smith was temporarily unsettled after the John Brown raid, just as Mr. Greeley's mind was hardly able to endure the reality of civil war when it came. In spite of his hearty denunciation of rumsellers and slaveholders, Mr. Smith was incapable of lasting resentment towards any one, and his charity, like his goodness, knew no bounds. No one who had not been the recipient of his unostentatious bounty, or who had not known him personally either away from or beneath his most hospitable of hospitable roofs, could form a just idea of the real and rare beauty of his character. In his own neighborhood he was a most excellent friend and helper to all who sought his advice or excited his never-failing sympathy. His political career was not remarkable for strength or effectiveness; mainly for independence of thought and action. He was something more than a Free-soiler or Republican; something less than an Abolitionist. The fugitive slave had no better friend. Mr. Smith was born at Utica, March 6, 1797, and received his education at Hamilton College, which he has since endowed liberally. He succeeded to the vast estates of his father, Peter Smith, residing at Peterboro', not far from Syracuse. From this delightful retirement he often emerged to take part in public proceedings, but for many years also kept up his connection with the outer world by means of tracts, in the shape of letters, which he had printed in his own home, and which he distributed widely to the press throughout the country. Perhaps the view most at variance with public sentiment which he persisted in urging was, that the care of schools (as of churches) falls wholly outside the limits of government and wholly within the range of "the voluntary principle."

—The *Athenæum* of December 12 is unusually readable, owing to its early reviews of two important works, viz., 'The Last Journals of David Livingstone,' and Halliwell's 'Illustrations of the Life of Shakespeare.' We find in it also the reply of Messrs. Lippincott & Co. to the editorial statement of Dr. W. Chambers in regard to the mutilation of his Encyclopædia. They say that they were not aware of many of the alterations made in the American edition; that they will not attempt to justify the action of their editors in changing the articles specially referred to (Free-trade, Protection, Slavery, etc.); that these articles ("certain articles"), in being rewritten, "were naturally made to express what was believed to be the most recent and correct views of the subjects treated, from an American standpoint," seeing that it was expected that the revised edition would be sold in this market only. In other words, "the changes were made solely with a view to the adaptation of the work to the requirements of this country, and many of them were absolutely necessary to correctly present facts, especially in relation to America." This leaves the matter where we supposed it would be left—*i.e.,* on the shoulders of the publishers, so far as marking out the general line of revision goes, including doubtless the free-trade portions of the Encyclopædia; and on the shoulders of the editors, wherever it has been or might be shown that they exceeded their instructions or overstepped the natural limits of propriety. Messrs. Lippincott assert that they sufficiently advertised their revision "in numerous circulars and in the concluding editorial notice"; but they apparently left their subscribers to detect the revised articles by the insulting expressions having reference to Great Britain which were contained in them. The voluntary amends which they propose to make the Messrs. Chambers is to designate their issue hereafter as the American Revised Edition, and they offer besides to "cheerfully take such action as will relieve the Messrs. Chambers of the responsibility of the revisions." We shall be surprised if the Messrs. Chambers do not find the voluntary amends rather scanty; and since the Messrs. Lippincott shield themselves behind an imaginary "American market" to which they are under no obligations to apologize, we feel bound to say that there is no American demand for protectionist articles in cyclopædias American or foreign (encyclopædias ought to be expository, not propagandist or vituperative), or articles apologetic of slavery or abusive of the British monarchy and its present representatives; and that, from an "American standpoint," the least the Messrs. Lippincott could offer to do would be to rewrite the articles in question in a decent, temperate spirit, alike respectful to the Edinburgh publishers and to the country to which they belong.

—The most eminent textual critic of the New Testament, Professor Tischendorf, died in Leipzig, after a lingering illness of a year and a half, on Monday morning, Dec. 7, aged fifty-nine. His first critical edition of the New Testament, published when he was a young man, was received with such favor as to indicate distinctly his future career. In order to compare the different manuscripts of the New Testament, he was compelled to make

numerous and extensive travels. He had been three times in England and three times in the East. On one of his Oriental tours he was so fortunate as to discover the Sinaitic manuscript, which is the oldest known copy of the New Testament, and of inestimable worth in textual criticism. Much of his brilliant reputation was due to this discovery, supported as it was by the keenest critical acumen and a marvellous power of physical endurance. His revisions have been circulated everywhere, and to an extent beyond all precedent. In Leipzig alone not less than twenty-two of his critical editions have been published. His authorized English New Testament, containing the variations of the three most important manuscripts, was published by Tauchnitz, and in the first year (1869) nearly fifty thousand copies were sent into the United Kingdom. He died before he had finished the work upon which he was employed, a large and comprehensive critical edition of the New Testament being left incomplete. A manual of Palæography, which no one else is in a position to write as he could have written it, he had not even begun. The procession which followed his body to the grave was one befitting his work and life. The different societies of students attended *en masse*, or were represented by delegates. Many of the university professors were present, as also members of all classes of society, commercial, civil, and military.

—Cotta announces a new "pocket edition" of Goethe's complete works in ten volumes. The text of previous editions has been quantitatively determined by the edition of Riemer and Eckermann in 1836, which was based on the author's last revision. The new text, it is said, will be improved according to the latest knowledge. In an appendix to the first volume will be given two hundred poems of undoubted genuineness which were not printed in former editions. The index to the lyrics and epics will contain the date of each poem or of its first publication. Gödeke's introductions, which have also been much improved, will be used. The "Schweighausersche Verlagsbuchhandlung" of Basel is issuing a series of monthly pamphlets, containing "lectures delivered in Switzerland" by various gentlemen, principally professors. Some twenty-seven numbers have been issued. The volume (twelve numbers) costs 10 francs, though single numbers are sold. It in no way rivals the admirable 'Sammlung' of Virchow and Von Holtzendorff.

—The fifth centenary of Petrarch's death was celebrated, as is well known, last July at Avignon, Padua, and Arquà, where the great poet expired. The literature occasioned by this festival is already large and on the increase. It embraces new editions of the poet's works, notably of the 'Africa,' the Latin poem on which Petrarch based his hopes of future fame; bibliographies of the manuscripts containing his works; biographies, etc. One of the shortest but most interesting contributions is the oration by the distinguished poet Giosuè Carducci, which was delivered near the poet's tomb in Arquà, little out-of-the-way village on the slopes of the Euganean hills, where Petrarch sought rest from his troubled life, and found it in a peaceful death. An enterprising photographer has published seven views of the poet's house and tomb, including the fountain called after the poet, and the street leading to his house. One view gives the interior of the dining-room with its quaint fireplace and the poet's favorite cat over the library door; another view is of his desk and of the arm-chair in which he is said to have died with a copy of Virgil on his lap. These photographs are not only of interest to Petrarch's admirers, but will serve very well to illustrate Mr. Howells's pleasant account of his visit to Arquà in his 'Italian Journeys.'

—The beauty and excellence of the illustrations which accompany the original editions of Mr. Ruskin's writings are well known to the students of his works. They are in themselves works of art of a high order; and there are no better recent specimens of wood-cutting, of steel-engraving, and of various applications of photography than his volumes afford. He is, as is well known, now occupied in printing a series of volumes at his own cost which in every sense may be properly called the author's own edition of his works. One of the most valuable and important of these is the 'Aratra Pentelici,' six lectures on the elements of sculpture, printed in 1872. Of the illustrations to this volume he says in a note to the preface, p. viii.:

"Photography cannot exhibit the character of large and finished sculpture; but its audacity of shadow is in perfect harmony with the more roughly picturesque treatment necessary in coins. For the rendering of all such frank relief, and for the better explanation of forms disturbed by the lustre of metal or polished stone, the method employed in the plates of this volume will be found, I believe, satisfactory. Casts are first taken from the coins in white plaster; these are photographed, and the photograph printed by the heliotype process of Messrs. Edwards & Kidd. Plate XII. is exceptional, being a pure mezzotint engraving of the old school, excellently carried through by my assistant, Mr. Allen, who was taught, as a personal favor to myself, by my friend and Turner's fellow-worker, Thomas Lupton."

The woodcuts, Mr. Ruskin adds, were drawn and engraved by Mr. Burgess, one of the most skilful, accomplished, and exact of living wood-engravers. This note appears without alteration in the American edition of 'Aratra Pentelici,' published by John Wiley & Son; but the illustrations are not the same in the American edition as in the original. The heliotypes of the original, which are admirable specimens of the art, appear to have been photographed, and from the photographs thus obtained a new heliotype reproduction by a process inferior to that of Mr. Edwards has been made. The beauty of the original plates, their sharpness of definition, their balanced light and shade, are obscured, and often completely lost. The American plates are ugly and misleading. Nor is this all. The exquisite woodcuts of Mr. Burgess have been copied by an incompetent artist, their expression changed, and all that was most delicate and refined about them entirely destroyed. Anybody who can get good out of Mr. Ruskin's books ought to possess them in the original editions. They cost more, it is true, than the unsatisfactory reprint; but Mr. Ruskin asks no more for them than the cost of their getting up. They are well printed, well illustrated, and well bound. Nobody is likely to be improved by his writings who has not the small self-control required to meet the difference in cost between the author's edition and that which so unfairly represents him. It should be a point of self-respect among his readers to read his words in the style in which he offers them, even if there were no motive of self-interest in doing so. His books may be obtained from Mr. George Allen, Sunnyside, Orpington, Kent, England.

—A quarter of a century ago, at a sale of pictures in London, Mr. Morris Moore, a gentleman of some claims to a knowledge of art, bought at a small price a small painting ascribed to Mantegna. Nothing was known of the history of the picture, of which the subject was the contest between Apollo and Marsyas, but that it had been, in the last century, in the possession of a well-known collector, Mr. John Barnard, and had been sold at the sale of his pictures in 1787. The picture represented Marsyas seated on the left, playing on his flute, while Apollo stands in full front, listening to the music of his presumptuous rival. He holds a staff in his right hand; his lyre is hung upon a tree; his bow and quiver lie on the ground. Behind is a rich, varied, exquisite landscape. Mr. Morris Moore, upon study of the work, became convinced that he had obtained a treasure—nothing less than an original early painting by Raphael. It happened that in the course of the year of the purchase, 1850, Herr Passavant, the distinguished art student and author of a most elaborate and thorough 'Life of Raphael,' being in London, was asked by Mr. Moore to come and inspect his new acquisition and to give his judgment upon it. Upon looking at it, Passavant recognized the picture as an old acquaintance. He had seen it in London in 1831, in the hands of the dealer, Mr. Duroveray, and incautiously enough, like an honest German, he told Mr. Moore that, in the absence of any external evidence, he could not believe the picture to be by Raphael, but should attribute it rather to the school of Francesco Francia. It might, he thought, very well be the work of Timoteo Viti of Urbino, a favorite pupil of Francia, and an assistant of Raphael in the execution of his designs of prophets and sibyls in the church of Santa Maria della Pace at Rome. Mr. Moore was very angry. Other judges and critics supported his opinion; still others refused to believe the work to be what he asserted. He engaged in active controversy concerning it. Articles and pamphlets were published in English, French, German, and Italian. He seems to have had a bellicose temper, and if he could not convince he could at least abuse his opponents. His rhetoric was more vigorous than refined. His temper did not grow calm, in spite of testimonials of Italian academies and commendations of known and unknown authorities. He addressed his pamphlets to Passavant with inscriptions like these: "A lesson for the idiot and liar, Passavant"; or, "Encore une leçon pour le vil menteur Passavant, l'infame espion Waagen, et leurs consortes du Deutsches Kunstblatt." He exhibited the picture in different cities in Italy. In Venice, in the collection of the Academy, was found a pencil-drawing of the composition. It had been ascribed by Count Cicognara to Benedetto Montagna. Its author was not known; but now, on comparison with the picture, it was ascribed to Raphael, and its existence cited as a proof of the genuineness of the picture itself. Mr. Moore has long wished to sell the picture, but he has asked a price considered by the rich owners of private collections and the directors of public galleries too large for a work which, whatever its merits, could not be proved to have come from the hand of Raphael. He offered it in Paris, it is said, some years since for five hundred thousand francs. The picture is undoubtedly a beautiful and rare little work. The composition is graceful and simple, the coloring harmonious, the execution careful and elaborate. It is a work that belongs among the excellent Italian paintings of the end of the fifteenth or the beginning of the sixteenth century. It may be the work of Raphael, it may be the work of some less famous but still admirable artist. In the English translation of Passavant's 'Life of Raphael,' published in 1872, no attempt is made by the translator to dispute Passavant's opinion. And, indeed,

opinion in England has been very much divided on the matter. We learn that Mr. Moore would now be glad to have this picture, together with some others that he possesses, purchased in America. We may soon have an opportunity of seeing for ourselves the subject of controversy. But even if the picture were certainly by Raphael, it would not be worth what Mr. Moore asks for it—not worth it, that is, as a work of art; no price that can be got is too high for a dealer to ask for an article of *vertu*.

STEPHEN'S 'HOURS IN A LIBRARY.'*

EVERY intelligent person fancies that he can act as his own critic. But this supposition is erroneous. Of the ten thousand men and women who read a popular novel, not ten can either form or give a rational opinion on its merits and defects. Whoever doubts this should ask the next lady who sits by him at dinner what she thinks of 'Middlemarch' or 'Phineas Redux.' She will express her likes or dislikes with the wearisome emphasis of unmeaning superlatives, but it will soon become apparent that she cannot criticise the works either of Trollope or of George Eliot. The difficulty of criticism becomes yet more apparent if any one will examine either his own or his neighbors' estimate of what are called standard authors—of those writers, in short, whom everybody thinks himself to have studied, and not one person in a hundred has read. A candid enquirer will, if he pushes his investigations far, be astonished at his own ignorance. He will find that of Shakspere, of Pope, of Richardson, or of Swift he and his acquaintances have read but very little. His next feeling will be astonishment at the extreme difficulty of critically estimating any of those works which he may chance to have perused. It is easy to make up one's mind that one does or does not like the satires of Pope, but it is a work of considerable labor to decide even for one's self what are the characteristics which distinguish Pope from other satirists, such as Dryden or Byron. That a marked difference exists is obvious. To analyze the nature and causes of this difference, or, in other words, to justify one's admiration or dislike, is no light matter, while to express clearly the conclusions at which one has arrived, and to convince others that they are sound, is a work to which many intelligent persons are totally unequal. The truth is that in matters of literary criticism every one can give a verdict in accordance with his own sympathies or antipathies, but not one person in a thousand can deliver judgment in accordance with fixed principles of taste or of clear common-sense. Nor does this inability argue any special stupidity. A man who would criticise with effect must possess considerable knowledge, and he must have read, if not all, yet the most remarkable of an author's works, and he should also be well-versed in the writers who throw light upon the subject of his criticism. Mere learning, though essential in order to afford the material for comparison, will not of itself go far. Insight, sagacity, calm good-sense, the capacity for analysis, and the talent for expressing fine distinctions, are all gifts necessary to make up a competent critic. No one need be ashamed of not possessing all these talents; but no one is forced to perform the part of literary censor. And it would be well if readers would recognize both the fact that they are not themselves in a position to pass decided judgments on works of established reputation, and, further, that writers who can criticise with effect perform a work at once of considerable importance and of considerable difficulty. The mass of the world are apt to think that what is done easily is easy to be done, and thus to underrate a difficult performance, because of the skill of the performer.

There is some danger lest the sterling merits of Mr. Leslie Stephen's essays should thus be underrated. They are the writings of a thoroughly sensible, acute, and unpretentious critic. They read like the conversation of a clever, well-educated man, and thoughtless readers may overlook the fact that the conversation with which Mr. Stephen whiles away the hours in a library is exactly that kind of "good talk" which, as every one knows on reflection, is one of the greatest and, at the same time, rarest of intellectual enjoyments. Half Mr. Stephen's readers perhaps think they could talk as he writes. In matter of fact, they probably could not sustain for ten minutes a literary conversation of which were it printed down they would not be heartily ashamed. But persons who would find it an impossible task to imitate what seems in Mr. Stephen's hands so easy an achievement may yet gain a great deal both of interest and instruction from a study of his essays. Mr. Stephen's great merit, in our judgment, is the care with which he studies the objects of his criticism and the skill with which he applies to them the calm good-sense of a well-educated, clear-sighted man, who possesses just that kind of humor the absence of which constantly renders worthless the meritorious labors of industrious critics. That he avoids all errors of judgment which are due to stupidity would not be worth mentioning were it not that men of repute, and sometimes men of great ability, have exhibited an amount of dulness in their literary judgments which, were it not well recorded, would appear almost incredible. Take, for example, Mr. Elwin, whose offences as an annotator of Pope receive well-deserved chastisement from Mr. Stephen. Here is a man of some name who has studied day and night the wittiest of English satirists, and the result of his efforts is simply to show that he does not understand the simplest canons of sound criticism, and that the most intimate study of Pope's wit will leave a dull man as dull as nature made him. Or take Mr. Darley. He is not, as far as we know, a person of more than average stupidity, but he has discovered that the sentiment, "An honest man is the noblest work of God," is "false and degrading to man, derogatory to God"; and supports the silly issue by the illogical argument that "an honest man who is also a wise man must be a nobler work than a person who has no merit but honesty." That Pope should be misunderstood by dullards is not surprising. What does excite astonishment is that men like Charles James Fox and De Quincey should have stumbled over such lines as those which conclude the attack on Addison. De Quincey censures them on the ground that the same phenomenon is supposed to make you laugh in one line and weep in the other, and that, therefore, the thought is inaccurate, "as if," to quote Mr. Stephen's words, "it would not be a fit cause for tears to discover that one of our national idols was a fitting subject for laughter."

The critical errors of really clever men are in most cases due to what is the most subtle and the most dangerous failing of critics—the desire rather to display their own acuteness than to elucidate their author. This is the defect which mars the whole school of which Mr. Matthew Arnold is the chief. No one can say that he himself, whatever may be asserted of his disciples, is deficient either in discernment or power of expression. But whether the subject of his patronizing appreciation be Pope or St. Paul, or the "tendency which makes for righteousness," he never allows his readers to forget for a moment the cleverness of the critic in the importance of the subject. From this defect Mr. Stephen is entirely exempt. He can express himself with great neatness and with singular vigor. One often feels that he deals with a question so as to settle it once for all; as, for example, when he summarily disposes of Mr. Elwin's absurd assertion that Pope's 'Essay on Criticism,' written when he was about twenty-three, was "below his years." But though Mr. Stephen can express himself with terseness and vigor, one does not for a moment feel that his object is to parade his own acuteness or to sum up the complicated characteristics of great authors in some happy expression which may be a permanent monument of his own cleverness. This merit will detract from his influence with a certain class of students. Many persons desire nothing so much as to be provided with a short formula which sums up the merits or defects of an author, which it is easy to remember and equally easy to repeat. To such readers it is everything to learn that Pope writes "in the grand style," that De Foe is "a Philistine," or that some third writer is deficient in "intelligence." Such formulas give to those who adopt them the appearance of acuteness, whilst saving them the trouble of thought. Mr. Stephen does not provide any such short critical dogmas. He thinks honestly himself, and stirs up those who read him to think for themselves. This gives the permanent value to his work. No one reader will probably agree with the whole of Mr. Stephen's criticisms. To some he will seem to have overrated Pope and to have underrated Scott; others may doubt whether justice has been done to Balzac's insight into character; but disagreement with Mr. Stephen's conclusions does not diminish the interest of his essays. No one should read them for the sake of dogmatic instruction. They should be studied in the same spirit in which you listen to the conversation of an intelligent and well-instructed gentleman. You do not expect to agree with every word he utters, but you expect that what he says will be worth hearing, and that you will learn a good deal by a comparison of the points in which you disagree.

This is, at any rate, exactly the result of reading 'Hours in a Library.' A person must be either extremely clever or extremely stupid who does not learn much from Mr. Stephen's pages. His estimate of Pope, for instance, is one of the best and fairest we have ever read. Pope's weak points, both as a man and as an author, are fully admitted, but Pope's permanent merits are brought into a clear light; and no sensible man can, after reading the two essays on the greatest of English satirists, doubt either that his fame is fully deserved or that it will last as long as the English language. The chapter on Scott will naturally excite some difference of opinion, for, as Mr. Stephen points out, Scott's reputation is at the present moment passing through a stage which is very trying to the fame of all authors. He has ceased to be a writer of the day. His style and his thoughts have lost the charm of novelty. The temporary circumstances which gave him an artificial success have passed away. His works, on the other hand, have not yet taken the place of classics. Scott has therefore at the present moment neither the ad-

*'Hours in a Library. By Leslie Stephen.' London: Smith, Elder & Co.

vantages of George Eliot or Trollope, who, in quite different ways, meet exactly the spirit of their time; nor has he the advantages of Fielding or Richardson, who are admired, for the most part, simply because they have established a prescribed right to admiration. With Scott the question is, whether he will or will not take rank as a classic. Time alone can decisively answer this enquiry. "When naturalists," writes Mr. Stephen, "wish to preserve a skeleton, they bury an animal in an ant-hill, and dig him up after many days with all the perishable matter fairly eaten away. That is the process great men have to undergo. A vast multitude of insignificant, unknown, and unconscious critics destroy what has no genuine power of resistance, and leave the remainder for posterity. Much disappears in every case, and it is a question whether the firmer parts of Scott's reputation will be sufficiently coherent to exist after the removal of the rubbish." Mr. Stephen's opinion obviously is that part of Scott's work, though a small part, will survive the test of time. It may be so, but we confess to a suspicion that in future centuries Scott's genius will be acknowledged by students principally because of the effect his writings have indubitably produced on the current of European feeling, but that when the tide of sentiment which still runs strong in favor of mediævalism has turned, and the world has recovered from the illusion that light and truth are to be found in the darkness and ignorance of the Middle Ages, Scott's novels will be little read by generations who have ceased to think a hero interesting because he is dressed in armor, or conversations witty because they are carried on in broad Scotch.

Of the 'Hours in a Library' those are certainly the best which are spent with our older English authors. The remark, for example, that in De Foe's time writers were scarcely able to draw accurately the line between fiction and falsehood is original, and throws light on some of the peculiarities both of De Foe and of Richardson. The account, again, of the source of Richardson's influence is well worth consideration by any one who wishes to understand the spirit of the eighteenth century.

Politics for Young Americans. By Charles Nordhoff. (New York: Harper Bros. 1875.)—The object of this little work, as stated in Mr. Nordhoff's preface, is "to explain in simple language, and by familiar illustrations fitted for the comprehension of boys and girls, the meaning and limits of liberty, law, and government, and human rights, and thus make intelligible to them the political principles on which our system of government is founded"; and he adds that "the book grew out of an attempt in a few letters to instruct his oldest son in the political knowledge which every American boy ought to possess to fit him for the duties of citizenship." These extracts indicate pretty clearly where to look both for the merits of the works and its defects. As a volume of advice on the leading questions of contemporary politics, addressed by a thoughtful and conscientious father to a bright boy of sixteen or seventeen, who had been already familiarized by the household talk and newspaper reading with political nomenclature and the relations and in some slight degree the history of existing parties, it may be highly commended. It would be difficult to find indeed a safer guide for a young man getting ready to "cast his first ballot," and we say this all the more readily because we are in hearty agreement with nearly all Mr. Nordhoff's political and economical opinions. The chapters on "Property," "Money," "Labor and Capital," the "Usury Laws," "Banks, Banking," and "Currency," "Greenbacks" and "Commerce," "Strikes," "The Malthusian Theory," "Prohibitory Laws," and on economical questions generally, are excellent. It would indeed not be easy to improve on them for the purpose we have named. But they have essentially the characteristic of good editorial articles in a newspaper, in that they assume considerable familiarity already with political questions and political phraseology on the part of the reader.

For these reasons the book would hardly serve the purpose of a school manual. Besides drawing its illustrations too largely and with too much heat from contemporary history both of our own and foreign countries, it contains few accurate definitions—than which nothing is more necessary in an educational work—of such much-used terms as "rights," "duty," "people," "law," "government," "republic," and so on, which are constantly used by the same person in widely different senses, and loose thinking about which causes so much foolish writing, speaking, and legislating. For instance, when Mr. Nordhoff holds up Mr. Blaine and Mr. Dawes (p. 63) as good specimens of legislators, he places his readers under the disagreeable necessity of explaining to their children that Mr. Dawes, during the past fall, made many speeches in an endeavor to induce an American constituency to elect General Butler to Congress, and that General Butler is one of the greatest rascals in the country—a liar, a cheat, and a demagogue. It is, therefore, not safe to use living men as illustrations at all, at least in the political field. Then, again, when Mr. Nordhoff describes "government" as a "necessary evil," he uses a term which is rather a good epigram than a good definition, and calculated to mislead a young person. One might say with as much truth that civilization itself is a necessary evil, inasmuch as it consists of a series of laborious and often painful efforts to win comfort and security from stern and remorseless nature. Besides, government is only in part a means of repressing men's bad tendencies or guarding against the consequences of their folly. It is also an instrument of co-operation, as when it levies taxes to build a bridge or pave the streets; and it is an instrument for deciding things in which there is neither right nor wrong, darkness nor light, but about which some general agreement is necessary to the proper transaction of the business of life. For instance, the rule of the road which requires us to pass to the right in driving settles no moral question, and is no better than a rule requiring us to go to the left; but it establishes a consensus which promotes the general safety and welfare. Any one can multiply such illustrations for himself. The only other objection we can make to Mr. Nordhoff's book is that, as was natural for a father instructing his son, it treats as finally settled and beyond dispute a good many questions which the boy on going out into the world will find still under fierce debate. A boy who has obtained his political education from his father may be able to resist successfully the surprise of this discovery, but one who learns from the book might not be so happy. Educational books on politics ought therefore, as far as possible, to confine themselves to the inculcation of fundamental principles, and to the training of the boy to reason for himself from these over the wide range of topics with which he will find himself brought face to face when he comes to vote. It is only in pure science that it is quite safe in our day to teach a child by sheer force of authority. In matters not so well settled, dogmatic instruction often contains the seeds of subsequent reaction or revolt. Nothing is commoner than to meet with men who are rationalists largely because they were brought up rigidly orthodox at home, protectionists because they were vehemently made to be free-traders in their boyhood, and so on. In short, the best training for politics, as for most other things that one can give a boy, is to teach him not so much *what* to think as *how* to think, and above all to think accurately and closely.

Honest John Vane. A Story. By J. W. De Forest, author of 'Kate Beaumont,' 'The Wetherel Affair,' etc. (New Haven: Richmond & Patten. 1875.)—Mr. De Forrest, who has written several entertaining novels, offers us in this volume a political satire. His tale was published more than a year ago, we believe, in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and he has judged it worthy after this considerable interval of being resuscitated. Mr. De Forest is capable of writing a story which holds the attention, but we should not have said, from our acquaintance with his works, that he possessed the cunning hand of a satirist. We have heard him called an American Charles Reade, and, *mutatis mutandis*, the analogy might stand. We know that when Mr. Charles Reade shows up a public abuse, his irony does not suffer from being drawn too fine, nor his moral go a-begging for want of being vigorously pointed. Mr. De Forest's colors are laid on not exactly with a camel's-hair pencil, and he has the drawback of pleading for political purity in a phraseology which is decidedly turbid. "The lobby proved to be every way more imposing and potent than he had imagined it. True, some of its representatives were men whom it was easy for him to snub—men of unwholesome skins, greasy garments, brutish manners, filthy minds, and sickening conversation; men who so reeked and drizzled with henbane tobacco and cockatrice whiskey that a moderate drinker or sucker would recoil from them as from a cesspool; men whose stupid, shameless boastings of their trickeries were enough to warn away from them all but the very elect of Satan." This is painting black black with a good will, and the most heedless reader will know whither he is being led. His hero's "pulpy pink face," the author tells us, when the wages of sin seem falling due for this recreant functionary, "wore an air of abiding perplexity which rivalled that of his Dundrearyish friend Ironman. At times it seemed as if its large watery features would decompose entirely with irresolution, and come to resemble a strawberry-ice which has been exposed to too high a temperature." The work contains an unclean and unscrupulous lobbyist, Darius Dorman by name, of whom it is told us, in like manner, that he "started up and paced the room briskly for some seconds, meanwhile tightly grasping his dried-up blackened claws across his coat-skirts, perhaps to keep his long tail from wagging too conspicuously inside his trousers—that is, supposing he possessed such an unearthly embellishment." The author's touch, in this and similar cases, has more energy than delicacy, and even the energy aims rather wildly. Did Mr. De Forest refresh his memory of Swift before writing the adventures of John Vane? He would have been reminded that though that great master of political satire is often coarse and ferocious, he is still oftener keenly ingenious.

'Honest John Vane,' however, may pass as a tract for popular distri-

bution, and the important thing with tracts is that they be printed in big letters and be adapted for a plain man's comprehension. Mr. De Forest's cause is so good and his temper apparently so fervid that, as matters stand with us, it will be no harm if they make their way even at the cost of a good deal of loose writing and coarse imagery. The work records the career of a (presumably) Republican Representative in Congress from the town of Slowburgh, and traces his progress from primitive integrity to corruption inevitable for an irresponsible barbarian. As a portrait of one of our average "self-made men" and usual legislators, the picture has a good deal of force, and will renew the familiar blush in the cheek of the contemplative citizen of this unwieldy Republic. John Vane, who has begun life as a country joiner, and risen to local eminence as a manufacturer of refrigerators, is a large, bland, cautious, and unsophisticated personage, whose benevolent visage and pastoral simplicity have earned him his honorable sobriquet. His intellectual culture is limited to the arts of writing and ciphering, but he is a promising national legislator, from the caucus point of view, and his election to Congress is triumphantly carried. He marries the showy and belated daughter of the mistress of a students' boarding-house, and repairs to Washington to breast the mingled political and social tide. Of how little use to him, under direct pressure, his uninstructed, mechanical, empirical probity turns out to be, and of how he goes into the great Sub-Fluvial Tunnel swindle and becomes shrewder in his turpitude than he ever was in his virtue, the volume offers a sufficiently lively recital. The most artistic stroke it contains is the history of his successful hocus-pocussing of the committee of investigation, and his ignobly triumphant evasion of disgrace. Mr. De Forest did well not to sacrifice to the vulgar need for a dénouement, but to leave his hero's subsequent career to the irritated conscience of the reader. He is a national legislator at this hour, with his precious outfit and his still more precious experience, and of this interesting circumstance the tale is a pertinent reminder. Otherwise, there is little "story" in the book; the dramatic element expires before it has really tried its paces, and the narrative becomes chargeable with a certain flatness. Several characteristic political types are sketched, coarsely from the artistic point of view, but wholesomely, it may appear, from the moral. In Darius Dorman, the "smutty" wire-puller, as Mr. De Forest is fond of calling him, the author has tried his hand at the grotesque and fantastic; but if he recalls Hawthorne, it is not altogether to his own advantage. We might repeat, however, that, *par le temps qui court*, his flag should be suffered to cover his cargo, if it were not for some such final reflection as this. Whether accidentally or intentionally we hardly know, 'Honest John Vane' exhales a penetrating aroma of what in plain English one must call vulgarity. Every note the author strikes reverberates with a peculiarly vulgar tone; vulgarity pervades the suggestions, the atmosphere of his volume. This result has doubtless been in a great measure designed; he has wished to overwhelm the reader with the evil odor of lobbyism. But the reader, duly overwhelmed, and laying down the volume with a sense of having been in irredeemably low company, may be excused for wondering whether, if this were a logical symbol of American civilization, it would not be well to let that phenomenon be submerged in the tide of corruption.

The Maintenance of Health: A Medical Work for Lay Readers. By J. M. Fothergill, M.D., London. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1874. Pp. 400.)—The character of this work is indicated in the preface. "It is not a family practice of medicine, but aims at the inculcation of those principles which ought to guide us in our search for health." The first three chapters, after the introduction, are devoted to the hygienic requirements of man during youth, maturity, and advanced age. These special or "epochal" hygienes might, perhaps, have been better placed after the general hygiene which is here made to follow them. But their separate presentation constitutes a novel and useful feature, and the references in a subsequent chapter to the effects of occupations on health suggest that in works of this kind distinct sections might well be devoted to the hygiene of certain employments; or, still better, separate works might be prepared to meet the peculiar needs of the soldier and sailor, the miner, the artisan, and the farmer. This would make the information more directly available, and at a much less expense than is now involved—a matter of some consequence, since, as a rule, the classes most exposed to unhealthy influences are those least likely to acquire physiological knowledge in the course of general education, and also least able to pay for high-priced works upon the subject.

Chapter V. discusses Food and Clothes; Chapter VI., Stimulants; and Chapter VII., The Effects of Inheritance. The three following treat of the Election of a Pursuit, Overwork and Physical Bankruptcy, and Mental Strain. Then comes a very long and rather heterogeneous chapter upon General Hygiene, which, as already suggested, might better have come earlier in the work, but which is nevertheless the most compact summary of the subject which we have ever seen. On the other hand, the succeeding very brief chapter upon What to do in Certain Emergencies, though it contains some judicious remarks upon the direct and indirect effects of railway accidents, should, we think, either have been much extended or wholly omitted, with a reference to such excellent little manuals as Hope's 'Till the Doctor Comes.'

Positive errors in Dr. Fothergill's work are very few. We note only the denial of any oxygen in fat, and the statement, by implication at least, that the conversion of starch into glucose is accomplished only by saliva. In his zeal for the prevention of tubercle, our author seems to us somewhat to exaggerate the necessity of eating fat. To many persons fat is positively repulsive, and more stress might have been placed upon the fact that cream and butter are perfect substitutes; that milk, if used as a beverage, will supply a large amount of fat; and that, among Americans at least, there is a general tendency to use too much fat, especially in cooking. It may be that the hard-working farmer and laborer cannot get his respiratory food in any other way; but the majority of our people would improve in health and mental power if they would banish lard and suet from their kitchens. And if a part of the money now spent for the liquor required to aid the digestion of such gross matter were devoted to the purchase of the more refined but expensive substitutes for fat—milk, cream, butter, and olive-oil—another American vice might be diminished.

Our author's opinion upon the use of stimulants, especially alcoholic, is essentially that which is now entertained by nearly all scientific men. Acknowledging that "the whole subject is a complex problem not to be rashly solved, and that the complete evidence is not yet before us" (p. 166), he says (p. 164) that "we know numerous instances of high moral worth, unimpeachable integrity, and unimpaired health in men who have taken alcohol more or less from their youth upward. How does all this contrast with the hasty assumption, often so freely launched, that alcohol is a poison? Rash statements, arguments radically weak, urged with a pertinacity and intolerance in inverse proportion to their intrinsic weight, have done much to retard the cause of the abstainers. They have shown incontestably that the abuse of alcohol is one of the most terrible curses with which the earth is smitten. But we may well pause ere rushing to the conviction that therefore it is a poison, and never useful or even harmless." As a "moral anæsthetic," Dr. Fothergill earnestly deprecates the use of alcoholics, believing that when thus taken, "to make existence endurable, there is little hope of amendment." With regard to the milder stimulants which are "non-intoxicant," he remarks (p. 173) that "the habit of taking a cup or two of tea instead of more food, in order to enable the individual to take so much more out of herself, is as common among women as the use of alcohol for similar ends is among men. . . . It is painful to have to acknowledge that where the so-called temperance movement has spread, the use of other stimulants than alcohol has marched along with it step by step. In Maine and Massachusetts, the consumption of opium is terribly on the increase [he ought to give his authorities for the statement], and amidst the followers of Father Mathew the practice of drinking ether obtains." As to tobacco and its precise effects our author, "although a smoker, has little more to say" than that "in moderation, with adults, it exercises no injurious effects and neither lessens appetite nor encourages drinking" (p. 176). But he adds that there is no question about its deleterious action upon boys and youth.

The chapter on "The Effects of Inheritance" treats a confessedly difficult and delicate subject in a very plain and straightforward way. The importance which our author attaches to sexual physiology is further shown by the frequent allusions to various branches of the subject throughout the work. Still, the space given to it, although more than is generally allowed in popular works, is so small in comparison with its absolute importance to the individual and the community, that one is all the more impressed with the truth of the remark that "there is only one direction in which unalloyed good can be looked for, namely, *more general knowledge upon the subject.*" An excellent feature of the work is the appending to each chapter of a series of "Propositions," briefly stating the facts and conclusions therein presented. Indeed, these propositions, with some additions and changes, would form an excellent little pocket manual of hygiene. It is singular that in a treatise of this character we should have to lament the want of an index.

A History of the Character and Achievements of the so-called Christopher Columbus. By Aaron Goodrich. With numerous illustrations and an Appendix. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1874. 8vo, pp. 403.)—One is tempted to ask on glancing at this book, What has Columbus, or any one of his descendants, done to Mr. Goodrich, or any of his ancestors, that has inspired so intense an animosity? It does not read like the dispassionate discussion of an historical question relating to a far-distant epoch, but the

angry remonstrance of one who has been personally wronged. The discoverer's very name is a grievance to him, and he will have it that his rightful appellation was Nicolò Griego. No charge is too monstrous to urge against his memory; no language too strong to describe him. Perhaps the following brief paragraph relating to the rebellion of Roldan will be a sufficient, as it is a fair specimen of the style of the book: "The particulars of this rebellion form one of the most disgraceful pages in the history of Columbus; it illustrates alike his treachery, cowardice, and inability to rule, save by the grossest tyranny" (p. 263). It must not be imagined, however, that this list exhausts the evil qualities ascribed to this unfortunate man; for such a list, one must go to works on moral philosophy.

It would be too much to say that no plausible charges are advanced. The facts are perhaps presented in such a way as to afford a presumption of guilt in many cases; but the whole is urged with such heat, and there is such an absence of just criticism and fair reasoning, and the references and citations are so incomplete, that it is impossible to say what is proved, or even what is made probable. For the matter of that, we do not need at the present day to be told that Columbus was no saint, and, on the other hand, we cannot make out that Mr. Goodrich has proved him to be a double-dyed villain. He admits that he existed, and commanded the expedition which discovered America, and here we are content to let the matter rest for the present. There is a little poem of Clough's in which Columbus's sufficient title to the admiration of mankind is well set forth:

> "How in Heaven's name did Columbus get over,
> Is a pure wonder to me, I protest.
> . . . . . .
> What if wise men had, as far back as Ptolemy,
> Judged that the earth, like an orange, was round?
> None of them ever said, 'Come along, follow me,
> Sail to the West, and the East will be found.'
> Many a day before
> Ever they'd come ashore,
> Sadder and wiser men
> They'd have turned back again;
> And that *he* did not, but did cross the sea,
> Is a pure wonder, I must say, to me."

Whoever undertakes to determine just the degree of credit to which Columbus is entitled must, among other things, present a distinct and accurate view of the state of science in his day. In place of this, Mr. Goodrich has filled his introductory chapters with an ill-digested sort of matter relating to Babylon, Egypt, Central American remains, and a number of other things which are equally irrelevant to the subject of his book. Even the interesting chapter upon the discoveries of the Northmen has no very evident bearing upon his argument. The illustrations are many of them curious and interesting; others quite worthless; none more curious, perhaps, than the numerous portraits of Columbus, differing as widely from one another as possible—a better argument, it would seem, for Mr. Goodrich's view than pages of his diatribes. We ought not to neglect to add that, next to Columbus himself, Queen Isabella is the object of the author's most vehement hatred, and that he extols Vespucci as vigorously as he defames his rival.

Singers and Songs of the Liberal Faith: Being Selections of Hymns and other Sacred Poems of the Liberal Church in America, with Biographical Sketches of the Writers, and with Historical and Illustrative Notes. By Alfred P. Putnam. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1875. 8vo, pp. xxiii., 556.)—Poetry is happily not confined to any one sect in the Church universal, and the Rev. Mr. Putnam has shown in this volume how widely diffused, if not the genius of poetry, at least the art of hymn-writing has been among the leaders of the Unitarian denomination in America. He gives us between five and six hundred hymns and sacred poems, the production of seventy-three writers. In such a work critical discrimination is not so much to be desired, or expected, as a genial spirit sympathetic with the moral and religious sentiment which it is the object of the writers of hymns to express and to arouse. And in this respect Mr. Putnam is excellently qualified for his task. The lovers of song and poetry, for mere poetry's sake, will not turn to these pages for frequent delight. The conditions under which devotional verse is written are not favorable for the free exercise of the imagination. But readers who are fond of hymns, and who are interested to know how some of the best reputed and most devout men and women of our time have expressed their religious emotions and aspirations, will find here ample satisfaction in the utterances of sincere, if not always inspired faith. There is naturally in such a generous collection a great difference to be observed in the quality and merit of separate pieces; but it is, perhaps, characteristic of the denomination from which these hymns proceed, that the level of excellence in its kind is high, and that the forms of composition and of thought give evidence of culture and refinement. And it is not less characteristic that with much earnestness there is but little of such fervor as sometimes discovers itself in the intense lines of a mediæval Latin hymn, or of such mystical ardor as now and then burns in the verse of Wesley and his followers.

Mr. Putnam's notices of the different writers, though brief, are comprehensive enough to afford all needed information concerning the outward conditions of their lives, and will be, doubtless, of much interest to the readers of the volume. It would have been better to be less lavish in terms of praise and more discriminating in their application. Certainly living writers would prefer, if they possess proper modesty, to have the enumeration of their virtues postponed till the customary occasion for eulogy. Mr. Putnam's over-estimates are not always merely those of an amiable disposition. For instance, it is an error to speak of Mr. Alger's respectable book on the 'Doctrine of a Future Life' as "unquestionably the most learned and elaborate theological work ever produced in this country"; and it is a misuse of terms to speak of Mr. Bryant "as possessing an imagination of marvellous sweep and power."

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Allen (J. B.), Elementary Latin Grammar	(Macmillan & Co.)
Baker (Sir S. W.), Ismailia	(Harper & Bros.)
Benson (L. S.), Philosophic Reviews	(J. S. Burnton) 1 25
Fawcett (Mrs. M. G.), Tales in Political Economy	(Macmillan & Co.)
Gladstone (W. E.), The Vatican Decrees in their Bearing on Civil Allegiance	(Harper & Bros.)
Hale (Rev. E. E.), Our New Crusade	(Roberts Bros.) 1 25
Hales (J. W.), Milton's Areopagitica	(Macmillan & Co.)
Hickok (Rev. L. P.), The Logic of Reason	(Lee & Shepard)
Jardine (R.), Elements of the Psychology of Cognition	(Macmillan & Co.)
Lacroix (P.), XVIIIme Siècle: Institutions, Usages et Costumes	(F. W. Christern)
Le Fanu (J. S.), Checkmate, swd	(Estes & Lauriat) 0 75
March (Prof. F. A.), Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius	(Harper & Bros.)
Masson (Prof. D.), Poetical Works of John Milton, 2 vols	(Macmillan & Co.)
Myers (E.), Extant Odes of Pindar, translated	(Macmillan & Co.)
Myers (P. V. N.), Remains of Lost Empires	(Harper & Bros.)
National Educational Association, Session of 1874	(Worcester) 1 75
Newcomb (Prof. S.), General Integrals of Planetary Motion, swd	(Smithsonian Institution)
Nordhoff (C.), The Communistic Societies of the U. S	(Harper & Bros.)
Nunns (Rev. T. J.), First Latin Reader	(Macmillan & Co.)
Packard (A. S., jr.), Insects of the Pond and Stream, swd	(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Thoughts to Help and to Cheer, 6th ed	(Noyes, Holmes & Co.)
Tyndall (Prof. J.), The Transmission of Sound by the Atmosphere, swd	(Estes & Lauriat) 0 25
Wright (W. A.), Shakspere's Tempest	(Macmillan & Co.)

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

DECEMBER 28, 1874.

THE occurrence of two holidays so close together has created a tendency towards greater ease in the money market for call loans, which we quote as ranging between 3 and 4 per cent., with the bulk of business doing at 3½ per cent. The market for commercial paper has been rather sluggish, as is usual just before the new year, and rates are rather lower, prime paper being quoted at 5½ to 6 per cent.

Cable advices report no change in the Bank of England rate of discount, which remains standing at 6 per cent. The Bank gained £187,000 in bullion for the week ending on Thursday last. The Bank of France continues to gain in specie—the gain last week amounting to 1,179,000 francs.

The bank statement on Saturday was another engima to the Street—an unaccountably small decrease in the specie line being shown. The banks lost in total reserve $990,700, and now hold $7,088,100 in excess of the legal requirement.

The following is the statement in detail:

	Dec. 19.	Dec. 26.	Differences.
Loans	$285,409,800	$283,665,300	Dec.. $1,744,500
Specie	13,619,500	13,397,100	Dec.. 222,400
Legal tenders	47,931,700	47,163,400	Dec.. 768,300
Deposits	215,707,800	213,889,600	Dec.. 1,818,200
Circulation	24,731,600	24,610,100	Dec.. 121,500

The following shows the relations between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	Dec. 19.	Dec. 26.	Differences.
Specie	$13,619,500	$13,397,100	Dec.. $222,400
Legal tenders	47,931,700	47,163,400	Dec.. 768,300
Total re-erve	$61,551,200	$60 560,500	Dec.. $990,700
Reserve required against deposits	53,926,950	53,472,400	
Excess of reserve above legal requirem't,	7,624,250	7,088,100	Dec.. 536,150

The stock market was firm and prices well maintained during the early part of the week. Later the market became weak, and prices on the more speculative shares declined, partly in sympathy with the rapid drop in Wabash, against which a most determined attack was made by the bears, with the effect of carrying the price to-day down below 20. Western Union, Northwestern, and Pacific Mail were very weak, and up to this writing have recovered but a part of the decline of the past few days. The dividend-paying stocks were but slightly affected by the weakness in the speculative list. The question of a dividend on Lake Shore has agitated the Street. A meeting of directors will be held to-morrow to settle the matter. Meantime, the price of the stock has advanced to 80 and above, and seems disposed to remain there until the question of the dividend has been decided. The following are the extreme prices of stocks during the week ending on Saturday: Northwestern 60¾, 58; Rock Island 101¾, 100¼; Delaware, Lackawanna and Western 109¼, 108⅝; Erie 27¼, 26⅝; Lake Shore 81, 78⅜; Michigan Central 82½, 80; Milwaukee and St. Paul 37¼, 35⅛; New York Central 101, 100⅝; Ohio and Michigan 31½, 29⅜; Pacific Mail 37½, 33⅝; Wabash 24½, 22½; Union Pacific 35¾, 33⅜; Western Union 81⅞, 78⅛, ex. dividend.

Government bonds have been in sharp demand, and prices have advanced a full 1½ per cent. on the different January and July 6 per cent. bonds. The only large sellers are the foreign bankers, but the supply derived from that source is insufficient to meet the demands from home investors, which comprise not only the insurance companies and banks, but a large number of persons who prefer to invest their money temporarily in Governments, upon which they can realize promptly, until they see an opportunity to place it in other ways. The following are the closing quotations to-night:

	Bid.	Asked.		Bid.	Asked.
U. S. Currency 6's	117¾	118	Coupon 5-20's, 1865	120⅞	121
Coupon 6's, 1881	121¾	122¼	Coupon 5-20's, 1867	12 ¾	122
Coupon 5-20's, 1862	114⅛	114⅜	Coupon 5-20's, 1868	121¼	122
Coupon 5-20's, 1864	116	116⅛	Coupon 10-40's	114¾	115
Coupon 5-20's, 1865	118	118¼	Coupon 5's, 1881	118⅛	118¾

Railroad bonds are strong and higher. New York Central firsts sold to-day at 114; New York Central 1st Consolidated, recently placed upon the Stock Exchange, at 102⅞; C., B. and Q. 7 per cent. Consolidated at 105¼, having been quoted in the market only since Saturday. Union Pacific mortgages and also those of the Central Pacific are in demand at higher quotations, and sell freely at every call at gradual increasing prices. The demand for bonds after the first of January from investors is likely to carry prices of the better issues to considerably higher prices.

The gold quotations have been confined between 111½, which was the opening price on Monday, and 112⅛. The specie shipments during the week amounted to $2,257,000, principally in gold coin.

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ERRATA.

Page 234, column 1, line 4 of sonnet. For "court" read "count."

Page 246, column 2, line 3 from bottom. For "in" read "on."

Page 276, column 2, line 25 from bottom. Insert "not" before "responsible."

Page 315, column 1, line 20 from bottom. For "elements" read "materials."

Page 365, column 1, line 1. For "and" read "in a." Column 2, line 32 from bottom. For "Memoirs" read "Memories."

Page 369, column 2, line 14. For "philosophical" read "philological."

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED
DURING THE HALF-YEAR.

Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Alzog (Rev. J.), Manual of Universal Church History, Vol. I.....(Robert Clarke & Co.) $5 00
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